Eudaimonic Job Satisfaction: Exploring Global and Facet Satisfaction with Fulfilled Job Purposes

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Abstract

Wellbeing comprises two distinct, related dimensions, labeled subjective wellbeing and psychological wellbeing, hedonia and eudaimonia, or happiness and purpose, respectively. Yet within the job domain, there is little explicit consideration of eudaimonic elements. In this article, eudaimonic job satisfaction is defined, and global and facet measures derived from theory are developed. These measures are then used in a field sample of 425 working adults to explore the potential contribution of eudaimonic job satisfaction toward explaining aspects of organizational behavior. Findings suggest that eudaimonic facet job satisfaction comprises six facets, which are satisfaction with the job’s impact on and facilitation of: expression of the self, development of the self, role in society, financial situation, family, and life. Each facet relates differently to different work, life, and work-life outcomes. Overall, findings reveal construct validity for eudaimonic job satisfaction as separate from commonly used job attitudes, and evidence that it has the potential to add to our ability understand and predict levels of work, life, and work-life outcomes such as engagement, inclusion, retention, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction, beyond hedonic job satisfaction. Hedonic and eudaimonic job satisfactions together may comprise a more holistic job-related wellbeing, needed now in the face of an increasing variety of workplace situations, diversity in workers, changes to careers and psychological contracts, jobs and facets of jobs in flux, and increasing interest in sustainable elements of motivation for workers. Implications for theory and research on job attitudes, and practical implications for organizations and societies, are discussed.

Key Words: Wellbeing, Job satisfaction, Purpose, Meaning, Work-family, Work-Life
Wellbeing comprises two distinct, related dimensions, labeled subjective wellbeing and psychological wellbeing, hedonia and eudaimonia, or happiness and purpose, respectively (Keyes, Shmotkin, & Ryff, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Waterman, 1993). This finding has emerged in recent decades from psychology literatures and also reflects long-standing traditions in philosophy and theology, common usage of the words satisfaction and wellbeing, and enduring observations in culture and literature, as in this E.B White quotation (Shenker, 1969: 43): “I rise in the morning torn between a desire to improve (or save) the world and a desire to enjoy (or savor) the world. This makes it hard to plan the day.”

Yet there has been little consideration of eudaimonic job satisfaction per se in management, organizational behavior, and industrial-organizational (I/O) psychology research literatures (hereafter shortened to management and I/O psychology). Job satisfaction as commonly conceptualized and measured in these literatures is widely acknowledged to be a conceptualization of whether a job is “enjoyable in the present,” or hedonic job satisfaction, and does not get at “the sense of contribution and purpose that comes from working,” or eudaimonic job satisfaction (Dik, Duffy, & Eldridge, 2009: 629; George & Jones, 1996: 320). In contrast, in careers and general psychology literatures, there is burgeoning interest in exploring and understanding the roles of these two important types of satisfaction on individuals, organizations and society (e.g., Dik, Byrne, & Steger, 2013; Markman, Proulx, & Lindberg, 2013).

It is curious that in management and I/O psychology, we generally use only hedonic job satisfaction in research. However, there could be good reasons for this, including that eudaimonic job satisfaction is partially included in commonly used measures of job satisfaction, is at least partially captured by other job attitudes such as work involvement and organizational commitment (Kanungo, 1982; Solinger, van Olffen, & Roe, 2008), or is treated in different ways
such as with felt meaningfulness in the job characteristics model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) or with prosocial motivation (Grant, 2008). However, the latter concepts are not job attitudes and do not purport to measure individuals’ levels of satisfaction with broadly conceptualized purposes of work. Another reason for lack of attention to eudaimonic job satisfaction could be a tendency to take organizational perspectives. That is, there may be an unbalance in management and I/O psychology such that we focus on elements of worker experiences that directly impact organizational efficiency and effectiveness, at the expense of understanding workers’ holistic experiences of jobs, which may primarily impact workers, their families, and communities, and only more indirectly impact outcomes of primary interest to organizations (Budd, 2011; George, 2014; Weiss & Rupp, 2011).

The purposes of this research are to explore eudaimonic job satisfaction and its potential as a foundational job attitude complementary to hedonic job satisfaction and other job attitudes. Eudaimonic job satisfaction is defined, and global and facet measures of eudaimonic job satisfaction derived from theory are developed and used to explore the potential contribution of eudaimonic job satisfaction toward explaining aspects of organizational behavior in a field study. Findings reveal that eudaimonic job satisfaction may more fully explain work, life, and work-life outcomes such as engagement, inclusion, intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction, even after consideration of hedonic job satisfaction, and that hedonic and eudaimonic facet satisfactions are variably related to these outcomes of interest.

**Concepts of Satisfaction and Satisfaction’s Effects**

The existence of two distinct elements of wellbeing, summarized in Table 1, has become generally accepted in recent decades (Diener, Scollon, & Lucas, 2009; Fave, Brdar, Freire, Vella-Brodrick, & Wissing, 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff, 1989; Waterman, 1993). As Table
shows, this finding reflects ancient philosophy and theology as well as common usage of the words satisfaction and wellbeing across time (Webster’s, 1959: 1209 and 1996: 1705 & 2157). However, in the work or job domain, only hedonic satisfaction has been systematically explored.

Although some findings have been mixed, empirical evidence suggests that job satisfaction as currently conceptualized is generally related positively to engagement and commitment (Griffin, Parker, & Neal, 2008; Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2008), individual task performance and citizenship behavior (Dalal, 2005; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Riketta, 2008), and organizational performance and profitability (Ostroff, 1992; Schneider, Hanges, Smith, & Salvaggio, 2003), and negatively to counterproductive organizational behaviors (Hershcovis et al., 2007) and turnover and withdrawal (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Job satisfaction is also related to general wellbeing through its relationships to positive family outcomes and individuals’ mental and physical health and overall life satisfaction (Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Kossek & Lambert, 2005; Tait, Padgett, & Baldwin, 1989). Meta-analyses using data from panel studies suggest that job attitudes, including satisfaction, are more likely to cause individual performance than the reverse (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Riketta, 2008), supporting Harter et al.’s (2002: 268) suggestion “that changes in management practices that increase employee satisfaction may increase business-unit outcomes, including profit.”

As currently conceptualized, job satisfaction is one of the most frequently measured and used constructs in management and I/O psychology (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2002; Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002; Schleicher, Hansen, & Fox, 2011), despite findings that the link between job satisfaction and organizational outcomes “is not as strong as originally thought” (Schleicher et al., 2011: 200).
The exploration of links between job satisfaction and outcomes such as performance are well documented and weaker-than-expected links remain one of the long-standing puzzles in these fields (Judge et al., 2001; Ostroff, 1992; Schleicher et al., 2011).

One missing piece of this puzzle may be incomplete or atheoretical conceptualization of job satisfaction used in research measures (Judge et al., 2002). The lack of ongoing theoretical development of job satisfaction has been cited as a significant problem in management and I/O psychology (Guion, 1992; Kinicki et al., 2002; Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Scarpello & Campbell, 1983). More recent interest in constructs such as engagement (Kahn, 1990; Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010) and presenteeism (Johns, 2010) have been led by practitioners in need of a different kind of worker attitude measure (Frese, 2008), and theories of these constructs suggest that they are, at least in part, attempts to capture the purpose and meaning of jobs in workers’ lives, in order to predict behavioral outcomes of fulfillment, or lack thereof, of these purposes (Kahn, 1990; Prochaska et al., 2011).

**Definitions of Hedonic and Eudaimonic Job Satisfaction**

In their review of job attitudes, Schleicher et al. (2011: 148) note that there are “two great debates” about job satisfaction. First, there is some confusion over defining job satisfaction. Two basic approaches are to define it as an affect or emotion based on an evaluation of the job, or as an attitude with cognitive, affective, and behavioral components based on the evaluation of one’s job, with the latter conceptualization becoming more generally accepted. In both approaches, the focus is on the experience of the job, as in Locke’s (1976: 1300) influential conceptualization of job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences.”
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That current conceptualizations are understood as hedonic is illustrated by a conclusion from a review on vocation in which authors state, “job satisfaction is…an important outcome, but the sense of contribution and purpose that comes from working…is (also) valuable and beneficial for (workers)” (Dik et al., 2009: 629). Similarly, in a study exploring causes of turnover intention, George and Jones (1996: 320) equate job satisfaction to whether the job is “…enjoyable in the present.” In other words, job satisfaction as currently conceptualized and measured is not thought to capture the eudaimonic element.

As applied to jobs, hedonia and eudaimonia reflect distinct and related assumptions about what drives human efforts toward jobs (i.e., efforts to take a job, do it, or do it well): pleasure and enjoyment—hedonic reasons, or meaning and purpose—eudaimonic reasons. The hedonic focus emphasizes the job itself or its facets as enjoyable or pleasurable to have or do, whereas the eudaimonic focus is on the job as instrumental to one or more larger outcomes or purposes, whether undertaken as part of identity expression, to contribute to society, to provide financially for dependents, or to learn and grow (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Grant, 2008; Super, 1990).

Job satisfaction has been defined as an attitude with cognitive, affective, and behavioral components based on the evaluation of one’s experiences of the job (Schleicher et al., 2011), where positive evaluations result in cognitions and emotions that are pleasing and enjoyable (Locke, 1976). This is hedonic job satisfaction. I define eudaimonic job satisfaction here, in line with the final column of Table 1, as an attitude with cognitive, affective, and behavioral components based on the evaluation of whether the job fulfills a worthy purpose, where positive evaluations result in cognitions and emotions of fulfillment and meaningfulness.

Hedonic and Eudaimonic Job Satisfactions and Other Job Attitudes
One reason that eudaimonic job satisfaction has not been considered explicitly in management and I/O psychology may be that current measures of job satisfaction partially capture eudaimonic elements. According to reviews (e.g., Judge et al., 2002), the most used measures of job satisfaction are the Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ; Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). Examination of the items in these two measures reveals that they do include some items that could be construed as purpose-oriented (e.g., “The chance to do things for other people”). However, the majority of items ask respondents to rate how satisfied they are with experiences with specific elements of the job (e.g., “I am noticed when I do a good job”). Therefore, it is likely that both hedonic and eudaimonic job satisfactions will be related to current measures. However, given the generally accepted acknowledgement of current conceptualizations as hedonic, and a review of all items in these measures, current measures are likely to be more related to hedonic job satisfaction.

**Hypothesis 1.** Both hedonic and eudaimonic global job satisfactions are related to the MSQ, however hedonic job satisfaction is more strongly related to the MSQ than is eudaimonic job satisfaction.

Another reason that eudaimonic job satisfaction has not been considered explicitly in management and I/O psychology may be that other job attitudes capture eudaimonic elements of attitudes toward jobs. For example, work involvement is an assessment of one’s identification with work and the centrality of work in one’s life (Kanungo, 1982), and organizational commitment is an attitude toward an organization, including assessments of one's identification with it, internationalization of its goals, norms, and values, and readiness to serve and enhance its interests (Solinger et al., 2008). These two constructs are similar attitudes but with different foci,
the first toward work and the second toward the organization. They may include some elements of purpose such as contributing to the individual’s identity. However, examination of the items in common measures reveals that they focus primarily on elements of jobs rather than on purposes of jobs. Therefore, it seems likely that work involvement and organizational commitment will be more strongly related to hedonic than to eudaimonic job satisfaction.

**Hypothesis 2.** Both hedonic and eudaimonic global job satisfactions are related to work involvement and organizational commitment, and hedonic job satisfaction is more related to work involvement and organizational commitment than is eudaimonic job satisfaction.

**Theoretical Foundations for Eudaimonic Job Satisfaction**

At least three types of theories support the existence and potential significance of eudaimonic job satisfaction: wellbeing theories; self, career, and life course theories; and holistic person-job fit. Wellbeing and stress theories, such as the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory, posit that individuals aim to build key resources throughout life that make their lives fulfilling and enjoyable (Griffin & Clarke, 2011; Hobfoll, 1989). When people experience a surplus of these resources, they experience positive wellbeing; when they experience an inability to gain these resources, they experience stress or a lack of wellbeing (Hobfoll, 1989: 517). COR theory posits that much human behavior is explained as attempts to build, protect, gain, or prevent the loss of primary resources, which include self-esteem, mastery, status, intimacy, and the protection and enhancement of the self. These elements are very similar to those that comprise psychological wellbeing, or eudaimonia.

Psychological wellbeing theories explore primary resources in depth. For example, Ryff and colleagues (Keyes et al., 2002; Ryff, 1989) show psychological wellbeing resulting from successfully managing existential challenges of self-acceptance, mastery, growth, positive
relationships, self-determination, and having a purpose in life. These elements are similar to those posited by self-determination theory, which suggests that autonomy, mastery, and relatedness have longer-term motivation impacts than external incentives (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Resources can be categorized as primary and secondary, where secondary resources are valued in themselves and because of their potential to contribute to building or prevention of loss of one or more primary resources (Griffin & Clarke, 2011). Secondary resources help people attain one or more primary resources, and can include objects, relationships, conditions, or personal characteristics that serve as a means for attaining ultimate goals (Hobfoll, 1989). Viewed from these person-centered theories, the condition of holding a job serves the attainment of larger goals such as service, growth, autonomy, and purpose. This suggests that assessment of eudaimonic job satisfaction is different from assessment of the experience of the job itself. The latter may be an assessment of the experiences with secondary resource, whereas the former is of the contribution of a secondary resource toward building primary resources for self, family, community, and society. One’s assessment of a job (e.g., as an “enjoyable” or “unenjoyable” job) exists separately from an assessment of the impact of that job (e.g., “it is a pleasant job but it doesn’t make a difference” or “it is an unpleasant job, but it matters”).

Theories of the self, careers, and the life course suggest that jobs are valued in part because of their contributions to other highly valued domains of life. Life course and life span literatures have established that individuals construct lives comprised of fundamental domains. For example, Super (1990) described major adult life domains derived from empirical research, and similar life domains have been investigated by wellbeing and meaning researchers (e.g., Andrews & Robinson, 1991; England & Whitely, 1990; Fave et al., 2011), including: job, career, or work; social, family, marriage, or social support; income, wealth, financial, or standard of
living; fun, leisure, or recreation; physical, mental, and spiritual health; housing, community, government, and safety; and education.

Extensive research has explored relationships among and between job, family, and life satisfactions and these with behaviors of interest (e.g., Tait et al., 1989). This research has conceptualized and measured satisfactions in different domains separately. However, psychology literatures point out that each person strives for “a coherent sense of one’s roles and occupational pathway, one’s self in relation to others, and one’s values and purpose in life” (LaGuardia, 2009: 91, emphasis mine), and for a holistic or congruent sense of her or his overall life (Ryan & Deci, 2001: 146). Theories of the self suggest that a person makes sense of self through participation in these life domains (Farmer & van Dyne, 2010; Deci & Ryan, 2008).

Fit between person and environment has been shown to predict attitudes toward the target environment, for example person-job fit is related to attitudes toward the job and person-organization fit to attitudes toward the organization (Chatman, 1989; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Research has shown the salience of fit, however fit research has been criticized for treating a person as an amalgam of “parts,” thus overlooking important patterns of the whole and facets of meaning (Guion, 1992; James & James, 1992; Weiss & Rupp, 2011). This can cause misleading conclusions, such as when the resulting needs or values are seen as stable individual differences, rather than as the result of the evolving human quest over time for increasing primary resources such as esteem, mastery, growth, individuality, intimacy, and a sense of purpose.

For a century, scholars have argued that job-related attitudes, and in particular job satisfaction, are a function of the individual (dispositional), the environment (situational), or the match between the two on aspects such as the individual’s needs with the rewards of the job, the individual’s met expectations of or desires from the job, or values fulfilled by the job (Brief,
1998; Chatman, 1989; Dormann & Zapf, 2001; Moore, Gunz, & Hall, 2005; Parsons, 1909), or on all three aspects: person, environment, and fit (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, & Abraham, 1989; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). More holistically, Guion (1992) notes that these are essentially ways of saying the same thing: people desire, want, expect, and need things from their jobs. I refer to this collective of desires, wants, expectations, and needs as the purposes of jobs from individual workers’ perspectives. This is depicted on the right side of Figure 1. Thus, the whole self, situated in a life, is foundational to holistic job-related wellbeing.

Hypothesis 3. Controlling for levels of hedonic global job satisfaction, eudaimonic global job satisfaction is related to work, life, and work-life outcomes including engagement, inclusion, intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction.

Facets of Hedonic and Eudaimonic Job Satisfaction
The second great debate about job satisfaction is “whether it is most accurately conceptualized at the global or facet level,” and this debate, unlike the first one, has not resulted in a generally accepted conclusion (Schleicher et al., 2011: 148). Therefore in exploring eudaimonic job satisfaction, it is important to explore both global and facet conceptualizations. The two instruments most used in job satisfaction literatures, the JDI (Smith et al., 1969) and the MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967), measure five and twenty facets, respectively. The JDI measures satisfaction with work itself, supervisor, co-workers, pay, and advancement, and the MSQ measures twenty facets inclusive of these.

The widespread adoption of these specific sets of facets has occurred despite cautions from the developers MSQ that one set of facets is not applicable to all jobs. MSQ developers stressed that its facets did not represent the most vital facets in all jobs or for all workers (e.g., Dawis et al., 1974; Weitzel et al., 1973), and for example, the 20 MSQ facets were culled from 55 facets empirically derived in different organizations across different populations of workers (Dawis, personal communication). Echoing this, reviewers praise the empirical rigor with which the JDI and MSQ were developed, but also note narrow breadth of domain sampling and lack of theory development in identification of facets (e.g., Brief, 1998; Kerr, 1985; Kinicki et al., 2002).

However, my review of the surge of job satisfaction research during the era when the JDI and MSQ emerged reveals two findings that have been less emphasized since. First, support was found for four general-level facets: work tasks, work relationships, organization, and rewards (e.g., Friedlander, 1963; Weitzel et al., 1973), and second, different patterns of satisfactions with sub-facets within these general-level facets was found across different organizations and different groups, or profiles, of workers (e.g., Dawis et al., 1974; Weitzel et al., 1973). A specific example is that satisfaction with experiences with one’s manager and co-workers would
be encompassed within the general-level facet satisfaction with work relationships. In addition, this facet could also include satisfaction with clients and customers, suppliers, and subordinates. Because satisfaction with general-level hedonic facet satisfactions is broad and inclusive of a wide variety of situations, I used this conceptualization in this research.

To develop facet eudaimonic job satisfaction, I reviewed literatures on meaning and purposes of work, including reviews (e.g., Brief & Nord, 1990; Budd, 2011; Meilaender, 2000; Moore et al., 2005; Nord, Brief, Atieh, & Doherty, 1990). As Guion (1992: 265) noted, one way to define the meaning of a job is the personal relevance of the job to the individual. Two elements of this are why people work a job or the purpose of the work (England & Whitely, 1990) and what people understand about the job; the sense they make of it before, during, and after it occurs (James & James, 1992). As Brief and Nord (1990: 13) state, “the meaning of all human activities is derived from two basic sources—intent and understanding.” Across multiple literatures and cross-culturally, I identified common understandings of the purposes of work and jobs from this perspective, which are summarized in Table 2 and reviewed below.

The purposes of work in life have been studied by philosophers and theologians for millennia, and in the most recent century by humanities and social science scholars, including sociologists, psychologists, anthropologists, and ethicists (Budd, 2011; Meilaender, 2000; Moore et al., 2005; Nord et al., 1990). Themes of the purposes of work exist along a spectrum nested on one end in the self and identity and on the other end in primary community, life, and relationship interdependencies. This spectrum is shown in the leftmost, narrow column of Table 2. Brief and Nord (1990) argued that purpose comes from a combination of two things: personal development and one’s perception of past, present, and future events and needs.
These are similar to the continuum anchors identified here—the self to personal development and primary community, life, and relationship interdependencies to events and needs. Similar conclusions are drawn in identity, careers, and work-life literatures, where scholars suggest that finding meaning in work is part of constructing both an identity and a larger life within family and community (Meilaender, 2000; Moore et al., 2005; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). This also reflects anchors of individualistic and collectivistic value sets.

Collectivist values, more dominant in Eastern and indigenous populations, and in feminine value sets across cultures, emphasize relationships and interdependent interests and identities over individual goals and identities. In comparison with individualist values in which people see themselves as unique and look out self over group, those with collectivist values self-define through, and identify with, social groups, including work groups, organizations, and especially family and kin (Eagly & Chin, 2010; Enriquez, 1989; Judge et al., 2002; Triandis, 1995).

Six separable themes or facets of purposes for jobs are identified in the middle column of Table 2. Themes related to the individual include expression and development of the self. Themes related to community, life, and relationship interdependencies include having a role in society that goes beyond self, financial subsistence and thriving, relationships with family as self-defined, and overall life construction. Specific expressions of these six themes vary across the literatures. Some of the primary expressions within each facet are listed in the final column of Table 2 and reviewed below.

Throughout history, cultural understandings of the purposes of work have shifted, and contradictory meanings are found within an era, including primarily hedonic and primarily eudaimonic perspectives (Nord et al., 1990; Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin & Schwartz, 1997; Ryan & Deci, 2001). In philosophy, theology, and social science, work has been understood as:
a curse, waste of time, or necessary evil that makes the pursuit of truth and virtue difficult; a
punishment for sin; a drudgery to be thankful for because it provides a way to atone for sin or
lack by contributing to society; a natural but unexplainable aspect of the human condition; a
“disutility” to be bartered for utility; a noble calling set by a divine entity; a means of personal
fulfillment; and a way to occupy oneself or to avoid sin and corruption (see Brief & Nord, 1990,
Budd, 2011, and Meilaender, 2000 for reviews). Although contradictory, most of these ideas are
found in Western and other societies today (Muirhead, 2004; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997).

Some careers, sociology, and psychology research explores purposes of work or its
impact on wellbeing per se. The career literature focuses on “the evolving sequence of a
person’s work experiences over time” (Gunz & Peiperl, 2005: 4). Because of the focus on a
person’s work over time, careers research has been inclusive of jobs’ impacts on other life facets
including education, family, and citizenship as reviewed above (e.g., Super, 1990). The more
recent research on callings in careers psychology highlights eudaimonic elements of a person’s
work over time, in contrast to notions of jobs and careers, which may highlight the hedonic
motivations for work first explored in research (Dik et al., 2013; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997).

The Meaning of Work International Research Team (MOW; England & Whitely, 1990)
studied the content of the meaning of work across eight industrialized Western and Eastern
countries. Their primary findings were that workers clustered into groups both by reasons given
for work (intent) and by definitions of work (understanding). Eight groups emerged that existed
in all eight countries, although proportions of each differed by country. The MOW groups
valued (1) family, leisure, and interpersonal relationships, work necessary but not important, (2)
family and religion, work necessary but not important (3) financial benefits, work not important
otherwise (4) financial benefits balanced with duty, contribution, and a sense of belonging, work
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moderately important (5) status and prestige identified with the work and its products, work
highly important (6) duty and social service to society, work highly important (7) self expression identified with interesting work and its products, work highly important and (8) balanced emphasis on financial benefits and self expression with interesting work.

These findings are evocative of discussions about job satisfaction prior to the conceptualizations and measures of it that emerged during the 1960s, which are currently the most used conceptualizations and measures (i.e., the JDI; Smith et al., 1969, and the MSQ; Weiss et al., 1967). For example, in his ground-breaking book on job satisfaction over 75 years ago, Hoppock (1935: 5) noted that understanding job satisfaction,

…is complicated by the…nature of satisfaction. Indeed there may be no such thing as job satisfaction independent of the other satisfactions in one’s life. Family relationships, health, relative social status in the community, and a multitude of other factors may be just as important as the job itself in determining what we tentatively choose to call job satisfaction.

Thus, when considering job-related wellbeing, the work/career domain is highly salient, however in healthy individuals, job-related identities and roles do not exist in isolation but as part of, and instrumental to, a coherent, positive sense of a whole self, and roles outside the job. This was found explicitly by the MOW research team, who concluded:

Working seems, then, to be of general significance to individuals because it occupies a great deal of their time, because it generates economic and sociopsychological benefits and costs, and because it is so interrelated with other important life areas such as family, leisure, religion, and community (England & Whitely, 1990: 66).

Thus, one might reasonably expect a holistic conceptualization of job-related wellbeing to include the sense of satisfaction with the job fulfilling not just economic and social purposes but also psychological purposes in a way that fits well with family, leisure, and religion. These and other purposes of jobs are reflected in Table 2. Another finding of the MOW research was a strong relationship between having positive attitudes toward work and seeing the positive
contribution of one’s work to others, whether to a customer, a boss, a family, or a society (England & Whitely, 1990), which echoes the findings of Grant and colleagues (e.g., Grant, 2008), and also supports the existence and potential significance of eudaimonic job satisfaction.

If the eudaimonic facet satisfactions proposed in Table 2 comprise eudaimonic global job satisfaction, then these facet satisfactions should be more strongly related to eudaimonic than to hedonic global job satisfaction. Similarly, if the prior conceptualizations of general-level hedonic facet satisfactions with work tasks, work relationships, organization, and rewards comprise hedonic global job satisfaction, then these facet satisfactions should be more strongly related to hedonic than to eudaimonic global job satisfaction. An additional note about three of the facets is important. First, there is potential overlap between the general-level hedonic facet of satisfaction with rewards and all eudaimonic facets. That is, rewards broadly conceptualized could be conceptualized as the fulfillment of the purposes of taking and doing the job. Second, there is likely especially overlap on economic factors. The MSQ and JDI measure “satisfaction with pay/compensation.” In contrast, the conceptualization in Table 2 is “satisfaction with the financial impact of the job on life.” These could be different constructs, but are likely related. Therefore, I explore economic impacts separately here. Third, the family facet is largely comprises family, but family is defined differently across cultures and time. I adopt a broad notion that includes people related by marriage, biology, adoption, or shared household, as well as through affection, obligation, dependence, or cooperation (Karraker & Grochowski, 2006: 7).

**Hypothesis 4.** Satisfaction with work tasks, work relationships, and organization is more related to hedonic than eudaimonic global job satisfaction.

**Hypothesis 5.** Satisfaction with the financial impact of the job is related to both hedonic and eudaimonic global job satisfaction.
Hypothesis 6. Satisfaction with expression, development, role, impact on family as self-defined, and impact on life is more strongly related to eudaimonic than to hedonic global job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3 stated that after controlling for levels of hedonic global job satisfaction, eudaimonic global job satisfaction would relate to work, life, and work-life outcomes including engagement, inclusion, intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction. The same relationships likely hold for global and facet conceptualizations. That is, it is also likely that after controlling for levels of hedonic facet job satisfactions, eudaimonic facet job satisfactions would relate to work, life, and work-life outcomes including engagement, inclusion, intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 7. Controlling for levels of satisfaction with hedonic job facet satisfaction and satisfaction with the financial impact of the job, satisfaction with eudaimonic job facet satisfactions is related to work and life outcomes including engagement, inclusion, intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction.

Theory (Brief, 1998; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Locke, 1976; Spector, 1997), empirical evidence (Kerr, 1985; Kinicki et al., 2002), and critical reviews and meta-analyses (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989; Kinicki et al., 2002) show that facet satisfactions are distinct from each other and from global job satisfaction. For example, satisfaction with work tasks relates to task performance but not to organizational citizenship behavior, whereas satisfaction with supervision relates strongly to citizenship behavior but only weakly to task performance (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Kinicki et al., 2002). Kinicki et al. (2002) found absenteeism was related to satisfaction with pay and work tasks, but not to satisfaction with work relationships. Rothausen and colleagues (Rothausen, Gonzalez, & Griffin, 2009) found that facet
satisfactions related differently to intention to quit than to global job satisfaction. Facet satisfactions may also relate differently to customer perceptions of service quality (Snipes, Oswald, LaTour, & Armenakis, 2005). Some facets predicted outcomes beyond what was predicted by global job satisfaction for some workers in two studies that explored this issue (Ironson et al., 1998; Rothausen et al., 2009). All this evidence suggests facet satisfactions are related but separable, and related but different from global satisfactions. Therefore, I expect hedonic and eudaimonic facet satisfactions to relate differently to different outcomes of interest.

**Hypothesis 8.** Satisfaction with work tasks, work relationships, organization, financial impact, expression, development, role, impact on family, and impact on life will relate differently to different outcomes such as engagement, inclusion, intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction.

More specifically, because engagement and inclusion are elements of an individual’s personal felt connection to a job, I expect hedonic facets satisfactions and the eudaimonic facet satisfactions with expression and development to be more strongly related to these constructs. Similarly, since satisfaction with role and the impacts of the job on financial status, family, and life likely relate more to community, life, and relationship interdependencies, I expect the eudaimonic facet satisfactions with role, financial impact, impact on family, and impact on life to be more related to intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction.

**Hypothesis 9.** Satisfaction with tasks, work relationships, organization, expression, and development is more strongly related to engagement and inclusion than other facet satisfaction are, whereas satisfaction with role and with impacts of the job on financial status, family, and life is more strongly related to intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction than other facet satisfactions are.
Method

Sample and Procedures

I collected data via electronic survey questionnaires using Qualtrics survey software from a sample of working adults who were asked to consider completing the survey by students in two cohorts of a full-time MBA program one year apart. In total, the survey link was sent to 871 working adults, and 425 completed the survey, for an effective overall response rate of 49%. The data was collected for purposes of this research as well as for a class project in the MBA program. Students were asked to invite a variety of working people from their professional networks to participate, attempting for variety in age, race, sex, and occupation.

The survey contained items pertaining to job satisfactions, work involvement, organizational commitment, engagement, inclusion, intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction. Before proceeding to the survey, participants indicated having read and agreed to a cover letter, which assured confidentiality and explained the project. The same items were used in both years, with a two exceptions. Because the measures of eudaimonic job satisfaction are new, in the first year of the survey, I chose the best four items from ten trial items for the measure of eudaimonic global job satisfaction, based on item reliability analysis. The other six items were discarded, and one additional item was added in the second year for a five-item measure. Final items used in both years are included in the appendix.

In the first year, links to the survey were sent 346 people identified by MBA students. 198 started the survey, and 157 completed it for an effective response rate of 45%. This high response rate was likely due to personal connections to students, who were also using the data for a class project. In the second year, an incentive to complete the survey was added, which was a coffee shop gift card. Links to the survey were sent to a total of 525 people identified by
MBA students. 347 started the survey, and 268 completed it for an effective response rate of 53%. The higher response rate was likely due to adding the incentive.

The average age of the respondents in the combined sample is 32 (SD=10), and though respondents ranged in age from 19 to 67, 73% of respondents are between the ages of 23 and 34. The majority of our respondents (88%) have bachelor’s degrees and 32% have graduate degrees. The average tenure with the organization is 5 years (SD=5), 88% are white, and 52% are female. We also asked number of hours worked per week, and 71% of respondents reported working between 40 and 51 hours, with the remaining equally split above and below that range. Thus, this is a young, highly educated, mostly full-time, mostly white sample, although 12% of the sample identified as persons of color.

Measures

Hedonic and eudaimonic global job satisfactions, hedonic and eudaimonic facet job satisfactions, work involvement, organizational commitment, engagement, inclusion, intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction were assessed along with demographic information and items for another purpose. A seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly dissatisfied or strongly disagree (1) to strongly satisfied or strongly agree (7) was used for all items. Alpha reliabilities are reported below with sample 1 followed by sample 2 reliabilities.

General job attitudes were measured by items adopted directly or adapted from existing measures. Global job satisfactions were measured by a combination of items adopted or adapted from those reported in a review (Judge et al., 2002), in the MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967), and for eudaimonic wellbeing (Waterman, 1993). Items used for hedonic and eudaimonic global job satisfactions are all reported in the appendix. Hedonic global job satisfaction was measured with four items in the first sample ($\alpha = .97$) and five items in the second sample ($\alpha = .96$), as indicated
Eudaimonic global job satisfaction was measured with four items in the first sample ($\alpha = .92$) and five items in the second sample ($\alpha = .96$), as indicated in the appendix. In addition, the 20-item, short-form MSQ was included (Weiss et al., 1967), adapted for response on the 7-point Likert scale ($\alpha = .94/.93$). Work involvement was measured with three items selected or adapted from Kanungo’s (1982) scale ($\alpha = .83/.80$). Organizational commitment was measured with three items adapted from Solinger et al. (2008) ($\alpha = .87/.86$).

Facet job satisfactions were measured with items modeled on MSQ items (Weiss et al., 1967) adapted to reflect the general-level hedonic facets identified in prior research and the eudaimonic facets in Table 2. Items used for hedonic and eudaimonic facet job satisfactions are all reported in the appendix. MSQ items were modeled because, as Kinicki et al. (2002) showed, MSQ facets result in stronger internal consistency reliabilities than the JDI. In addition, this item style is easily modified to get at different facets (Dawis, personal communication). Facet job satisfactions were measured with three items each, including satisfaction with work tasks ($\alpha = .93/.81$), satisfaction with work relationships ($\alpha = .81/.86$), satisfaction with organization ($\alpha = .94/.83$), satisfaction with expression ($\alpha = .86/.84$), satisfaction with development ($\alpha = .92/.90$), satisfaction with role ($\alpha = .85/.78$), satisfaction with financial impact ($\alpha = .96/.96$), satisfaction with impact on family as defined ($\alpha = .85/.85$), and satisfaction with impact on life ($\alpha = .92/.89$).

Engagement was measured with nine items from Rich, LePine, and Crawford’s (2010) measure. The full measure was not used due to space constraints, but three items were chosen from each of their subscales: cognitive, emotional, and behavioral ($\alpha = .91/.92$). Inclusion was measured with eight items from Shore et al.’s (2011) measure. The full measure was not used due to space constraints, but four items were chosen from each of their subscales: uniqueness and belonging ($\alpha = .94/.93$). Intention to quit was measured with four items adapted from the
Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979) \((\alpha = .71/.91)\). Work-family conflict was measured with three items adapted from Kopelman, Greenhaus, and Connolly (1983); the full measure was not used due to space constraints \((\alpha = .68/.72)\). Life satisfaction was measured with 4 items from the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 2009) \((\alpha = .91/.83)\).

**Data analysis**

The two samples were combined for hypothesis testing. Hypotheses were tested using correlational and hierarchical regression techniques. Two sets of five hierarchical regressions were run, two each on the work-life outcomes of engagement, inclusion, intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction, the first set with global job satisfactions and the second set with facet job satisfactions. Two additional hierarchical regressions were run of facets on the each global job satisfaction.

To test Hypotheses 1 and 2, correlations of global job satisfactions with the MSQ, work involvement, and organizational commitment were compared. To test Hypothesis 3, results of hierarchical regressions of outcomes of interest on global job satisfactions were examined. To test hypotheses 4, 5, and 6, the results of hierarchical regressions of global job satisfactions on facet job satisfactions were examined. To test hypothesis 7, 8, and 9, results of each hierarchical regression of facet satisfactions on outcomes of interest were examined.

**Results**

Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for all variables are reported in Table 3. Examination of this table reveals that job attitudes are related to each other, as expected. High correlations (above .8) are noted between the MSQ and hedonic global job satisfaction, as predicted, and also between the facets of satisfaction with the job’s impact on life with both
satisfaction with development and with impact on family. It may that the job’s provision of opportunities to develop and positive impacts on family comprise a large part of satisfaction with impact on life. Finally, the MSQ correlates highly with five of the nine facet satisfactions, and satisfaction with work tasks also correlates highly with global hedonic job satisfaction. Other than these eleven correlations above .8, job attitude intercorrelations range from .22 to .79. Examination of Table 2 also reveals that correlations between the outcome variables of interest are low to moderate, with only engagement and inclusion being relatively highly correlated with each other. Finally, the demographic variables of age and education are related to job attitude and outcome variables in this sample, and are thus controlled in all hypothesis testing.

Hypothesis 1 stated that both hedonic and eudaimonic global job satisfactions would be related to the MSQ, and that hedonic would be more strongly related than would eudaimonic global job satisfaction. Hypothesis 2 stated that both hedonic and eudaimonic global job satisfactions would be related to work involvement and organizational commitment, and that hedonic would be more related than would eudaimonic global job satisfaction. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were tested by examining and comparing the correlations of the MSQ, work involvement, and organizational commitment with hedonic and eudaimonic global job satisfactions using Steiger’s Z test. Both global job satisfactions were significantly related to the MSQ, and hedonic global job satisfaction was significantly more related to the MSQ than was eudaimonic job satisfaction (Z=7.75; p < .01). Both global job satisfactions were significantly related to both work involvement and organizational commitment. Hedonic global job satisfaction was significantly more related to work involvement than was eudaimonic job satisfaction (Z=4.05; p < .01), and
hedonic global job satisfaction was also more related to organizational commitment than was eudaimonic global job satisfaction ($Z=2.35; p < .05$). These results support hypotheses 1 and 2.

Hypothesis 3 stated that after controlling for levels of hedonic global job satisfaction, eudaimonic global job satisfaction would be related to the work, life, and work-life outcomes of engagement, inclusion, intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction. This hypothesis was tested by conducting hierarchical regressions of these work and life outcomes on control variables in step 1, adding hedonic global job satisfaction in step 2, and adding eudaimonic job satisfaction in step 3. The results are presented in Table 4. Examination of Table 4 reveals that adding eudaimonic global job satisfaction explained additional variance in engagement and inclusion, but not in intention to quit, work-family conflict, or life satisfaction. In addition, the final equation coefficients were significant for both hedonic and eudaimonic global job satisfactions for engagement and inclusion, but not for intention to quit, work-family conflict, or life satisfaction. These results support hypothesis 3 for engagement and inclusion, and do not support hypothesis 3 for intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4 stated that satisfaction with work tasks, work relationships, and organization would be more related to hedonic than eudaimonic global job satisfaction. Hypothesis 5 stated that satisfaction with the financial impact of the job would be related to both hedonic and eudaimonic global job satisfaction. Hypothesis 6 stated that satisfaction with expression, development, role, impact on family, and impact on life would be more strongly related to eudaimonic than to hedonic global job satisfaction. Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 were tested by conducting two hierarchical regressions, of hedonic and eudaimonic global job satisfactions on control variables in step 1, adding hedonic facet job satisfactions in step 2, satisfaction with
Examination of Table 5 reveals that hedonic facet satisfactions explained 68% of the variance in hedonic global job satisfaction, but only 35% in eudaimonic global job satisfaction, strongly supporting hypothesis 4. Satisfaction with financial impact did not explain significant additional variance in either hedonic or eudaimonic global job satisfaction, not supporting hypothesis 5. Eudaimonic facet satisfactions explained an additional 4% of variance in hedonic global job satisfaction, and an additional 21% of variance in eudaimonic global job satisfaction, strongly supporting hypothesis 6. Correlation patterns were supportive of hypothesis 4, but not generally of hypotheses 5 and 6, as eight of the nine facet satisfactions were correlated equally or more highly with hedonic than eudaimonic global satisfaction. Overall these results are supportive of hypotheses 4 and 6, and not supportive of hypothesis 5.

Examination of the coefficients of the final equation on hedonic global job satisfaction shows that those for the facets task, work relationships, and life impact are significant and in the expected direction, that for family impact is significant in the opposite direction, and that those for expression and development are approaching significant levels. These findings qualify the overall supportive results for hypothesis 4, in that two eudaimonic facets may also impact hedonic global job satisfaction. Examination of the coefficients of the final equation on eudaimonic global job satisfaction shows that those for the facets task and role are significant and in the expected direction, that for organization is significant in the opposite direction, and that for impact on family is approaching significant levels. These findings qualify the overall supportive results for hypothesis 6, in that two hedonic facets may also impact eudaimonic
global job satisfaction. The results in opposite directions are discussed below. It is also
interesting that education appears to explain a small part of eudaimonic global job satisfaction,
with more educated respondents having higher levels of this aspect of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 7 stated that, controlling for levels of satisfaction with hedonic facets and
satisfaction with the financial impact of the job, satisfaction with eudaimonic facets would be
related to work and life outcomes including engagement, inclusion, intention to quit, work-
family conflict, and life satisfaction. Hypothesis 8 stated that satisfaction with hedonic and
eudaimonic facets would relate differently to different outcomes. Hypothesis 9 stated that
satisfaction with hedonic facets and the eudaimonic facets of expression and development would
be more strongly related to engagement and inclusion than would other facet satisfactions, and
that satisfaction with role and with impacts on financial status, family, and life would be more
strongly related to intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction than would other
facet satisfactions. Hypotheses 7, 8, and 9, were tested by conducting hierarchical regressions of
the outcome variables on control variables in step 1, adding hedonic facet job satisfactions in
step 2, satisfaction with financial impact in step 3, and eudaimonic facet satisfactions in step 4.
The results are presented in Table 6.

| Insert Table 6 about here |

Examination of Table 6 reveals that adding eudaimonic facet satisfactions after
controlling for hedonic facet satisfactions and satisfaction with financial impact explained
additional variance in engagement, inclusion, intention to quit, work-family conflict, and life
satisfaction, and that patterns of final equation coefficients included significant coefficients for at
least one eudaimonic facet in all cases. These results are strongly supportive of hypothesis 7
across all five outcomes considered here. Different facet coefficients were significant for the
different outcomes and each facet had at least one significant coefficient for one of the five outcomes, strongly supporting hypothesis 8 for all five outcomes considered here.

The coefficients in the final equation on engagement for the facet satisfactions task, expression, and role were all significant and in the expected direction, supportive of hypothesis 9 for engagement except for the result for the role facet. The coefficients in the final equation on inclusion for the facets work relationships, organization, expression, and development were all significant and in the expected direction, strongly supporting hypothesis 9 for inclusion. The coefficients in the final equation for intention to quit for the facets organization and expression were significant in the expected direction, not supportive of hypothesis 9 for intention to quit. The coefficients in the final equation for work-family conflict for the facets impact on family and impact on life were significant in the expected direction, and that for impacts finances significant in opposite direction. This generally supports hypothesis 9 for work-family conflict. Finally, the coefficients in the final equation for life satisfaction were significant for the facets impact on finances and impact on life in the expected direction, supporting hypothesis 9 for life satisfaction. Overall, these results were strongly supportive of hypothesis 9 for inclusion, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction, and less so for engagement, and not for intention to quit.

**Discussion**

The purpose of this article was to build a theoretically based conceptualization of eudaimonic job satisfaction to complement extant hedonic conceptualizations for a more complete way to capture job-related wellbeing. Building on job satisfaction and wellbeing literatures, as well as theories of wellbeing, the self in a career and life trajectory, and holistic person-job fit, I developed and tested measures of global and facet eudaimonic job satisfactions. Finding support conclusions from prior research that job satisfaction is an attitude toward the job
based on an evaluation of experiences with elements of the job, but findings also suggest that this is not the end of the story. Rather, a job is not an entity taken up by the worker solely to experience its facets, nor solely for pleasure or enjoyment, nor solely for economic and promotion rewards, but for broad purposes such as self-expression, development, having a role in something larger, and for family and a larger life and community.

This conceptualization broadens and deepens from current conceptualizations of job satisfaction by adding eudaimonic aspects to current hedonic conceptualizations, building on existing knowledge and expanding the focal arenas for identification of facets that comprise job satisfaction to workers’ senses of self and their interdependencies in lives, families, communities, and society. It adds satisfaction of fulfillment of purposes of jobs, as workers see those purposes, to satisfaction of enjoyment of job facets designed and administered by managers. This important addition mirrors theoretical crystallization in general wellbeing literatures (Ryan & Deci, 2001). This conceptualization also broadened to consider specific general-level facets for both hedonic and eudaimonic job satisfactions, finding evidence of construct validity for global and facet eudaimonic job satisfaction as well as evidence that eudaimonic job satisfaction has the potential to add to our ability understand and predict levels of work, life, and work-life outcomes such as engagement, inclusion, retention, work-family conflict, and life satisfaction, beyond hedonic job satisfaction.

**Contribution to Theory**

First, the theoretical foundation for this conceptualization of eudaimonic job satisfaction is the individual in the context of her or his whole life in a family, community, and society. This is a new locus for development of a job-related attitude. Most job attitudes have been developed with a focus on the job itself, rather than how individuals experience or understand jobs (Weiss
Based on phenomena depicted in Figure 1, this conceptualization may complement and complete extant conceptualizations of job satisfaction. Second, this research contributes a conceptualization of the specific facet satisfactions that may comprise eudaimonic job satisfaction. Six facets developed from theories and research on the purposes of jobs and work to individuals each show strong relationships with different outcomes of interest. Additionally, it may be significant that this six facets reflect ideas important to management and I/O psychology, which have not previously been brought into general job attitudes. For example, the entire fields of work-family and work-life have emerged as important in the past several decades (Ford et al., 2007; Kossek & Lambert, 2005).

Third, this research contributes evidence for the validity of a prior conceptualizations of general-level hedonic facets that have been largely ignored since (Friedlander, 1963; Weitzel et al., 1973). These general-level facets reflect commonly accepted notions of jobs. A job is work done to produce a product, service, or impact in a particular socio-institutional setting (Barley & Kunda, 2001; Budd, 2011); thus, core elements are: tasks, a set of social interactions, and an institutional or organizational setting. This conceptualization is inclusive of diverse work situations and workers. For example, the work relationships facet would be salient for a person working primarily with customers and not closely with a supervisor or co-workers, of which the latter facets are the only ones traditionally measured. This is important because if researchers continue to measure the same set of empirically derived facets, we will continue to find that only these facets are important, potentially causing misleading conclusions. For example, Cascio (2003) reports on a study by the National Research Council done in 1973 and repeated in 1996 asking respondents to rank the five JDI job facets in order of importance. Because rank orderings were similar, it was concluded that Americans sought the same characteristics in jobs...
over two decades. However, an alternative explanation is that each of these characteristics became less (or more) important over time but the rank ordering stayed the same. In addition, there could be facets of even higher importance to many workers had respondents had the opportunity to rank them, such as the eudaimonic facets in this research.

**Contributions to Research**

Judge et al. (2002) noted that job satisfaction research is declining, and Kinicki et al. (2002) noted that ad hoc scales are frequently used in research, which together suggest the possibility that existing conceptualizations of job satisfaction or their related measures, or both, are becoming less relevant to contemporary research questions. This situation has hampered theory development because ad hoc scales are difficult to meaningfully compare (Kinicki et al., 2002). It may be that a lack of ongoing theoretical development of our foundation of understanding for these facets is leading to a decline in their relevance to contemporary research questions. Others have pointed out that the ongoing development of constructs from a strong theoretical foundation is vital to our full understanding of what we are studying (e.g., Guion, 1992). The general-level hedonic and eudaimonic facets used in this research suggest one alternative derived from broad theory and research literatures.

Findings suggest that the conceptualization and measures of eudaimonic job satisfaction used here capture elements of job attitude differentiated from three of the most common job attitudes used in research: extant job satisfaction, work involvement, and organizational commitment. In addition, overall patterns of covariance between hedonic facets and hedonic global job satisfaction, and between eudaimonic facets and eudaimonic global job satisfactions, suggest that the facets are related but separable. Findings suggest that the facets of satisfaction with task and work relationships, as well as satisfaction with impact of the job on life contributed
most to explaining hedonic job satisfaction, with satisfaction with expression and development also approaching statistical significance. In contrast, satisfaction with task and role contributed most to eudaimonic global job satisfaction, with satisfaction with impact on family approaching significance.

There was a negative relationship for satisfaction with organization and eudaimonic job satisfaction. The reason for this unexpected finding may be that in very large organizations that have reputations as good places to work due to their resources and benefits, it may be more difficult to identify the impact of one’s job. However, I failed to measure the size of participants’ organizations. This would be an interesting avenue to explore in future research, further discussed below. There was also a negative relationship for satisfaction with impact on family and hedonic job satisfaction. This unexpected finding suggests some kind of tradeoff between doing a job that is best for one’s family and enjoying one’s job; given this, it is interesting to note that the coefficient for family impact in the final equation for eudaimonic global satisfaction is positive and approaching significance.

In this sample, relationships between eudaimonic job satisfaction and outcomes were stronger for the facet than the global conceptualization. For every outcome measured, facets explained more variance than global satisfactions. This may be due to facets being a more complete conceptualization of job satisfaction, as others have argued (e.g., Locke, 1976). That is, global measures may tend to reflect assessment of a narrower set of facets for various reasons. Lending support to this argument are findings that facet satisfaction can explain more variance in outcomes beyond that explained by global satisfactions (Ironson et al., 1998; Rothausen et al., 2009). However, an alternative explanation is that the global measure developed here is weak. This is also a good avenue for future research to explore, and is discussed extensively below.
Eudaimonic facet job satisfactions explained significant variance in all work, life, and work-life outcomes measured, and the profile of which facets were most related differed for each outcome. The direction of these effects suggests that facets of hedonic and eudaimonic job satisfaction may contribute independently to different outcomes with higher levels of satisfaction leading to the more desired levels of the outcomes. Thus, overall, having high hedonic and high eudaimonic facet satisfactions together likely contributes to higher levels of a broadly conceived set of important outcomes. The only finding of statistical significance opposite the direction expected was for the financial impact of the job for work-family conflict, where more satisfaction with financial impact related to greater conflict, which may be due to the time-based nature of conflict in the items for work-family conflict that I selected, if jobs with better financial impact require more time put in, for example. Although causation cannot be discerned from this study, other research on attitudes and behavioral outcomes suggests that foundational attitudes such as job satisfaction are more likely to cause motivation, effort, and performance than the reverse (Harter et al., 2002; Harrison et al., 2006; Riketta, 2008; Schleicher et al., 2011).

Practical implications

This conceptualization of job-related wellbeing is important to the practice of management and to societies. Needs of business organizations and workers suggest that a reexamination of job satisfaction is timely (e.g., Khurana, 2007; Picoult, 2010). Strategists argue that firms that regularly engage in exchanges with primary stakeholder groups—in this case employees—must take these stakeholders’ perspectives and perceptions into account when formulating strategies or else risk withdrawal of support, which in turn can weaken performance and threaten prospects of survival, competitiveness, and profitability (Bosse, Phillips, & Harrison, 2009; Walsh & Nord, 2005). Organizations that care about and understand their
primary stakeholders, including employees in the context of their lives, should arguably pay
attention to the primary desires, wants, expectations, and needs these stakeholders bring to bear
in their interaction with the organization, because it is important in itself and because
organizations that actively consider the purposes of jobs to their employees and managers may
be able to develop a competitive advantage relative to those that do not, in turn influencing
organizational health and performance (Harter et al., 2008; Bosse et al., 2009; Schneider et al.,
2003). Eudaimonic job satisfaction, when added to hedonic job satisfaction, provides a more
complete way to measure the impact of organizations and jobs on worker wellbeing, a topic that
is increasingly of interest world-wide (Oishi, 2012; Rothkopf, 2011).

A holistic conceptualization of job-related wellbeing is also important now in the face of
an ever increasing variety of workplace situations and diversity in workers, potentially making
narrower conceptualizations of job satisfaction and especially facets derived empirically in an
earlier era, less relevant. Changes to careers and psychological contracts may make sustainable
elements of fulfillment more important as well. Business organizations have been criticized for
promoting self-interest in framing incentives during recent decades (e.g., Khurana, 2007),
whereas focusing on jobs in the context of their purposes for individuals embedded in lives,
families, and communities could enable a more well-rounded and compassionate approach to
management (Budd, 2011; George, 2014).

At the societal level, there is increasing discussion of the need to focus on measures of
happiness, purpose, meaning, and wellbeing in balance with economic and financial measures
such as GDP, quarterly profits, and performance, the latter of which perhaps have been
overemphasized in the past at the expense of the former (e.g., Budd, 2011; Diener & Seligman,
2004; Oishi, 2012; Rothkopf, 2011). As a key part of most societies, business organizations
need sound and holistic conceptualizations and measures of job-related wellbeing in order to show how the jobs they provide contribute to hedonic and eudaimonic wellbeing. Public policy makers also need to understand how jobs contribute to society. In sum, for many people a majority of waking hours are spent in an employing organization, and therefore holistic job-related wellbeing in the employment setting is important to understand for those interested in optimal lives, healthy human functioning, and human performance.

**Limitations and Future Research**

The sample used in this research was young and highly educated. This provides a conservative test for the idea of the importance of eudaimonic job satisfaction, in that purpose may become more important as people move into middle age and older years and make sense of their lives (Kray, Hershfield, George, & Galinsky, 2013: 326), and in addition because work itself and organization affiliation may be more important to professional workers who are highly identified with their work, versus other types of workers for whom a job may be valued primarily as a secondary resource (Budd, 2011). Nonetheless, it is not yet know whether these findings will be replicated in other types of samples. In addition, this research is cross-sectional, and additional longitudinal studies would help solidify the directions causation.

As noted above, in this study the effects of eudaimonic job satisfaction were stronger for facet than the global conceptualizations. This may indicate weakness in the global measure. One reason for this may be some ambiguity in items (see Appendix A). For example, in future research it may prove to be clearer to respondents if items are more specific, for example rather than, “My job makes a contribution,” this item may be more clearly written as, “My job makes a contribution to my self, my family, others, or society,” and similarly with all items.
In addition to exploring item wording changes to eudaimonic global job satisfaction in order to strengthen its construct validity, it could be important to explore whether the level at which worthy purposes of the job are perceived matters. For example the item, “My job makes a contribution” could be split into levels such as “My job makes a contribution to bettering me,” “…to my family,” “…to others at work,” and “…to society.” Differences in these levels of contribution may be important to outcomes such as long-term motivation and retention.

Although eudaimonic facet job satisfaction showed strong construct validity and potential for helping us explain, understand, and predict outcomes, the facet set used is only one conceptualization of eudaimonic facet satisfactions, and there may be others. This conceptualization was derived from theories and research on the meaning and purposes of work and jobs. An alternative facet structure could be derived from Ryff’s model of general psychological wellbeing, wherein eudaimonic job satisfaction is comprised of the job’s contribution to self-acceptance, mastery, growth, positive relationships, self-determination, and having a purpose in life. Future research could compare these two facet sets to see which better relates to global satisfactions. Similarly, other researchers have used value sets to get at purposes of work (George & Jones, 1996; Nord et al., 1990), and the approach in this study could also be compared to that approach.

Finally, as this is the first study of which I am aware to test a conceptualization of eudaimonic job satisfaction, much more research is needed to determine whether findings can be replicated and whether the construct has practical significance for research and practice.

**Conclusion**

Fulfillment of the purposes for which a worker takes a job, does it well, or stays in it, is likely vital to that worker’s wellbeing, engagement, motivation toward that job. Currently, job
satisfaction is the most central job-related wellbeing construct used in research, where there are multiple calls for its further theoretical development. Despite the heavy use of job satisfaction, foundational research on it appears to be declining just when greater understanding is needed due to organizations and jobs in flux, interest in non-economic incentives and sustainable motivations, and societal interest in broadening outcome measures. Budd (2011) makes a compelling case that the twentieth-century emphasis on a limited number of conceptualizations of what work means, with emphasis on economic explanations versus psychological and social ones, has resulted in unnecessarily partial explanations of work-related phenomena in management and other research literatures. A more inclusive conceptualization of work, including the purposes of jobs to the individuals who perform them, will result in a more holistic consideration of jobs and work in these literatures.

In this article, I propose and develop one such conceptualization, eudaimonic job satisfaction, in global and facet forms. When added to hedonic job satisfaction, it may more holistically reflect of job-related wellbeing. This expansion is offered in the spirit of advancing our understanding of, and stimulating further research on, job satisfaction, which is so important to the health of individuals, their families, the organizations that employ them, and society as a whole. To more fully understand employment, jobs, work, and productivity, it is important to recognize that, like E.B. White, many workers want to both enjoy a job and have it matter for improving themselves and their lives, families, communities, and society.
References


TABLE 1

Summary of the Hedonic and Eudaimonic Satisfaction or Wellbeing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional labels from ancient philosophy</th>
<th>Hedonic wellbeing or Hedonia</th>
<th>Eudaimonic wellbeing or Eudaimonia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definition of being “well” as commonly used</td>
<td>In a desirable or pleasing manner</td>
<td>In a moral or proper manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition of “satisfaction” as commonly used</td>
<td>Gratification from a source of pleasure</td>
<td>Meaningfulness from a duty done well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>Enjoyment of experiences of situations and events</td>
<td>Fulfillment from met purposes of situation and events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constructs developed in psychology research</td>
<td>Subjective wellbeing</td>
<td>Psychological wellbeing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Also labeled</td>
<td>Happiness</td>
<td>Purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enjoyment</td>
<td>Contribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pleasure</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maturity of construct</td>
<td>Mature with established components</td>
<td>Emerging components and competing theories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Components of construct</td>
<td>Life satisfaction, positive affect, negative affect, and comprised of satisfaction with salient domains of life</td>
<td>Several models exist</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 2

Facets of Job Purposes across Literatures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element of Job Purpose Satisfaction</th>
<th>Selected Variations</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| Satisfaction that the job allows for **expression** of the self; allows the individual to express important elements of the self, especially in terms of core values and beliefs about work | Job as calling I was “meant to do,” fulfills my purpose  
Job expresses who I am, my identity  
Job fits my abilities / interests / personality / skills / values  
Job fits my spiritual, religious, or secular beliefs  
Job fits my life stage  
Job is part of my class identity  
Job facilitates upgrades to my knowledge and skills  
Job is part of a desired career over time  
Job coalesces to a meaningful trajectory over my life span  
Job fosters my ongoing relevance in the labor market  
Job keeps me interested and fulfilled over time  
What I make or do in the job is valuable to society  
Job allows me to do my duty, fulfills need to serve  
Job allows me to help others  
Job allows me to be part of a larger community  
Job makes me a useful, respectable part of society  
Job fill my time with usefulness / achievement  
Job allows me to make a contribution  
Job and organization are honorable in my community  
Job provides organizational or professional status  |
| Satisfaction that the job contributes to **development**; the ability to grow, change, learn, and expand skills, now and in the future | Job allows for subsistence; “working to live”  
Job allows for provision of necessities of life for myself and others important to me, such as family  
Financial success in this job signals approval and success  
Financial success in this job is a sign the value of my work  
Job allows for preferred standard of living  
Job facilitates financial thriving  |
| Satisfaction that the job facilitates procurement of physical needs and wants through **financial** rewards for self and family now and into the future (necessities of life, subsistence, desired life, comfort, status) | Job benefits significant others in my life  
Job allows for enough time with my family  
Job contributes to my family’s lifestyle and survival  
Job contributes positively to my relationships  
Job gives pride and status to my family  
Job allows me to care for dependents  |
| Satisfaction with how the job affords the **life** construction needed and wanted, including involvement in arenas such as: leisure, friendships, health, religion, citizenship, ethnicity | Job contributes positively to my overall life  
Job fits my life  
Job allows for involvement in: religion, education, community, citizenship, leisure, personal relationships, ethnic identity, and others important to me  
Job facilitates wellbeing at work and in life  |
TABLE 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

|                                      | Mean | S.D. | 1   | 2   | 3   | 4   | 5   | 6   | 7   | 8   | 9   |
|--------------------------------------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 1. Age                               | 32.14| 10.03|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 2. Sex                               | 52   | 57   | -03 |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 3. Ethnicity                         | 88   | 84   | 00  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 4. Education                         | 9.8  | 9.8  | -03 | -06 | -02 |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 5. Tenure in org.                    | 4.94 | 4.99 | 52  | -07 | 03  | -20 |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 6. Hedonic job satisfaction          | 5.12 | 1.25 | 15  | 05  | -06 | 05  | 00  |     |     |     |     |     |
| 7. Eudaimonic job satisfaction       | 5.28 | 1.25 | 15  | 05  | 04  | 15  | 00  | 66  |     |     |     |     |
| 8. MSQ                               | 5.33 | 5.12 | 07  | -04 | 00  | 00  | 00  | 81  | 61  |     |     |     |
| 9. Work involvement                  | 4.95 | 1.33 | 19  | 04  | 05  | 07  | 71  | 60  | 71  |     |     |     |
| 10. Org commitment                   | 5.82 | 1.06 | 17  | 02  | 04  | -02 | 09  | 64  | 57  | 68  | 67  |     |
| 11. Tasks                            | 5.27 | 1.22 | 18  | 08  | -04 | 01  | 07  | 82  | 60  | 85  | 69  | 67  |
| 12. Work relationships               | 5.69 | 1.02 | 06  | -04 | -01 | 00  | 58  | 40  | 64  | 47  | 50  |     |
| 13. Organization                     | 5.42 | 1.27 | 08  | -01 | -05 | -02 | 71  | 49  | 83  | 61  | 70  |     |
| 14. Expression                       | 5.33 | 1.23 | 22  | -04 | 03  | 04  | 75  | 63  | 81  | 72  | 61  |     |
| 15. Development                      | 5.29 | 1.35 | 08  | -04 | 02  | -01 | 75  | 53  | 81  | 61  | 54  |     |
| 16. Role                             | 5.49 | 1.17 | 14  | 06  | -02 | 10  | 01  | 72  | 76  | 79  | 68  | 64  |
| 17. Financial impact                 | 4.82 | 1.57 | 11  | 00  | -05 | 06  | 08  | 35  | 22  | 50  | 34  | 25  |
| 18. Family impact                    | 5.05 | 1.27 | 16  | 02  | -01 | -01 | 08  | 59  | 50  | 70  | 52  | 45  |
| 19. Life impact                      | 5.35 | 1.27 | 11  | 04  | -02 | 03  | 01  | 75  | 52  | 81  | 61  | 53  |
| 20. Engagement                       | 5.56 | 1.01 | 19  | 02  | 00  | 05  | 03  | 76  | 62  | 75  | 80  | 73  |
| 21. Inclusion                        | 5.19 | 1.21 | 05  | -04 | -04 | 00  | 75  | 56  | 84  | 74  | 69  |     |
| 22. Intention to quit                | 3.44 | 1.68 | -13 | -01 | 05  | -04 | -04 | -09 | -53 | -36 | -50 | -46 |
| 23. Work-family conflict             | 3.42 | 1.51 | 06  | 01  | 05  | 02  | 05  | -15 | -07 | -08 | 08  | -02 |
| 24. Life satisfaction                | 5.37 | 1.14 | 01  | 01  | -09 | 05  | 01  | 61  | 38  | 54  | 45  | 38  |

Notes: N=425; correlations above .12 are significant at p ≤ .01; correlations above .09 are significant at p < .05.
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Notes: N=425; correlations above .12 are significant at p ≤ .01; correlations above .09 are significant at p < .05.
TABLE 4

Hierarchical regression of Hedonic and Eudaimonic Global Job Satisfactions on Work, Life, and Work-Life Outcomes

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<th>Inclusion</th>
<th>Intention to Quit</th>
<th>WFC</th>
<th>Life Satisfaction</th>
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</table>

*Step 1 R²* | .04*** | .00 | .02* | .00 | .00 |

*Hedonic Job Satisfaction (HJSat)* | .62*** | .68*** | -.52*** | -.19** | .66*** |

*Step 2 Change in R²* | .55*** | .57*** | .27*** | .03*** | .38*** |

*Eudaimonic Job Satisfaction (EJSat)* | .20*** | .13** | -.02 | -.04 | -.05 |

*Step 3 Change in R²* | .02*** | .01** | .00 | .00 | .00 |

*Final equation F* | 164.89*** | 149.15*** | 43.17*** | 3.115* | 65.21*** |

*R²* | .61 | .59 | .29 | .03 | .38 |

*Adjusted R²* | .61 | .58 | .29 | .02 | .38 |

Notes:

* All attitude variables were standardized for regression analyses. N = 425; β s are for the final model; *** p < .001; ** p < .01; * p < .05.
### TABLE 5a

Hierarchical regression of Hedonic and Eudaimonic Facet Satisfactions on Global Satisfactions

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Notes:

- All attitude variables were standardized for regression analyses. $N = 425$; $\beta$ s are for the final model; $*** p < .001$; $** p < .01$; $* p < .05$; † $p < .10$. 
TABLE 6

Hierarchical regression of Hedonic and Eudaimonic Facet Satisfactions on Work, Life, and Work-Life Outcomes

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<th>Life Satisfaction</th>
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<td>.11***</td>
<td>.07***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final equation F</td>
<td>74.51***</td>
<td>98.11***</td>
<td>18.10***</td>
<td>5.46***</td>
<td>27.35***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.42</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adjusted R²</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:

a All attitude variables were standardized for regression analyses. N = 425; β s are for the final model; *** p < .001; ** p < .01; * p < .05; † p < .10.
FIGURE 1

Origins of Holistic Job-Related Wellbeing: Hedonic and Eudaimonic Facet Job Satisfaction

Basic facets of jobs in organizations

Facets of Job

Specific job

Objective and perceived fit

Job-related Wellbeing

Enjoyment of facets of the job (hedonic)

Fulfillment of job purposes (eudaimonic)

Basic human needs and desires from jobs

Needs of a specific self in a specific community and life situation

Facets of job purpose
APPENDIX

Global and Facet Hedonic and Eudaimonic Job Satisfaction Measures

These items were used to measure global and facet hedonic and eudaimonic job satisfactions in both samples, with two exceptions indicated below.

**Global Satisfactions**

Scale

Please indicate how you have felt over the last few months to a year about these aspects of your job.

1=strongly disagree  
2=disagree  
3=slightly disagree  
4=neither agree nor disagree  
5=slightly agree  
6=agree  
7=strongly agree

*Global Hedonic Job Satisfaction*

I am happy in my job  
I enjoy my job  
I experience enjoyment in my job  
My job is pleasant  
I am satisfied with my job overall*

*Global Eudaimonic Job Satisfaction*

My job makes an impact  
My job makes a difference  
My job makes a contribution  
My job helps others  
My job creates good*

*Item not used for the construct measure in sample 1.*
Facet Satisfactions

Scale

In my present job, over the last few months to a year, this is how I feel about _______.

1=extremely dissatisfied
2=dissatisfied
3=slightly dissatisfied
4=neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
5=slightly satisfied
6= satisfied
7=extremely satisfied

Hedonic Facet Satisfactions

Satisfaction with Tasks in the Job

The work tasks I do each day on my job
The activities I do daily on my job
The tasks I do regularly for my job

Satisfaction with Work Relationships in the Job

My relationships with people I work with regularly
My relationships with others in this work
The other people I encounter on this job regularly

Satisfaction with the Organization in which my Job Occurs

The overall organization I work for
The organization in which I work
My organization overall

Eudaimonic Facet Satisfactions

Satisfaction with Expression in the Job

The way my job allows me to express important aspects of who I am
How my job expresses who I am
The sense of integrity with core aspects of myself in doing my job

Satisfaction with Development in the Job

The way my job contributes to my development
How my job facilitates my continued learning and growth
The way I continue to grow and develop from doing my job

*Satisfaction with Role the Job Provides*

How my job gives me a role in a larger purpose  
My sense of pride in the product we produce or service we provide  
How what I do in the job has value to others/society

*Satisfaction with Financial Impact of the Job*

The way my job contributes to my overall financial condition  
The income my job provides for me and my loved ones  
How my job provides enough money for the life I want

*Satisfaction with Impact of the Job on Family as Defined*

The way my job impacts my family, as I define family  
The way my job impacts those people most important to me in life  
The benefits of my job to my family and others important to me

*Satisfaction with Impact of the Job on Whole Life*

How my job fits with a good overall life for me  
The good my job contributes to my life, all thing considered  
The way my job contributes to a good life for me