Material affluence, time affluence and well-being among managers in Egypt

Ronald J. Burke
Prof. Dr., York University

Ghada El-Kot
Arab Academy for Science and Technology and Maritime Transport

ISSN: 1303-2860, DOI: 10.4026/1303-2860.2009.0098.x
Dergide yayınlanan yazılardaki görüşler ve bu konudaki sorumluluk yazarlarına aittir.
Yayınlanan eserlerde yer alan tüm içerik kaynak gösterilmeden kullanılamaz.

All the opinions written in articles are under responsibilities of the authors. None of the contents published can’t be used without being cited.
Material affluence, time affluence and well-being among managers in Egypt*

Ronald J. Burke
Prof. Dr., York University

Ghada El-Kot
Arab Academy for Science and Technology and Maritime Transport

Abstract:
Purpose – Kasser and Sheldon (2009) reported that Time affluence (TA) may be a more important predictor of subjective well-being than Material Affluence (MA) in samples of US college students and working adults. This research replicated their work among managers and professionals working in a variety of organizations and industries in Egypt, a large Muslim country having Islamic values.

Design/methodology/approach - Data were collected from 242 respondents, 146 males and 96 females, using anonymously completed questionnaires, a 48% response rate. Measures included personal demographic and work situation characteristics, stable individual difference personality factors, job demands, work outcomes, after-work recovery experiences, and indicators of psychological well-being.

Findings - MA and TA were significantly correlated (r=.22, p<.001), and managers indicated higher levels of MA than TA. Managers working more hours per week, and managers earning higher incomes, reported less TA; work hours and income had no relationship with MA. Managers scoring higher on personality factors likely to be associated with greater work investment indicated lower levels of TA. Managers working in more intense jobs also indicated lower levels of TA. Managers indicating less TA reported higher levels of job stress; managers indicating higher levels of MA indicated more job stress and higher intentions to quit. Finally, managers indicating higher TA also reported less work-family conflict and fewer psychosomatic symptoms.

Research limitations/implications – Since data was collected at only one point in time questions of causality could not be addressed. Study highlights the need for more comparative and cross-cultural studies of human resource management.

Practical implications – Findings highlight the role of work hours and TA as factors in psychological well-being of Egyptian managers.

Originality/value – This is the first study of MA and TA in Egypt. The findings were consistent with previous results and extended our understanding of correlates of MA and TA.

Paper type – Research paper

Keywords: Material affluence, time affluence, managers in Egypt

* Preparation of this manuscript and conduct of the research was supported in part by the College of Management and Technology, Arab Academy for Science and Technology and Maritime Transport, and York University. We thank the organizations that cooperated and our respondents for their participation.
What does it mean to have a satisfying life? Many developed Western countries (e.g., the US, the UK) and some developing ones (e.g., Russia) have emphasized material affluence (MA) though a growing body of research findings have indicated that money does not “buy” happiness (see Burke, 2006, 2009). Kas-ser and Sheldon (2009) argue instead that time affluence (TA) is more likely to be related to happiness and subjective well-being. They reported results from four studies that supported their position.

In their first study involving a sample of 1078 adults conducted in the US, TA was significantly and positively correlated with both job and family satisfaction. Income however was also significantly and positively correlated with both satisfaction measures as well.

In their second study, again using a sample of US adults, both TA and MA had positive and significant correlations with measures of subjective well-being (SWB) while work hours and family income had non-significant but positive relationships with SWB. MA and TA were significantly correlated (r=-.24, p<.05). College students participated in their third study which indicated that TA was positively correlated with SWB while MA was not. Both mindfulness and the satisfaction of psychological needs partially mediated the TA-SWB relationship. Students reporting more TA indicated higher levels of SWB because they experienced more mindfulness and greater satisfaction of their psychological needs. In this study, MA and TA were positively correlated (r=.18, p<.06). One hundred and forty-five adults took part in their fourth study; MA and TA were positively and significantly correlated (r=.30, p<.05). They found that both MA and TA were significantly correlated with SWB; hours worked and income were also related to SWB. Again mindfulness and the satisfaction of psychological needs partially moderated the TA-SWB relationship.

Why should TA increase one’s satisfaction and well-being? If one has TA, they can also have time to engage in activities such as mindfulness that meet important psychological needs. Kasser and Brown (2003) found that work hours were negatively correlated with life satisfaction in a sample of US adults. In addition most workers, typically in developed countries, want to work fewer hours and have more free time (Hayden, 2003).

**Work Hours and their Effects**

It is likely that individuals working more hours have less TA. The last decade has seen increasing interest in work hours and their effects. There is some evidence that work hours increased during this time in particular occupations (e.g., managers and professionals) in some countries (e.g., US, UK) while work hours decreased among blue-collar workers (Golden, 2006). There is also some evidence that long work hours are associated with negative effects on SWB, family functioning, and workplace errors, accidents and injuries (Burke, 2006; Burke & Cooper, 2008; Dembe, Erickson, Delbos & Banks, 2005; Sparks, Cooper, Fried & Shirom, 1997; van der Hulst, 2003).

The effects of long work hours have not been consistent however. For example, Hewlett and Luce (2006) found an extremely high level of job satisfaction among two large samples of managers and professionals at high organizational levels working in “extreme jobs”, jobs in which they worked 60 or more hours per week. Some of these managers indicated a preference for working a few fewer hours per week in the future and some managers were concerned about the potential effects of these long work hours on their families and their health. Individuals in “extreme jobs” reported high levels of challenge, mean, and rewards, both psychological and financial, in explaining their high levels of satisfaction.

Using their concept of TA, Kasser and Sheldon (2009) address the issue of work hours in a different way emphasizing instead the time available to individuals when work hours are considered. How much time is left over to undertake other satisfying activities?

**Are MA and TA culture bound?**

An important questions is whether MA and TA operate in the same way in less developed
and less materialistic countries in which individuals may not work as many hours. Burke, Koyuncu, Fiksenbaum and Demirer (2009) attempted to replicate and extend the Kasser and Sheldon (2009) study of women and men working in the manufacturing sector in Turkey. This sample worked long hours and earned significantly less income than did the adults in the US sample. MA and TA were uncorrelated in this sample though positively and significantly correlated in the US samples. Income emerged as a significant predictor of MA but not TA. Hierarchical regression analyses, controlling for both personal demographics and work situation characteristics, showed that MA and TA were significant predictors of most work outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction, job stress) and indicators of psychological well-being (e.g., psychosomatic symptoms, life satisfaction) These findings partially replicated the Kasser and Sheldon US results and extend them to women and men working in a single occupation in a country having different cultural values. They concluded by suggesting that further research on MA and TA be carried out in still other countries having different values and levels of development than North America.

The present study examined MA and TA among a large sample of women and men holding managerial and professional jobs in various organizations and industries in Egypt. A summary of some important aspects of the Egyptian culture particularly as it relates to work and to family is now provided to place the study in a larger context.

**Egyptian cultural values**

There has been increasing research attention devoted to business in the Middle East over the past two decades. Egypt is similar to other Middle Eastern countries in some ways but different in others (Ali, 1999; 2005; Muna, 1980). Hofstede (1980) found that all Middle Eastern countries shared similar societal and cultural values. These countries indicated large power differences, scored high on uncertainty avoidance, scored low on individualism (or high on collectivism) and scored only slightly above average on masculinity. Egypt is a patriarchal society with boys more highly valued than girls (El-Ghannam, 2001, 2002), and strict gender roles with women responsible for home and family (Ali, 2005; Metcalfe, 2006; 2007, 2008; Mostafa, 2003). Hofstede concluded that the small number of women in the workforce generally and their absence at senior levels of management and in politics, reflected religious values (Islam) more than masculine values (see also El;-Saadewi, 2002; Sidani, 2005).

Work has traditionally been seen as a male activity associated with the provider and bread winner role. Women have been seen as responsible for home and family and not for work. Women represented only 23% of the total labor force in Egypt in 2001 (Ramzy, 2002). In addition, it has been difficult to undertake human resource management research in Egypt since many organizations are not interested in such research and many managers do not want their subordinates to participate in research that might be critical of their performance (Ali, 2005; Budhwar & Mellahi, 2007)

But Egypt is in transition; Researchers (El-Kot & Leat, 2008, Leat & El-Kot, 2007) have shown that human resource practices in Egypt tend to reflect a combination of those based on traditional cultural values and newer practices developed in the Western world. There are now an increasing number of women in the workforce (Al-Lamky, 2007; Jamali, Safieddine & Daouk, 2006). In addition, an increasing number of Egyptians are being educated with women’s numbers in university approaching those of men (Mostafa, 2003). Egypt is a patriarchal and traditional society (Ali, 2005; Metcalfe, 2007; Sharebi, 2002) and Egyptian organizations use human resource management practices that are patriarchal (Japer, 2001). Egypt places a high value on the family (Metcalfe, 2006). Egypt currently has a high unemployment rate. The Egyptian education system is weak and needs improving to prepare graduates for the reality of work in the 21st century. (Tyler & Holmes, 2008). Because of these factors Egypt has shown only slow economic development (Ali, 2005; Budhwar & Mellahi, 2007).

The Islamic work ethic (IWE) does place a high value on work and hard work (Ali & Al-
Owaihan (2008) report on the development of a measure of the Islamic Work Ethic (IWE) and its presence. The IWE views work as a virtue, necessary for one’s contribution to a full and balanced life. They identified four components in the IWE: effort, competition, transparency, and socially responsible conduct. Effort is held in high regard in the IWE. Ali (1988) reports data using his IWE scale from 150 Arab Muslim students studying in US universities, and from managers in Kuwait, the UAE and Arabia, showing very high endorsement for the IWE. But one must accept these findings with some caution since self-report scores on the IWE may not translate to working hard in one’s organization and the receipt of benefits from these work efforts. Yousef (2001a, 2001b), in two analyses of data collected in the United Arab Emirates, reported that scores on Ali’s IWE were positively correlated with measures of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and locus of control suggesting that the IWE functioned as expected as an indicator of work motivation.

This brief review of Egyptian cultural values suggests that both work and family are important life domains for working men and women, and being a developing country, both MA and TA are likely to be relevant and meaningful concepts. But the economic standard of living in Egypt is lower than that of citizens of the US. In addition, values in the Egyptian society are different from those in the US (Hofstede,1980), the family having a higher priority in Egypt, and a clearer division of roles and expectations about women at work in Egypt. Would TA emerge as a significant predictor of satisfaction and well-being in Egypt? Would MA play a more important role given the lower economic standard of living experienced by citizens in Egypt?

The present study

The following hypotheses were considered, based on the few published studies of MA and TA.

1. The measures of both MA and TA would be highly reliable and positively and significantly correlated.
2. Work hours would be positively related with MA and negatively related with TA.
3. Income would be positively related with both MA and TA.
4. Stable personality characteristics associated with higher levels of work investment would be positive related to MA and negatively related to TA.
5. Job demands would be negatively related to both TA and MA.
6. Both MA and TA would be positively related to work outcomes.
7. Both MA and TA would be positively related to indicators of psychological well-being.

Method

Procedure

Data were collected between October 2008 and January 2009 from service and manufacturing organizations in two Egyptian cities (Alexandria and Cairo). Members of the research team contacted about 50 organizations in these cities requesting their participation in the research. The 24 cooperating organizations then provided a list of managers and professionals to the researchers. Service organizations included telecommunications, banks, educational institutions, and a maritime service provider. Manufacturing organizations included pharmaceutical, petroleum companies, and production companies focusing upon production of milk, juice and food. Approximately 500 managers and professionals were contacted; of which 242 provided completed questionnaires, a 48% response rate. Questionnaires were completed anonymously in English. The respondents are best described as a large convenience sample of Egyptian managers and professionals in a variety of industries.

Respondents

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the sample. Over half were male (60%), almost all worked full-time (93%), over half were 30 years of age or younger (61%), most were single (62%), without children (64%), were university graduates (95%), worked 40 hours a week or less (42%), were in middle management (33%), supervised others (66%), earned over LE 25,000 a year of income (46%),
a had relatively short job and organizational tenures (over half having 2 years or less job tenure-60% and over one third having two years of less of organizational tenure -37%), and worked in organizations of varying sizes, the average being about 1000 employees. Respondents fell into several functions: IT and logistics, 16%; marketing and sales, 14%; finance, 13%; production, 11%; and customer service, 9%.

Measures

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>61.3</td>
<td>25 or less</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>35.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>35.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 or older</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work status</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full time</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>41.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part time</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 or older</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Length of marriage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1 or more years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1 or more years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paternal status</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Number of children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2 or more children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No children</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Income 1,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7 or more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6 or more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3 or more</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income ranked</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Income 1,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lower than 4.4k</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>3 or more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5k to 6.4k</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>2 or more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5k-8.4k</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.5k or more</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizational level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Supervisor status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-management</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior manager</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizational tenure</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Job tenure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-2 years</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>6 or more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5 years</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 or more</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizational size</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MA and TA

The measures of MA and TA developed by Kasser and Sheldon (2009) were used in this research to facilitate replication and extension. Managers rated each item on a five-point scale (1=Strongly disagree, 3=Neither agree nor disagree, 5=Strongly agree). MA contained 8 items (alpha=.82). An item was “I have been able to buy what I want.” TA also contained 8 items (alpha=.75). One item was “I have had enough time to do what I need to do.”

Personal Demographic and work Situation Characteristics

A number of personal demographics (e.g., age, gender, level of education, marital and parental status) and work situation characteristics (e.g., organizational level, job and organizational tenure) were measured by single items (see Table 1).

Stable Individual Difference Personality Characteristics

Three stable individual difference personality characteristics were included.

Need for Achievement (NAch) was measured by a five item scale (α=.62) developed by Steers and Braunstein (1976). One item was “I try very hard to improve on my past performance at work.”

Workaholic Behavior

Two workaholic behavior scales developed by Mudrack (2006) were included. One, Non-required work, had 4 items (α=.82). An item was “Thinking of ways to improve the quality of work provided to customers and/or co-workers.” The other, Control others, also had 4 items (α=.74). One item was “fixing problems created by other people”.

Job Demands

Two job demands were included. Work hours were assessed by a sin-
gle item. Respondents indicated the number of hours they worked in a typical week.

Work intensity was assessed by a 15 item scale (α = .74). Some items were taken from Hewlett and Luce (2006) while others were developed by the researchers. Items included: “an unpredictable flow of work”, “availability to clients 24/7”, and “a large scope of responsibility that amounts to more than one job”.

Work and Well-Being Outcomes

A wide range of outcome variables were included in this study covering both work and extra-work domains. These variables were consistent with those typically used in studies of work and well-being more generally (e.g., Barling, Kelloway & Frone, 2005; Schabracq, Winnubst & Cooper, 2003).

Work Outcomes

Four work outcomes were included.

Job satisfaction was measured by a seven item scale (α = .80) developed by Kofodimos (1993). An item was “I feel challenged by my work.”

Career satisfaction was assessed by a five item scale (α = .88) created by Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (1990). One item was “I feel satisfied with the progress I have made in my career to date.”

Job stress was measured by a nine item scale (α = .59) developed by Spence and Robbins (1992). One item was “Sometimes I feel like my work is going to overwhelm me.”

Intent to quit was measured by two items (α = .84) used previously by Burke (1991). One item was “Are you currently looking for a different job in a different organization? (Yes/no).

Psychological Well-Being

Four aspects of psychological well-being were considered.

Exhaustion was measured by a nine item scale (α = .74), part of the Maslach Burnout Inventory, developed by Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996). An item was “I feel emotionally drained from my work.”

Work-Family Conflict

Three aspects of work-family conflict were assessed using scales developed by Carlson, Kacmar and Williams (2000). These measured time-, strain-, and behavior-based work-family conflict, each having 3 items. The 9 items scale had a reliability of .83.

Psychosomatic symptoms was measured by a nineteen item scale (α = .85) developed by Quinn and Shepard (1974). Respondents indicated how frequently they had experienced each physical symptom (e.g., headaches, difficulty sleeping) in the past year.

Life satisfaction was assessed by a five item scale (α = .84) created by Diener, Emmons, Larsen and Griffin (1985). A sample item was “I am satisfied with my life.”

Results

Descriptive Statistics-MA and TA

These two scales were significantly and positively correlated (r=.22, p<.001). The mean values of MA and TA were 3.6 and 2.9, respectively indicating more MA than TA. MA and TA were correlated .01 (ns) in the Turkish study, and the mean values for MA and TA were 3.5 and 3.3, respectively). The Egyptian and Turkish samples indicated similar levels of MA but the Egyptian sample indicated less TA than did the Turkish sample. Kasser and Sheldon did not provide these data in their US studies. Women in the Egyptian study indicated similar levels of TA as did men (2.8 and 2.9, respectively) but women indicated higher levels of MA than did men (3.8 and 3.5, p<.05, respectively). But women and men in the Turkish study indicted similar levels of MA (3.5 and 3.3, respectively) and levels of TA (3.2 and 3.3, respectively).

Analysis Plan

Hierarchical regression analyses were first undertaken in which TA and MA were separately regressed on two blocks of predictor variables entered in a specified order. The first block of predictors were personal demographics (N=5) and included, age, gender, and level of education. The second block of predictors that were entered were work situation characteristics (N=4) and included organizational level, organizational size, and job tenure. When a block of predictors accounted for a significant
amount or increment in explained variance on a given criterion variable (p<.05) individual items or variables within such blocks having significant and independent relationships with a criterion variable were identified (p<.05). Then both MA and TA were separately regressed on three blocks of predictors in four different analyses; personal demographics and work situation characteristics serving as the first two blocks of predictors in all analyses, the third block of predictors being income, hours worked, stable personality characteristics (N=3) and job demands (N=2) in four different analyses. Finally, to determine the effects of MA and TA, work outcomes and indicators of psychological well-being were separately regressed on three blocks of predictors; same first two blocks as in all previous analyses, and MA and TA as the third block of predictors. These analyses controlled for the effects of both personal demographics and work situations on the various work outcomes and indicators of psychological well-being before considering the contribution of MA and TA.

Predictors of MA and TA

Table 2 shows the results of hierarchical regression analyses in which measures of MA and TA were regressed on the two blocks of predictors. Both blocks of predictors accounted for a significant amount or increment in explained variance on MA. Women, younger managers, managers that were married, and managers at higher organizational levels indicated higher levels of MA (B=.27, -.40, .28 and .38, respectively). One block of predictors, personal demographics, accounted for a significant amount of explained variance on TA. Married managers, managers with more education and younger managers indicated higher levels of TA (B=-.49, .18, and -.26, respectively).

Income, MA And TA

Table 3 presents the results of hierarchical regression analyses in which MA and TA were separately regressed on three blocks of predictors (personal demographics, work situation characteristics, income). Income accounted for significant increment in explained variance on TA but not on MA. Managers earning more income indicated less TA (B=-.21).

Work hours, MA and TA

Table 4 shows the results of hierarchical regression analyses in which MA and TA were separately regressed on three blocks of predictors (personal demographics, work situation characteristics, hours worked). Hours worked accounted for a significant increment in explained variance on TA but not on MA. Managers working more hours indicated less TA (B=-.18) When both income and hours worked were entered as the third block, they accounted for a significant increment in explained variance on TA but not on MA. Managers earning more income and managers working more hours indicated less TA (B=.21 and -.17, respectively).
Personality Characteristics, MA and TA

Table 5 shows the results of hierarchical regression analyses in which MA and TA were separately regressed on three blocks of predictors (personal demographics, work situation characteristics, three personality characteristics). Personality characteristic accounted for significant increments in explained variance on both MA and TA. Managers scoring higher on Control of others reported less MA (B=-.21); managers scoring higher on need for achievement, managers scoring higher on Control of others, and managers scoring higher on Non-required work, indicated less TA (Bs=-.24, -.21, and -.12, respectively).

Job Demands, MA and TA

Table 6 shows the results of hierarchical regression analyses in which MA and TA were separately regressed on three blocks of predictors (personal demographics, work situation characteristics, two job demands). Job demands accounted for a significant increment in explained variance on TA but not on MA. Managers perceiving greater work intensity indicated lower levels of TA (B=-.30).

MA, TA and Work Outcomes

Table 7 presents the results of hierarchical regression analyses in which four work outcomes were separately regressed on three blocks of predictors (personal demographics, work situation characteristics, two measures of affluence). Affluence accounted for a significant increment in explained variance on two of the four work outcomes: job stress and intent to quit. Managers scoring lower on TA and managers scoring higher on MA reported higher levels of job stress (Bs=.19 and -.25, respectively). In addition managers scoring higher on MA indicated greater intentions of quitting (B=22).
Material affluence, time affluence and psychological well-being among managers in Egypt

Table 7
Material Affluence, Time Affluence and Work Outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Outcomes</th>
<th>MA (29)</th>
<th>TA (19)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>R²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal demographics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education level</td>
<td>(31)</td>
<td>(26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work situation characterist.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization size (35)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job tenure (29)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational level (39)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affluence</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life stress</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal demographics</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work situation characterist.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization size (35)</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job tenure (29)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affluence</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MA, TA and Psychological Well-Being

Table 8 shows the results of hierarchical regression analyses in which four indicators of psychological well-being were separately regressed on the same three blocks of predictors. Affluence accounted for a significant increment in explained variance on three of them (work-family conflict, psychosomatic symptoms, life satisfaction). Managers scoring higher on TA indicated less work-family conflict and fewer psychosomatic symptoms (B=-.56 and -.29, respectively).

Discussion

Our results provided only partial support for the hypotheses that guided the research. Measures of MA and TA were highly reliable and positively and moderately correlated. In addition, work hours, job demands, and personality characteristics associated with greater work investments were found to negative relationships with TA (see Tables 3, 4 and 5). and levels of TA were associated with some of the psychological well-being indicators (see Table 7) Our hypotheses regarding the correlates of MA received less support however. It is not clear whether this reflects the Egyptian culture, characteristics of our managerial sample, or the measure of income that we used. Unfortunately we did not provide enough categories at the top end of the income scale so several managers were clustered at the highest income level that was provided.

The results partially replicated US and Turkish findings however. TA as suggested by Kasser and Sheldon (2009) emerged as a significant predictor of psychological well-being. Although Kasser and Sheldon did not include work outcomes in their studies, we expected that MA would be predictive of these as well as potentially predictive of psychological health, extending the Kasser and Sheldon work to another domain. There was limited support for these hypothesized relationships.
Although MA and TA have received very little research attention to date, this work suggests that both are promising leads to understanding individual satisfaction and health in the workplace. In addition, as reflects in this study and our previous research in Turkey (Burke, Koyuncu, Fiksenbaum & Demirer, 2009), we endorse Kassser and Sheldon's call for more cross-cultural research using these concepts.

**Limitations of the research**

This research, like most others, has some limitations. First, all data were collected using self-report questionnaires raising the small possibility of responses being affected by use of a common method. Second, the data were collected at one point in time making it difficult to establish causal relationships. Third, a few of the measures had levels of internal consistency reliability below the generally accepted level of .70. Fourth, although the sample was relatively large, it was not likely a representative sample of Egyptian managers and professionals in the manufacturing sector. Fifth, the sample was relatively young, single and without children; it is not clear the extent to which these results would generalize to an older sample having both children and longer work and organizational tenure. Sixth, the extent to which these findings would generalize to respondents working in other industrial sectors or respondents in other countries is yet to be determined.

**Future research directions**

Research on MA and TA is just beginning (Kasser & Sheldon, 2009; Burke Koyuncu, Fiksenbaum & Demirer, 2009), though it builds on earlier studies of the role of both money and time on satisfaction and subjective well-being. As a consequence, future research is wide open. We agree with Kasser and Sheldon that it is important to conduct studies of MA and TA in various countries and cultures and the present study moves us in that direction. We also believe that an emphasis on gender differences would add to our understanding of MA and TA. Finally, the inclusion of positive concepts such as optimism, resilience, and joy to supplement the emphasis on negative concepts such as exhaustion and psychosomatic symptoms would add balance to the research findings (Cameron, Dutton & Quinn, 2003).

**References**


