A new look at employee happiness: How employees' perceptions of a job as offering experiences versus objects to customers influence job-related happiness

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Abstract

People gain more happiness from purchasing experiences than material objects. We examine whether this intriguing psychological effect also occurs for the employees who *provide* those experiential and material goods to customers. Evidence from a field survey of employees across multiple jobs and industries (Study 1) and three experiments (Studies 2-4) indicates that people who perceive their jobs as primarily providing experiences (vs. material objects) gain more happiness from those jobs. Furthermore, we hypothesize and find support for a two-step sequential mediation explaining this effect. Experiential (vs. material) jobs are associated with greater employee involvement of the self with the goods they provide to customers and employee perceived positive impact on customers (step 1 mediators), each of which increases job meaningfulness (step 2 mediator), leading to greater job-related happiness. Additionally, as a moderator, we find that when the good turns out negatively for customers, employee involvement of the self with the good and job meaningfulness sequentially mediate the effect, but employee perceived positive impact on customers and job meaningfulness do not. These findings extend the experience versus object superiority effect from the customer-side to the employee-side of the interaction, contributing to the job design, job meaningfulness, and employee affect literatures. Theoretical and managerial implications are discussed.

Keywords: experiential job; material job; job meaningfulness; affect; job-characteristics

A robust finding in psychology and consumer behavior research is that people gain more happiness from experiences than from material objects; that is, experiential goods lead to greater consumer happiness than do material goods (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003; see Gilovich & Gallo [2020] for a review). What has not yet been examined, however, is whether this experiential superiority effect extends beyond the customers *acquiring* the goods to the people actually *providing* those goods—the employees. Based on organizational behavior, psychology, and consumer behavior literatures, we propose that employees who perceive their jobs as primarily providing experiential rather than material goods to customers derive greater happiness from those jobs.

In understanding whether the experiential versus material distinction is a reliable predictor of job-related happiness, it is important to elucidate conceptually the exact nature of this distinction. To do so, we first turn to the original conceptualization of experiential versus material goods within the consumer behavior literature. There was an initial conceptual challenge in this research in how to determine a criterion for distinguishing between experiential and material goods. This challenge arose from the fact that, while some goods clearly fall closer to the experiential-end (e.g., a museum visit) and others to the material-end (e.g., a lamp) of the experiential-material continuum, many fall somewhere in between. In addressing this, research in consumer behavior has relied on the focal individual's—i.e., the customer's—*intention* behind the purchase; such that experiential goods are defined as those that customers purchase with the primary intention of living through an event or a series of events (a purchase "to do"), and material goods are those that they purchase with the primary intention of gaining ownership and possession, typically over a tangible item (a purchase "to have"; Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003). That is, a key premise of this distinction is that consumers' perceptions of a good are inherently subjective (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003), and this subjectivity, used widely in the consumer behavior literature, has been the crux of the experiential versus material distinction (e.g., Bastos, 2019ab, 2020ab; Bastos & Brucks, 2017; Caprariello & Reis, 2013; Carter &

Gilovich, 2010, 2012; Chan & Mogilner, 2017; Chaplin, Lowrey, Ruvio, Shrum, & Vohs, 2020; Howell & Hill, 2009; Kumar & Gilovich, 2015; Kumar, Killingsworth, & Gilovich, 2014; Nicolao, Irwin, & Goodman, 2009; Rosenzweig & Gilovich, 2012; Tully & Sharma, 2018; Van Boven, Campbell, & Gilovich, 2010; Walker, Kumar, & Gilovich, 2016). Using a similar approach, we base our definitions of experiential and material jobs on the focal individual's—i.e., the employee's—subjective *perception* of the goods they are providing to customers. Specifically, we define *experiential jobs* as those that employees perceive as primarily enabling customers to have an event or a series of events that they live through, and *material jobs* as those that employees perceive as primarily enabling customers to gain ownership of goods that they can possess. In the present research, we use "goods" as a general term encompassing both experiences (as in 'experiential goods') and material objects (as in 'material goods') that employees can offer to customers.

As with consumers, we expect that employees will naturally perceive certain goods, and therefore certain jobs, as more experiential or material. However, because perceptions are malleable (Petrocelli, Martin, & Li, 2010), including those associated with one's job (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), it should be similarly possible to influence employees to mentally frame the same job as being either experiential or material. We examine both cases to test whether employees' views of their jobs as experiential versus material influence job-related happiness. We do so through examining employees' naturally occurring perceptions of their jobs as experiential versus material, as well as situations in which, following an experimental intervention, people think of the exact same job (e.g., a sales job) as one providing either experiences or material objects to customers.

Further, to explain how experiential versus material job type influences job-related happiness, we draw on research from job design (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1976), work meaningfulness (e.g., Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), and the consumer side of this phenomenon (e.g., Carter & Gilovich, 2012) to hypothesize and test a two-step sequential model centered on the

meaningfulness of providing experiences versus objects. Specifically, based on the self and other approach to meaningfulness, which holds that meaningfulness can be internally activated as well as arise from ones' relationship with others (Baumeister, Vohs, Aaker, & Garbinsky, 2013; Kahn, 1990; Wellman & Spreitzer, 2011), we hypothesize that, compared to material jobs, experiential jobs will more strongly engender both a self- and an other-related precursor of meaningfulness at work: employees' involvement of the self with the good they provide (self activated meaningfulness) and employees' perceived positive impact on customers (meaningfulness arising from one's relationship to others). Further, we hypothesize that this greater meaningfulness will lead to greater job-related happiness. Last, given that negative outcome valence (whether the experience or object turns out negatively for the customer) has been found to moderate the happiness superiority of experiences (vs. objects) for consumers (Nicolao et al., 2009), we explore whether this moderating effect also manifests for employees (see Figure 1).

Insert Figure 1 about Here

This new way of thinking about how employees perceive their jobs—as offering experiences versus material objects—contributes to the literatures on job design and employee affect. Further, adding to the job meaningfulness literature, we identify two precursors of job meaningfulness, and offer support for the relationship between the meaningfulness of providing experiences versus objects at work and job-related happiness. Additionally, our results indicate that people can change their job-related happiness depending on how they are encouraged to mentally frame their jobs, which has useful managerial implications.

A Conceptual Model of the Effect of Experiential versus Material Job Type on Job-Related Happiness

The Importance of Employee Involvement of the Self with the Good and Employee Perceived Positive Impact on Others for Job Meaningfulness

We hypothesize that employees who perceive their jobs as primarily involved with providing experiential versus material goods will find these jobs more meaningful, with meaningfulness defined as the amount of significance and importance employees ascribe to their jobs as a whole (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003; Wrzesniewski, Dutton, & Debebe, 2003). Taking the approach that meaningfulness can vary across different facets of the job (Jiang & Wrzesniewski, 2018), we focus on the specific facet of interest: the employees' perceived meaningfulness of providing experiences versus material objects in their jobs, which we also refer to as *job meaningfulness* for semantic ease.

We focus on meaningfulness because it has been theoretically posited, and empirically found, to be the most encompassing psychological state mediator in Hackman and Oldham's (1976) original job design model when explaining the effect of job characteristics on various outcomes (Johns et al., 1992).[1] Indeed, the relative importance of meaningfulness as a process mechanism between job characteristics and a variety of attitudinal and behavioral outcomes was additionally confirmed in a direct test via meta-analysis (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007).

According to both psychological and organizational behavior theory, something is meaningful to the extent that it resonates with the self internally and influences one's perceived relations with others (e.g., Baumeister et al., 2013; Kahn, 1990; Rosso, Dekas, & Wezesniewski, 2010; Wellman & Spreitzer, 2011). These two elements—the self and others as sources of meaning—guided our theorizing about the two predicted drivers of job meaningfulness. While meaning from the self and others can come from many different sources at work, we chose the following two constructs to represent these aspects: employee involvement of the self with the good (a self-oriented driver) and their perceived positive impact on customers (an other-oriented driver). We chose to examine employee involvement of the self with the good as our self-oriented driver as

[1] Including compared to the other two posited mediators of experienced responsibility and knowledge of results (Johns et al., 1992).

it mirrors one of the most powerful explanatory variables for the experience advantage effect in the consumer behavior literature (consumer overlap of the self with the good; Carter & Gilovich, 2012), and has a strong similarity to the concepts of employee identification and engagement (Rothbard, 2001).

While the concept of an 'other oriented driver' has not been applied to the consumer domain, it is very central to meaning within the work domain (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006; Pratt & Ashforth, 2003; see Rosso et al. [2010] for a review). To represent this construct, we chose a well-established area within the job design literature—that associated with the degree to which one's job has a perceived positive impact on others. A robust body of work indicates that this relational, other-oriented approach to job design leads employees to have greater motivation and meaningfulness in their work (Grant, 2007, 2008). Next, we discuss each of these constructs and their relationships to experiential versus material job types and work meaningfulness.

Employee involvement of the self with the good—A self-oriented factor. The self has been described as each person's most central, cherished, and influential entity (Belk, 1988; Rosso et al., 2010) and a determinant of experienced meaningfulness (Ryff & Singer, 2008). Employees are more likely to experience meaningfulness when there is a match between who they are and what they do (Kahn, 1990; Pratt, Rock, & Kaufmann, 2001; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001); that is, when they achieve "work–identity integrity" (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003, p. 316). This is consistent with the long-standing idea that personal identification and involvement with one's job and the goods one produces are essential for employees to experience meaningfulness at work—e.g., Marx's (1844) worker alienation—, an idea echoed in the work-identity literature (Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2009).

Previous work on employee identity suggests that people often integrate their professional occupation into their identity to construct their sense of self (Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2006; Pratt, Rock, & Kaufmann, 2006). However, jobs vary in how well they serve self-defining purposes,

and some elements of the job are particularly important in determining how suitable the job is for self-definition (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). We argue that the type of good that the employees perceive themselves to be providing is one such determinant, such that employees who provide experiences (vs. material objects) perceive those goods as more strongly related to their sense of self—that is, employees experience greater personal involvement with experiential than material goods.

Drawing on past research, we define involvement of the self with the good as the employee's perceived personal relevance of that good (Rothschild, 1984; Zaichkowsky, 1985). Previous research holds that goods become personally relevant and elicit an employee's involvement when they are aligned with that individual's sense of self (Kapferer & Laurent, 1993; Mittal & Lee, 1989). These goods come to constitute part of the employee's ego structure; that is, they represent who the employee is as a person (Kapferer & Laurent, 1993; Mittal & Lee, 1989; Zaichkowsky, 1985).

There are several reasons why employees who provide experiences versus material objects would perceive those goods as more personally relevant and related to their sense of self. First, people normally feel involved with the things they have created (Atakan, Bagozzi, & Yoon, 2014; Schmidt, Sääksjärvi, & de Hooge, 2015; Shamir, 1991), and the greater a person's participation in the creation of something, the more she will see that creation as representing the self—to the point that it may be perceived as an extension of the self (Belk, 1988; Levy, 1959). Following this rationale, employees who participate in more steps associated with producing and delivering a good should perceive a stronger connection between the self and that good. Experiences are frequently produced and delivered at the moment of consumption—they are a "form of 'just-in-time' production" (Edvardsson, Johnson, Gustafsson, & Strandvik, 2000, p. 920); and employees providing experiences often partake in multiple steps of the creation and delivery of the experiences they provide to customers (Arnould & Price, 1993). In fact, employees frequently participate in the enactment of the experience from beginning to end—as in a theater performance or a spa

massage—making them an integral part of the experience itself. This immersion is likely to engender a sense of self-good identification. By contrast, material objects often result from a system of mass-production (Johnson & Nilsson, 2000), which precedes and unfolds far from the consumption context. In this system, employees involved with material goods tend to participate in only one or a few specific steps of the object's creation or delivery (e.g., its design, manufacturing, packaging, transportation, or warehousing; Marx and Engels, 2009; Rosso et al., 2010). Therefore, by partaking more extensively in the production and delivery of the good, employees providing experiential (vs. material) goods may come to associate themselves more strongly with those goods—they experience greater involvement of the self with the goods.

Interestingly, this rationale also applies to employees who hold the same job and provide the same good (e.g., salespeople selling BBQ grills), but who vary in their perceptions of that good—as an experience versus an object. Specifically, an employee who thinks of the grill in experiential terms has considerable room to make suggestions about and shape the way customers use that good. As such, the employee is likely to feel that she is contributing to the creation of the customer's experience. In contrast, an employee who tends to focus on the material aspects of the grill has less room to shape its physical properties, leading to a weaker feeling of participation in its creation.

Also, research in "job crafting" suggests that employees often exercise personal agency and try to modify aspects of their jobs to fit their personal goals, skills, and values, so that the job aligns better with their sense of self (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010). Doing this can help them achieve a sense of work-identity integrity (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). In the context of this investigation, employees involved with experiential goods will likely have more opportunities to be modifying agents because experiences are more abstract (Van Boven, 2005) and their production and delivery tend to be more flexible than those of objects, whose production and delivery often follow strict standardization procedures (Nilsson, Johnson, & Gustafsson, 2001).

In addition, this greater opportunity to identify the self with experiential goods is supported by self-presentation research, which holds that people strive to portray themselves in a positive light (Goffman, 1974). In pursuit of this goal, people associate themselves with dimensions that they and others regard favorably (Angelis, Bonezzi, Peluso, Rucker, & Costabile, 2012). Based on the notion that "the intangible, subjective nature of experiences makes it easier [for an employee] to find positive dimensions" (Carter & Gilovich, 2012, p. 1306), employees who perceive themselves as offering experiences will have at their disposal a larger pool of positive dimensions from which to draw. Therefore, from a self-presentation perspective, employees providing experiences versus objects may have more flexibility and be in a better position to identify dimensions of the good with which they feel comfortable and inclined to associate their sense of self. Together, these findings support the prediction that employees providing experiences will experience greater involvement of the self with the good than will employees providing objects.

Perceived positive impact on others—An other-oriented factor. People also find meaningfulness in connecting to something larger than themselves—something that makes them feel that they matter (Baumeister et al., 2013; Van Tongeren & Green, 2010). One way to experience this self-transcendence is to make a difference in the world, including contributing to the welfare of others (Wong, 1998). Work is a sphere of life where people can have a positive impact on others, and doing so has been found to imbue one's job with meaningfulness (Grant, 2007; Grant et al., 2007). Specifically, employees who use their full potential purposefully (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Keyes & Annas, 2009) and do so in accordance with valued principles set by society, such as benefiting others (Klein, 2017; Weick, 1995), are likely to experience their jobs as meaningful (Rosso et al., 2010).

Thus, we predict that employees' focus on others, and more specifically, their perceptions of positively impacting customers, will increase the meaningfulness they attribute to their jobs. There are several reasons why employees who perceive their jobs as providing experiences versus objects

are likely to see themselves as having a greater impact on customers. First, because employees are, themselves, consumers of experiences and objects, they can use their own past consumption to evaluate the impact of the two types of goods (Hoch & Deighton, 1989). Experiences (vs. objects) have been shown to, for example, engender more post-consumption conversations (Bastos & Brucks, 2017; Kumar & Gilovich, 2015), elicit fewer invidious comparisons (Carter & Gilovich, 2010), and generate greater (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003) and longer-lasting happiness (Nicolao et al., 2009). Employees will likely have experienced these differences through their own experiences as consumers and come to learn that, when things turn out well, experiential goods provide greater benefits to people than do material goods, which should lead them to perceive that they have a greater positive impact on customers.

Also, because experiences are often produced at the moment of consumption through an interplay between the employee and the customer (Arnould & Price, 1993), experiential employees may be in a better position to observe, first-hand, the benefits that the customer obtains (vicarious social learning; Bandura, 1969). In addition, by being present more often, employees providing experiential (vs. material) goods can more easily obtain verbal feedback from customers via conversations (Solomon, Surprenant, Czepiel, & Gutman, 1985).

Together, these circumstances are especially conducive to experiential (vs. material) employees developing favorable beliefs and lay theories about the happiness customers derive from the goods that they provide. This is important because lay theories are known to serve as a lens through which individuals make sense of events and interpret themselves and others (Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995) and to exert a powerful influence on how people interpret the consequences of their own behavior (Zedelius & Schooler, 2017). In possession of such beliefs about the superior ability of experiential goods to advance consumer happiness, employees providing experiences versus objects are likely to perceive themselves as having a more positive impact on customers.

In sum, based on two key elements of meaningfulness—the self and others—we predict that employees who see their jobs as primarily providing customers with experiences (vs. material objects) will experience greater involvement of the self with the good and perceive themselves as having a greater impact on others, each of which will lead to greater job meaningfulness.

Job Meaningfulness and Job-Related Happiness

The last link in our model posits that job meaningfulness will have a positive influence on the happiness employees derive from their jobs. Researchers have suggested several ways that job meaningfulness increases employee happiness. Employees in jobs they perceive as meaningful are likely to find the time and effort they put into work as worthwhile (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Expending effort on something that is worthwhile creates coherence between one's perception of what is important in life and one's work activities—creating self-concordance (Sheldon & Elliott, 1999) and leading to harmonious and positive psychological states (Sheldon & Kasser, 1995). In addition, meaningful work gives employees a sense of purpose (Ryan & Deci, 2001)—a feeling of directedness, intentionality, and agency (Ryff, 1989)—another predictor of happiness (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). Together, these findings support the proposition that more meaningful work will enable employees to gain greater happiness from their jobs.

Based on this theorizing, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1: Employees perceiving themselves as providing customers with experiences, rather than material objects, will experience greater job-related happiness.

Hypothesis 2: The effect of experiential versus material job type on job-related happiness will be mediated by a two-step sequential process: greater involvement of the self with the good and perceived positive impact on others (step 1 mediators), each of which will lead to greater job meaningfulness (step 2 mediator).

Another consideration is the inclusion of a qualifier that research in the consumer behavior domain has found to be relevant and that could moderate relations in our model: outcome valence of the goods for the consumer. This is, when goods turn out negatively, the experience superiority effect is nullified, such that experiences and objects lead to equivalent levels of consumer happiness (and experiences sometimes lead to even less happiness; Nicolao et al., 2009). We examine this phenomenon within the employee job context as well. Three possibilities exist: A negative customer outcome will eliminate both sequential pathways—via involvement of the self with the good → job meaningfulness, and perceived positive impact on others → job meaningfulness and therefore neutralize the experience superiority effect on job-related happiness. A second possibility is that a negative customer outcome will eliminate one, but not both, of these pathways. In this case, the experience superiority effect would still manifest through the remaining pathway. A final possibility is that a negative customer outcome will exert no qualifying effect and all relationships would manifest for negative goods. We make no explicit hypothesis, and conduct an exploratory empirical analysis of these possibilities.

Summary and Overview of Studies

We test our model across four studies. In Study 1, we examine whether the hypothesized relationships occur among employees in a wide variety of jobs and industries. In Study 2, we again examine actual employees, this time focusing on a single job position—sales jobs. We investigate whether the employees' perceptions of their jobs as offering experiential (vs. material) goods can be changed with a planned mental framing intervention, and whether this change generates the same results observed in Study 1. Next, in Study 3, we engage participants in a staged interaction with a customer, during which they actually enact sales behaviors with regard to a specific good (a 3D TV), which they are encouraged to mentally frame as an experience or an object. Finally, in Study 4, we examine goods that turn out negatively for customers to test negative outcome valence as a potential

moderator. Across these studies, we also examine potential alternative mediators (e.g., social characteristics, autonomy) and control for various relevant factors (e.g., salary level, job-prestige—please see the General Discussion for a brief explanation of these results and Web Appendix E for the full reporting). In sum, we employ various sample populations, kinds of goods, and empirical methods to test our model and rule out alternative explanations.

Study 1—Field Survey with Employees across Jobs and Industries

In this study, we first examine whether employees across myriad jobs and industries[2] are able to classify their jobs along the experiential-material dimension. Then we test whether, as hypothesized, the experiential versus material job type distinction is associated with job-related happiness (Hypothesis 1), and whether the predicted two-step mechanism explains this effect (Hypothesis 2). Thus, we combine a broad-sampling approach (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003) with a non-manipulated, self-classification design (Nicolao et al., 2009) to gather initial evidence of whether the predicted effects occur in a naturalistic work setting. We used Van Boven and Gilovich's (2003) original measure of consumer happiness, modified to be asked from the employee's perspective, as the basis for creating our measure of job-related happiness to be able to examine our model in light of what is already known in the research domain of experiential versus material goods.

Procedures

A set of 208 employed participants from the United States and Canada were recruited via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk; 58% females, M_{age} = 35.01, SD = 11.58) to complete the study for financial compensation. To get participants in the mindset of their jobs, we instructed them to write down the name of their company, what it provided to customers, and their current job

[2] A trained coder classified the jobs into one of the 11 industry categories outlined by the SIC (Standard Industrial Classification: http://siccode.com/en/siccode/list/directory). Ten of the eleven industry categories were represented in our dataset. While it is not an aim of the present investigation to objectively categorize jobs as experiential versus material, it is of interest to observe the general perceptual consensus across these different types of industries. Please see Web Appendix G for a table indicating participants' subjective classifications of each job and industry along the experiential-material dimension.

position. We also asked them to think about and describe what their work was like[3] (see Web Appendix A for the complete study text and list of items forming the scales below).

Next, they completed measures of job-related happiness and experiential versus material job type. These measures appeared in random order to control for order effects.[4] To assess job-related happiness, we employed an extended three-item version of Van Boven and Gilovich's (2003) original two-item measure of consumer happiness, modified to fit the work context (e.g., "When you think about this job, how happy does it make you?"; 1 = *Not at All*, 7 = *Very Much*; $\alpha = .88$).

To assess participants' perceptions of their jobs as experiential versus material, we created a five-item measure based on Van Boven and Gilovich's (2003) original definition of experiential and material goods: "My job is primarily involved with offering people…" "1. …an experience"; "2. …an intangible event or a series of events that the person lives through"; "3. …a material object" (reversed coded); "4. …a tangible object that the person can keep in their possession" (reversed coded; 1 = *Strongly Disagree*, 7 = *Strongly Agree*); and "5. In my view, my current job is best described as a:" (1 = *Totally Object-Job*, 7 = *Totally Experience-Job*; $\alpha = .88$). Because employees' perceptions of their jobs can vary along the experiential versus material dimension, we measured job type as a continuous variable and used it as such in our analyses.

To assess the predicted mediators, we adapted the following three scales to be based specifically on the work done by employees in offering either experiences or objects: (1) Zaichkowsky's (1985) eight-item measure of employee involvement of the self with the good (e.g., "The experiences/objects I sell are: 1 = *Unimportant to me*, 7 = *Important to me*"; $\alpha = .97$); (2) combining items from Grant (2008) and Grant and Campbell (2007), we created a six-item measure

[3] There was no significant relationship between participants' perceptions of their jobs as experiential versus material and the number of words they used to describe those jobs; $p > .6$.

[4] Order did not significantly influence the relationship between job type and job-related happiness ($p_{interaction} > .6$), suggesting that the results are independent of the sequence in which participants answered the measures.

of perceived positive impact on others (e.g., "I feel that my work selling experiences/objects makes a positive difference in other people's lives"; $\alpha = .91$); and (3) Spreitzer's (1995) three-item measure of job meaningfulness in offering experiences versus objects (e.g., "My job activities involved in providing experiences/objects are personally meaningful to me"; $\alpha = .93$). Participants answered the latter two measures using 7-point Likert scales (1 = *Strongly Disagree*, 7 = *Strongly Agree*).[5]

Given the novelty of our job type distinction, it was important to examine whether participants perceived it as a relevant and appropriate way to classify their jobs. We assessed their perception of the appropriateness of the experiential (vs. material) dimension with a two-item measure ("I think that categorization is applicable for my job"; "The 'Object-Experience' continuum is a useful way to categorize my job"; 1 = *Strongly Disagree*, 7 = *Strongly Agree*; $r = .81$, $p < .001$).

Results

We first examined the factor structure of our experiential versus material job type measure. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of the five items forming the job type measure extracted one relevant factor (Eigenvalue > 1; all loadings > .77) that accounted for 68.83% of the variance. In light of this result and the instrument's high internal consistency ($\alpha = .88$), we combined the five items to form an overall measure of experiential versus material job type. Because we reverse coded the two items measuring the material dimension of the job (items 3 and 4), in our analyses, higher values on the job type measure are associated with participants' perceptions that the job is primarily involved with providing customers with experiences rather than material objects.

[5] As a robustness check, the study assessed and tested for three additional job design variables that could complement, or replace, our theorized mediators of involvement of the self with the good and perceived impact in explaining the effect on job meaningfulness and job-related happiness: social characteristics, creativity, and autonomy. This analysis showed that, when the mediation analysis included our two hypothesized pathways plus these three potential alternative mediators, the results replicated the ones we present below, indicating that only the pathways via involvement of the self with the good and perceived positive impact on others transmitted the effect. Please see Web Appendix E for the rationale behind the selection of these three potential alternative mediators and for the complete reporting of the results. These potential alternative mediators were also examined and ruled out in the Replication Study 1, reported in Web Appendix H. In addition, the present Study 1 controlled for two factors that could potentially influence the results: salary and level of prestige associated with the job. Neither factor influenced the results (please see Web Appendix E).

Next, we examined whether participants considered the experiential versus material job type distinction appropriate for classifying their jobs. Results showed that participants had a positive perception of its appropriateness (M = 4.76, SD = 1.75), a value that is significantly greater than the scale's neutral value of 4 and, importantly, with an acceptably large effect size ($t(207) = 6.26$, $p <$ .001, Cohen's d = 0.87; Cohen, 1988, 1992; Schmidt, 1996).

Measurement model. Our measurement model was designed to capture four separate factors—involvement of the self with the good and perceived positive impact on others (the step 1 mediators), job meaningfulness (the step 2 mediator), and job-related happiness (the dependent variable). We conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA; AMOS) to test whether the data fit this proposed four-factor model. Results yielded: $\chi^2(150) = 311.66$, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF = 2.07, RMSEA = .07, NNFI = .96, and CFI = .97, indicating that our measurement model was in line with established parameters of adequate model fit (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012).[6]

Next, we used Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criteria to test the convergent and discriminant validity of these four constructs. Supporting their convergent validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct was greater than .05, and the reliability for each was greater than their respective AVE; hence satisfying the two criteria of convergent validity. Next, supporting their discriminant validity, the maximum shared variance (MSV) and the average shared variance (ASV) for each construct were smaller than their respective AVE, and, importantly, the square root of AVE for each was greater than their inter-construct correlations (see Web Appendix F for inter-

[6] For further confirmation, we combined the items measuring two factors that could potentially be seen as conceptually overlapping, involvement of the self with the good and job meaningfulness, and conducted another CFA. Results showed that, compared to the four-factor model, this three-factor model did not fit the data as well: $\chi2(130) = 305.44$, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF = 2.35, RMSEA = .08, NNFI = .94, and CFI = .96. Given the acceptable and superior fit of the empirical four-factor model, we considered these factors as separate constructs. In addition, related to job involvement specifically, as one additional check, we removed three items from the involvement of the self with the good scale that were particularly related to meaningfulness (see starred items in Web Appendix A), and all mediation results across the four studies remained the same.

construct correlations and additional statistics for this and the next studies); thereby satisfying all the three criteria of discriminant validity (Table 1).[7]

Insert Table 1 about Here

Next, we tested the proposed effect of job type (experiential vs. material) on job-related happiness (Hypothesis 1), and the predicted two-step sequential mediation (Hypothesis 2).

Job type (experiential vs. material) and job-related happiness. A regression with job type (material vs. experiential) predicting job-related happiness showed a significant positive relationship ($\beta = 0.15$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(206) = 2.44$, $p = .01$)[8], supporting Hypothesis 1. Employees perceiving themselves as providing customers with experiences rather than material objects experience greater job-related happiness.

Two-step sequential mediation. We conducted a sequential mediation analysis with job type as the independent variable, employees' involvement of the self with the good and perceived positive impact on others as step 1 mediators, job meaningfulness as step 2 mediator, and job-related happiness as the dependent variable. We used PROCESS model 80 (with 10,000 resamples—the number of resamples used in all our mediation analyses) since this model allows for tests of sequential mediation of a framework containing two mediators in its first step (Hayes, 2017).

The indirect effect of job type on job-related happiness was significant via both paths: 'involvement of the self with the good → job meaningfulness' (sequential mediation: $\beta = 0.09$, $SE = 0.03$, 95% CI = [0.04, 0.16]) and 'perceived positive impact on others → job meaningfulness' (sequential mediation: $\beta = 0.03$, $SE = 0.01$, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.06]), supporting Hypothesis 2.[9] Since

[7] For Studies 2-4, to save space, the results for the conceptual consistency of the experiential versus material job type measure, appropriateness of the experiential versus material job type distinction, measurement model fit, and convergent and discriminant validity are reported in Web Appendix E. They are all at acceptable levels.
[8] All beta coefficients are unstandardized.
[9] For the effect of each path forming this sequential mediation model, as well as this analysis for our other studies, please see Web Appendix E.

this analysis considers the effect of each indirect path while controlling for the effect of the other, these findings suggest that each of the two step 1 mediators (i.e., involvement of the self with the good and perceived positive impact on others) makes a meaningful contribution to explaining the effect on the outcome variable, above and beyond the variance explained by the other path.

Discussion

Using a field survey, Study 1 shows that employees who perceive their jobs as primarily providing experiences versus material objects report deriving greater happiness from those jobs. These results provide a first indication that the experiential versus material job type distinction is conceptually meaningful and practically useful for studying jobs and their relationship with job-related happiness, and that this holds across myriad jobs and industries.

Moreover, the hypothesized mechanism explains this happiness differential: Experiential jobs generate greater employee involvement of the self with the good and stronger employee perception of having a positive impact on customers, each of which increases the employees' experience of meaningfulness at work, which, in turn, increases their job-related happiness.

A strength of Study 1 is its ability to offer a naturalistic view of how employees across many jobs and industries differ in the amount of happiness they derive from their jobs as a factor of the type of good they perceive to be providing; an effect that occurs absent of experimental intervention. We note however that the benefits of examining these naturalistic, non-manipulated observations in Study 1 also open it to limitations. First, Study 1's correlational design renders it unable to conclusively establish the direction of the effect: from job type to job-related happiness—that is, reverse causality is possible. We address this in our next set of studies by randomly assigning participants to an experimental condition (experiential or material job condition). Second, while it is a strength to have had an array of different jobs and industries represented in Study 1, each is likely to have idiosyncrasies; hence, Study 1 compared jobs involved with experiences and objects that may

be deemed incompatible (e.g., a hotel manager vs. a furniture store manager). Thus, it is informative to examine whether the experiential (vs. material) superiority effect holds when it is kept to one particular job and the only variation is whether the employees perceive themselves to be providing customers with an experience or a material object. The results of Study 1 suggest that, if increasing employee happiness is a managerial goal, it would be helpful to encourage employees to see their jobs as more experiential (vs. material). Because the physical nature of the goods that some companies offer is usually a given, making changes to the actual good would be unrealistic. Hence, we examine next an alternative that organizations could more readily employ based on how employees mentally frame their jobs.

Study 2—Mental Framing Intervention of Experiential versus Material Job Type with Sales Employees

The evidence from Study 1 indicates that employees naturally perceive some jobs as more experience-centered and others as more object-centered. Study 2 tests whether a planned intervention can shift the way employees mentally frame their jobs. Specifically, this study uses a mental framing procedure adapted from previous research in consumer behavior (Bastos, 2019; Bastos & Brucks, 2017; Carter & Gilovich, 2010, 2012) to keep the focal job constant—sales jobs—and manipulate only whether employees mentally frame the goods they sell in experiential or material terms.

Procedures

Three hundred and nine salespeople were recruited from MTurk (57% females, M_{age} = 35.89, SD = 12.85) to participate in the study for financial compensation. Using a between-subjects design, the study randomly assigned participants to the experiential (n = 160) or the material framing condition (n = 149). To encourage participants to think of the good they sell[10] in accordance with

[10] See Web Appendix G for the list of the goods that participants reported selling.

the experimental condition they had been assigned, the study presented experiential [vs. material] condition participants with the script: "Please think about the product you sell to people. That product is likely something that people use [keep in their possession] for some time. At the end of the day, the product you sell really becomes an experience for the people who use it [the product you sell is really a material object for the people who own it]. It allows them to have experiences that may include activities, doing something, an event, interacting with others [It has its physical properties that may have to do with its model, materials, features, style, shape, weight]. So, when doing your job, you likely feel like you are providing people the opportunity to have experiences [providing people a tangible object]. In your mind, your occupation is really about providing people experiences in their life [material objects]." Next, participants wrote what their work selling these experiences [objects] was like and answered the same measures of job-related happiness ($\alpha = .90$), involvement of the self with the good ($\alpha = .96$), perceived positive impact ($\alpha = .92$), job meaningfulness ($\alpha = .92$), experiential versus material job type distinction ($\alpha = .82$; serving as manipulation check), and appropriateness of the job type distinction ($r = .58$, $p < .001$).

Results

Manipulation check. Participants in the experiential framing condition judged the job as significantly more experiential ($M = 3.91$, $SD = 1.36$) than did participants in the material framing condition ($M = 3.11$, $SD = 1.41$, $t(307) = 5.07$, $p < .001$, mean difference = 0.80, 95% CI = [0.49, 1.11], Cohen's $d = 0.57$), indicating that the framing manipulation had the intended effect.

Job type (experiential vs. material) and job-related happiness. Supporting Hypothesis 1, participants reported significantly greater job-related happiness when they framed their jobs as one providing customers with an experience ($M = 5.76$, $SD = 1.20$) rather than a material object ($M = 5.29$, $SD = 1.34$, $t(307) = 3.24$, $p = .001$, mean difference = 0.47, 95% CI = [0.19, 0.76], Cohen's $d = 0.36$; see Figure 2).

Insert Figure 2 about Here

Two-step sequential mediation. Supporting Hypothesis 2, a sequential mediation analysis (PROCESS, model 80) showed that the indirect effect of job type on job-related happiness was significant via both paths: 'involvement of the self with the good → job meaningfulness' (sequential mediation: β = 0.08, *SE* = 0.04, 95% CI = [0.02, 0.18]) and 'perceived positive impact on others → job meaningfulness' (sequential mediation: β = 0.10, *SE* = 0.04, 95% CI = [0.03, 0.19]).

Discussion

Using a mental framing procedure, this study offers additional support for our predicted model. We find that actual salespeople who undergo an intervention to frame their jobs as one providing customers with experiential rather than material goods report greater involvement of the self with the good and greater perceived positive impact on others, making the job more meaningful and, consequently, a greater source of job-related happiness. We replicated these results in two additional framing studies where both the job function (sales and product design, respectively) and the good (BBQ grill and 3D TV, respectively) were kept constant (see Web Appendix H).

By holding constant the type of job—sales jobs—, Study 2 neutralizes various idiosyncrasies associated with the diverse jobs considered in Study 1. Also, by virtue of random assignment, this study addresses Study 1's limitation associated with causal directionality. However, as an additional robustness check, we conducted a study directly testing whether people who are generally happier in life are more likely to choose experiential versus material jobs. That study did not find support for reverse causality (see Web Appendix B). Last, the mental framing intervention in the present study is managerially actionable and practical for firms; a topic we elaborate upon in the General Discussion.

Study 3—Selling Behaviors & Mental Framing of Job Type

We began our empirical examination in Study 1 with a field study of actual employees with the implication that, by asking real employees for their views, we would be able to gain insight into the actions they actually take at work. Subsequently, in Study 2, we added a level of control by keeping the job constant and employed a framing intervention with actual salespeople. However, while we were able to see the influence of this framing intervention on the relationships in our model, we did not observe participants actually engaging in work-related behaviors during the study. Study 3 combines the implicitly behaviorally-based approach of Study 1 with the tight control over the experimental procedures of Study 2. As such, its main goal is to test whether the relationships in our model replicate when participants frame the good as an experience or an object while they actually engage in a simulated process of selling that good. Specifically, participants took part in a staged interaction with a potential customer with the intent of selling a 3D TV, which they mentally framed as either an experiential or a material good.

Procedures

A set of U.S. and Canadian MTurk participants (N = 203, 58% females, M_{age} = 37.44, SD = 12.00) took the study for financial compensation. The questionnaire first informed all participants that, "In this study we are interested in learning about how sellers and buyers interact, and in testing an online chat platform. These days, these interactions often happen online where an employee of a firm speaks with a customer via a chat platform. In this study you will play the role of the employee who works for 'The 3D Company', a firm that sells 3D TVs." Participants were informed that they would be connected with another person who would be taking the role of the customer and that they would be interacting through a chat platform. For realism sake, during the interaction, there were timed pauses between answers—as if the customer were writing his/her responses.

Participants were randomly assigned to the experiential (n = 106) or the material framing condition (n = 97). To manipulate framing, similar to Study 2, participants were encouraged to think

of the good in either experiential or material terms. However, different from Study 2, participants were not asked to write about the job. Instead, they enacted the job through their actual selling behaviors in the computer-mediated interaction with the customer.

After establishing the chat connection and having a brief personal introduction with the potential customer, participants received a message from the customer requesting information about 3D TVs. Before writing their reply, participants in the experiential [material] framing condition read instructions designed to focus their communication on the experiential [material] aspects of the 3D TV. To help participants know what to say about its experiential [vs. material] aspects, the manipulation texts included examples of experiential [vs. material] topics from the 3D TV stimulus used by Carter and Gilovich (2012): "Important: It has been found that sales are more successful if the salesperson focuses on what the customer will get out of the experience of using the product [focuses on specific features and provides really good descriptions of the object itself]. So, throughout this interaction, please make sure you focus on the characteristics of that TV experience [object]. For example, you could tell them about the fun they would have watching a 3D TV with their friends, and how it would fit with the other activities they do [you could tell them about where the TV would go in their home or apartment, and how it would go with their other material goods]. Overall, describe to the other person what you think that experience [object] is like" (see Web Appendix C for the complete text).

Following the end of the interaction, participants completed measures of job-related happiness ($\alpha = .94$), involvement of the self with the good ($\alpha = .98$), perceived positive impact on others ($\alpha = .96$), and job meaningfulness ($\alpha = .95$). We made slight modifications to the wording of these measures to fit the behavioral nature of Study 3 (see Web Appendix C). Participants then answered the same manipulation check measure of the experiential versus material job type distinction ($\alpha = .82$) and reported their perception of the appropriateness of this distinction ($r = .72$,

$p < .001$). As a control variable, the questionnaire assessed social desirability with the ten-item version of Marlowe and Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Reynolds, 1982; e.g., "I am always willing to admit when I make a mistake"; $\alpha = .68$). Finally, participants reported their familiarity with 3D TVs ("I know what a 3D TV is") and their understanding of the study instructions ("The instructions of this study were clear").[11]

Results

Manipulation check. Participants in the experiential framing condition perceived the job as significantly more experiential ($M = 4.16$, $SD = 1.12$) than did participants in the material framing condition ($M = 2.79$, $SD = 1.32$, $t(201) = 7.94$, $p < .001$, mean difference = 1.37, 95% CI = [1.03, 1.71], Cohen's $d = 1.12$), indicating that the framing manipulation had the intended effect.

Job type (experiential vs. material) and job-related happiness. Supporting Hypothesis 1, participants who focused on the experiential aspects of the 3D TV in their sales pitch to the customer reported significantly greater job-related happiness ($M = 4.51$, $SD = 1.67$) than did those who focused on its material aspects ($M = 3.88$, $SD = 1.95$, $t(201) = 2.49$, $p = .01$, mean difference = 0.63, 95% CI = [0.13, 1.13], Cohen's $d = 0.34$).

Two-step sequential mediation. Supporting Hypothesis 2, a sequential mediation analysis (PROCESS, model 80) showed that the indirect effect of job type on job-related happiness was significant via both paths: 'involvement of the self with the good → job meaningfulness' (sequential mediation: $\beta = 0.06$, $SE = 0.03$, 95% CI = [0.002, 0.15]) and 'perceived positive impact on others → job meaningfulness' (sequential mediation: $\beta = 0.08$, $SE = 0.05$, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.19]).

[11] Please see Web Appendix E for an ANCOVA controlling for social desirability and additional analyses performed to rule out social desirability as a potential intervening factor. The effect of job type on job-related happiness reported in the manuscript replicated fully in the ANCOVA, and the additional analyses suggested that social desirability is unlikely to account for the observed effects. Results showed participants' strong familiarity with the nature of a 3D TV ($M = 5.57$, $SD = 1.61$, $t(202) = 13.87$, $p < .001$, mean difference = 1.57, 95% CI = [1.35, 1.79], Cohen's $d = 1.95$) and their strong understanding of the study instructions ($M = 6.19$, $SD = 1.06$, $t(202) = 29.40$, $p < .001$, mean difference = 2.18, 95% CI = [2.04, 2.33], Cohen's $d = 4.13$), both of which were statistically greater than the neutral value of 4, with acceptably large effect sizes.

Discussion

We find consistent support for our model in this study with participants enacting the selling process. Perceiving that they were providing an experience versus an object to customers led participants to report greater job-related happiness, an effect that stems from differences in their involvement of the self with the good and perceived positive impact on others, each of which contributes to job meaningfulness. This study replicates and complements our earlier mental framing Study 2 by eliciting actual selling behaviors and employing more controlled procedures, that is, keeping constant both the job (as in Study 2) and the focal good, a 3D TV.[12]

Thus far, our studies have focused on goods that, implicitly, participants likely perceived to have turned out well for customers, a circumstance where experiences have been shown to lead to greater consumer happiness than do objects. However, customers are not always satisfied (Aaker, Fournier, & Brasel, 2004). We explore in Study 4 what happens to employee happiness when the experiences and objects they provide turn out negatively for customers.

Study 4—Manipulation of Negative Outcome Valence

Drawing on the finding from consumer behavior research that, when the outcome of a good is negative for the customer, the experiential superiority in advancing consumer happiness disappears (Nicolao et al., 2009), we examine whether the same phenomenon occurs in the employee context. Study 4 manipulates negative outcome valence to test this exploratory question.

Procedures

Three hundred and eighty-four U.S. and Canadian MTurk participants (61% females, M_{age} = 35.34, SD = 11.37) completed the study for financial compensation. Using the same procedure employed in the consumer behavior literature, we conducted a 2 (job type: experiential vs. material) by 2 (outcome valence: negative vs. control) between-subjects design study. Participants were

[12] See Web Appendix I for a conceptual replication of this study.

randomly assigned as follows: experiential-negative (n = 95); material-negative (n = 101); experiential-control (n = 95); and material-control (n = 93). The study instructed all participants to imagine working in a sales position in a ski store. Next, the questionnaire randomly assigned them to the condition of selling either skiing experiences or skiing objects to customers. Besides the manipulation for job type (experiential vs. material), participants in the negative outcome valence conditions were presented with the following information: "Importantly: Since you started in this job, many of the experiences [objects] you have sold to customers have not turned out well. As a consequence, a lot of your daily interactions with customers have been negative." The questionnaire then instructed participants to write in some detail what came to mind (see Web Appendix D for the complete manipulation texts).

Next, using the same measures as the previous studies, participants reported on job-related happiness (α = .94), involvement of the self with the good (α = .97), perceived positive impact on others (α = .96), job meaningfulness (α = .95), experiential versus material job type distinction (α = .93; serving as manipulation check), appropriateness of the job type distinction (r = .61, p < .001), and outcome valence (2-items—e.g., "Most of the experiences/objects have turned out…"; 1 = *Very negatively*, 7 = *Very positively*; r = .96, p < .001; serving as manipulation check).

Results

Manipulation checks for job type (experiential vs. material) and negative outcome valence. The job type manipulation had the intended effect: Participants selling skiing experiences judged the job as significantly more experiential (M = 5.84, SD = 1.24) than did participants selling skiing objects (M = 2.78, SD = 1.33, $F(1, 380)$ = 533.85, p < .001, η^2 = .58). Neither outcome valence nor the interaction showed significant effects (ps > .2). Further, the outcome valence manipulation also had the intended effect: Participants in the negative outcome condition reported that the goods turned out significantly more negatively for customers (M = 2.16, SD = 1.53) than

did participants in the control condition (M = 5.74, SD = 0.98, $F(1, 380) = 744.95$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .66$). There was also a significant effect for experiential versus material job type (M_{exp} = 4.10, SD = 2.14 vs. M_{mat} = 3.73, SD = 2.25, $F(1, 380) = 4.94$, $p = .02$, $\eta^2 = .01$) and their interaction ($F(1, 380) = 5.31$, $p = .02$, $\eta^2 = .01$). An additional contrast analysis of the interaction showed that, in the negative outcome conditions, experiential and material job type participants reported significantly different values for valence (M_{exp} = 2.47, SD = 1.70 vs. M_{mat} = 1.88, SD = 1.29, $F(1, 194) = 7.56$, $p = .007$, $\eta^2 = .03$), whereas in the control conditions they reported statistically indistinguishable values (M_{exp} = 5.74, SD = 0.98 vs. M_{mat} = 5.75, SD = 0.99, $F(1, 186) = 0.005$, $p = .94$, $\eta^2 < .001$).

Job type (experiential vs. material) by outcome valence (negative vs. control) on job-related happiness. An ANOVA with job type and outcome valence as predictors of job-related happiness indicated significant effects of job type, with experiential jobs advancing greater happiness (M_{exp} = 3.82, SD = 1.92 vs. M_{mat} = 3.06, SD = 1.75, $F(1, 380) = 19.49$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .04$) and valence, with the negative outcome valence leading to less happiness (M_{neg} = 2.54, SD = 1.64 vs. $M_{control}$ = 4.36, SD = 1.64, $F(1, 380) = 121.44$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .24$). The interaction of job type by outcome valence was not significant ($F(1, 380) = 0.01$, $p = .92$, $\eta^2 < .001$), indicating that negative outcomes did not moderate the direct effect in the model.

Two-step sequential mediations for negative outcome and control conditions. The following analyses tested whether our full sequential mediation model manifests for negative valence and whether it replicates for the control condition. The result above, showing that experiential (vs. material) jobs lead to greater employee happiness also in the negative outcome condition, suggests that both, or at least one of the sequential pathways, is still operant in that condition.

Negative outcome condition. A sequential mediation analysis (PROCESS, model 80) indicated that only one of the pathways transmitted the effect in the negative outcome condition; that via 'involvement of the self with the good → job meaningfulness' (sequential mediation: β =

0.14, *SE* = 0.06, 95% CI = [0.04, 0.29]). When the good turned out negatively for customers, the pathway via 'perceived positive impact on others→ job meaningfulness' no longer transmitted the effect (sequential mediation: β = 0.06, *SE* = 0.03, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.15]).

Control condition. A similar analysis of sequential mediation (PROCESS, model 80) indicated that, replicating Studies 1–3, both pathways transmitted the effect of job type on job-related happiness: 'involvement of the self with the good → job meaningfulness' (sequential mediation: β = 0.14, *SE* = 0.09, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.36]) and 'perceived positive impact on others → job meaningfulness' (sequential mediation: β = 0.20, *SE* = 0.07, 95% CI = [0.08, 0.37]).

Discussion

This study shows that, when the good turns out negatively for customers, employees providing experiences still have greater job-related happiness than do those providing material objects, but the explanation for this difference is restricted to only one of the two sequential pathways in our model: involvement of the self with the good → job meaningfulness. This makes sense since their perceived agency in positively impacting others would be reduced if the customer is unhappy. Interestingly, in the negative condition, employees providing experiences (vs. objects) still imagined that the good turned out significantly less negatively, even though the manipulation was identical. Although this was not enough to maintain experiential (vs. material) employees' greater perception of having a positive impact on customers, it may indicate that perceiving one's job as experiential may even serve as a buffer to negative events at work, something interesting to explore in future research. Further, the control condition replicates the findings for the full model in our other studies where we do not specify whether the good turns out negatively or positively.

General Discussion

The growing field of research on the relationship between experiential versus material goods and happiness has found that experiences lead to greater happiness than do objects; but to date this

body of research has focused exclusively on the people *acquiring* the goods—the customers. In this investigation, we pioneer research on the other side of the equation—the employees who *provide* these goods to customers. We find that the happiness superiority of experiences over material objects also manifests for the employees providing the goods.

In four studies, we demonstrate that employees who perceive their jobs as centered on providing experiences versus material objects derive more happiness from those jobs (please see Web Appendix J for a single-paper meta-analysis of this effect across Studies 2–4 and Replication Studies 1-3 reported in Web Appendices H and I; McShane & Böckenholt [2017]). First, a field survey of employees showed that this effect is naturally present across myriad jobs and industries, and that it manifests without a planned experimental intervention (Study 1). Next, Study 2 replicated this effect in another field study, but this time holding constant the employees' job—a sales position. In this study, currently-employed salespeople took part in a mental framing intervention encouraging them to think of the goods they sell as an experience or an object. Following, Study 3 held constant the job—a sales position—as well as the good—a 3D TV—and engaged participants in a virtual interaction in which they enacted selling-related behaviors focusing on either the experiential or the material aspects of the TV. Results again supported our model. Last, Study 4 performed an exploratory examination of and found support for negative outcome valence as a moderator of one of the indirect pathways in our model—that via perceived positive impact → job meaningfulness.[13]

Further, these four studies consistently supported the two-step sequential mechanism predicted to explain the effect of job type on job-related happiness. Overall, the evidence leads to

[13] Across these studies, and as reported in Web Appendix E, as a robustness check, we ruled out relevant alternative mediators (social characteristics, autonomy, and creativity) and accounted for a large set of other factors (salary, job prestige, social desirability, possibility of irreparable error, opportunity for career advancement, surface acting, level of formal education). As we document in Web Appendix E, some of these variables differed between those who perceived their jobs as experience- versus object-focused, however, the positive effect of experiential versus material job type on job-related happiness was independent of them all.

the following conclusion: Jobs perceived by employees as experience- (vs. object-) focused engender greater employee involvement of the self with the good and stronger perceptions of positively impacting others. Each of these step 1 mediators increases job meaningfulness, the step 2 mediator, which in turn makes experiential (vs. material) jobs a stronger source of employee happiness.

We also found, in exploratory analyses, that when goods turn out negatively for customers, employees offering experiences still report greater job-related happiness than do employees offering objects, but in this context, this difference is explained only by their greater involvement of the self with the good and resulting job meaningfulness. Therefore, negative outcome valence neutralizes one of the two sequential pathways in our model—that via perceived positive impact on others and job meaningfulness.

It is worth noting that, whereas we do not claim that the two-step processes via 'involvement of the self with the good → job meaningfulness' and 'perceived positive impact on others → job meaningfulness' are the only ones transmitting the effect of job type to job-related happiness, we demonstrate that these processes alone are significant enough to yield a consistent pattern of results across four studies and Replications Studies 1-3 (Web Appendices H and I).

Methodologically, we employed different approaches (naturally occurring survey research, experimental interventions) and sample populations (including a broad set of actual employees, sales employees, lab participants). The convergent results observed across these approaches and populations speak to the robustness and generalizability of our findings.

Theoretical and Managerial Contributions

In the years since Van Boven and Gilovich's (2003) original study, researchers have greatly advanced our understanding of the stronger ability of experiences over objects to increase the happiness of a key constituency for organizations—customers. We show here that the distinction between experiential and material goods is also recognizable by, and consequential for, a different,

but equally critical constituency for organizations—their employees. Our findings therefore suggest that the scope of the *experience recommendation,* a term used to refer to experiential goods' superiority in advancing consumer happiness (Nicolao et al., 2009), is wider than previously known, as it also includes an *experience-providing advantage* on the part of employees.

The findings presented here contribute to our knowledge of job meaningfulness (Ahearne, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, Mathieu, & Lam, 2010) and job design (Oldham & Hackman, 2010). Rosso et al. (2010) note that research on job meaningfulness has primarily focused on two issues: The sources of meaning of work and the social and psychological processes through which work becomes meaningful. We contribute to this research stream by advancing a novel driver of a facet of job meaningfulness—whether the job is perceived to be providing customers with experiences or material objects. In doing so, we also add to the job design literature, which, since Hackman and Oldham's (1976) original model, has been enhanced by several additional motivational work characteristics (Humphrey et al., 2007). We introduce the type of good being provided as an additional and new perspective for researchers and practitioners to consider within this domain.

Past research has shed substantial light on the benefits of a happy workforce. Happiness at work has long been shown to relate to many favorable employee outcomes, including better task performance (Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994), greater creativity and proactivity (Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, & Staw, 2005), and improved managerial decision-making (Staw & Barsade, 1993), to name just a few (see Barsade & Gibson [2007] and Elfenbein [2007] for reviews). However, to attain these desirable outcomes, organizations must first understand how to foster happiness at work. Our study advances a novel and managerially actionable way to positively influence job-related happiness: The type of good—experiential or material—employees perceive to be creating and providing to customers.

From a managerial perspective, the results from Studies 2 and 3 suggest that organizations and their managers can influence how employees mentally frame the goods they provide and, in turn, increase the happiness those employees gain from their jobs. Specifically, the seemingly simple strategy of encouraging employees to think of their jobs in experiential versus material terms has the potential to positively influence employees' involvement of the self with the goods that they work with and their perception of making a difference in the customers' lives. This, as our results show, can increase the level of meaningfulness employees experience at work and, in turn, the amount of happiness they derive from their jobs. Interestingly, these initiatives can be beneficial even at difficult times when the goods the employees provide are unsatisfactory. Our findings show, however, that employee involvement with the good (and not their perceptions of positively impacting customers) is the pivotal factor behind the happiness differential in such circumstances.

Limitations and Future Research

Our research has a number of limitations, some of which point to promising areas for future research. For example, while we identify outcome valence as a moderator, employees' social class (Lee, Hall, & Wood, 2018) and level of materialism (Fournier & Richins, 1991) figure as potential additional moderators—that is, highly materialistic employees may identify more with objects, making material jobs especially meaningful and a strong source of happiness for them. Moreover, we examined sample populations in the Western developed world only. Whereas our findings support the importance of both a self- and an other-oriented factor in understanding job meaningfulness, it is possible that, in societies with a stronger collectivistic orientation (Triandis, 1995), perceived positive impact on others would play a dominant role (Suh, 1999). If so, neutralizing that path alone could be enough to eliminate the effect of job type on job-related happiness.

The conceptualization of experiential goods used in previous research and similarly adopted in the present work focuses on the consumer's use of the good (e.g., the experience of watching

programs on a 3D TV). However, this definition could possibly be broadened. For example, when purchasing certain goods (e.g., luxury goods) consumers may also get the experience of having excellent service by attentive, well-trained employees. This service component is likely to add to the overall experience consumers attain from that good. That is, the more service the firm offers during and after the purchase process, the more experiential the good is likely to feel to the consumer and, possibly, the employee as well. This is an interesting topic for future research.

Although we believe that the mental framing intervention is a useful tool in the work context, our data do not allow for conclusions on the duration of its effect. It is possible that a one-time intervention such as the one in Studies 2 and 3 is only short-lived. However, firms are likely to have multiple opportunities to reinforce an experiential mindset among their employees and, as a result, embed this mindset into their organizational culture to a level beneficial to those employees in an enduring way. For example, Vail Resorts has its employees focus on an experience mindset across all functions, irrespective of whether they work in their corporate office, provide visitors with hotel accommodation, teach them how to ski, or sell them souvenirs. This experience-driven mindset is a reflection of the company's mission to "…create the Experience of a Lifetime for our employees, so they can, in in turn, provide exceptional experiences for our guests." (Vail, 2019).

Conclusion

Mirroring the finding in the consumer behavior literature that people gain greater happiness from consuming experiences than material objects, we find that the *employees* who offer consumers these experiences also derive greater happiness from their jobs. This is because they experience stronger involvement of the self with the goods they provide and perceive themselves as having a more positive influence on their customers; each of which imbues the job with greater meaningfulness. This happiness superiority of experiential jobs stands even when the outcomes of the goods are negative, albeit only through the feelings of involvement of the self with the good.

Overall, for managers and organizations, helping employees see the experiential aspects of the goods that they provide is an effective way to foster their psychological well-being in the form of greater meaning, and ultimately, greater job-related happiness.

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Table 1

Statistics for Convergent and Discriminant Validity—Study 1.

Construct	Reliability	AVE	MSV	ASV	SQRT of AVE
Involvement with the Good	0.97	0.82	0.54	0.39	0.91
Perceived Positive Impact	0.91	0.62	0.40	0.34	0.79
Job Meaningfulness	0.93	0.83	0.57	0.51	0.91
Job-Related Happiness	0.88	0.74	0.57	0.40	0.86

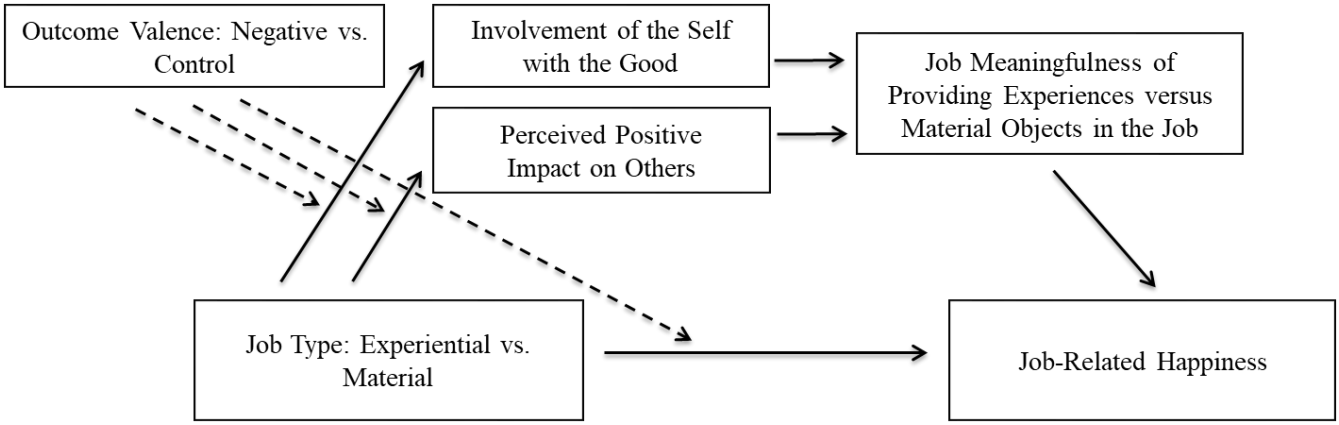

Figure 1. Conceptual Model for the Effect of Job Type on Job-Related Happiness

Note: Dashed lines indicate exploratory examination.

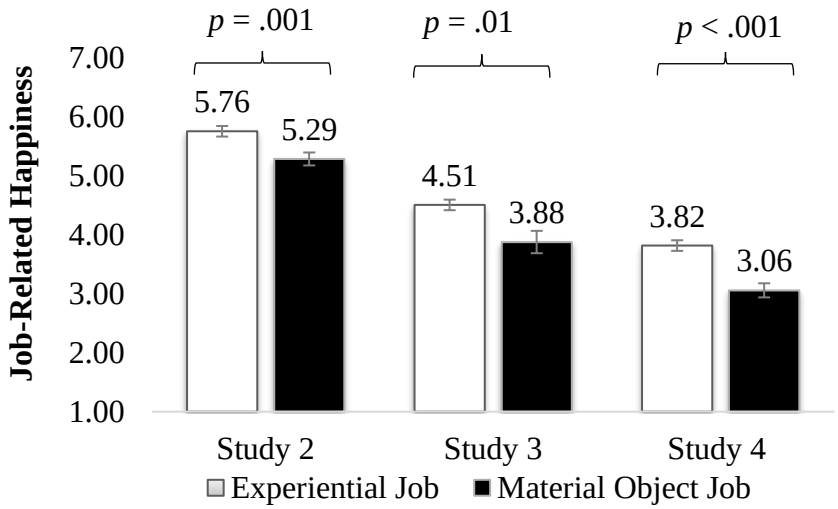

Figure 2. Summary of the Direct Effect of Experiential versus Material Job Type on Job-Related Happiness across Studies 2-4*

Note: Error bars based on standard errors.

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WEB APPENDIX A

Study Materials and Measures (Study 1)

Study Text

Job Description

In this part of the study, we would like you to think about your current job. Think about your job position and what your work is like. In some detail, describe what comes to your mind. (Participants then wrote about their jobs).

List of Measurement Items–Each item was measured on 7-point scales anchored by 1 = Strongly Disagree; 7 = Strongly Agree, or 1 = Not at All; 7 = Very Much, as appropriate (unless otherwise stated).

Job-Related Happiness* (α = .88; adopted and modified from Van Boven & Gilovich [2003])

When you think about this job, how happy does it make you?

How happy does it make you that you are selling experiences/objects to people?

How much does this job contribute to your happiness in life?

Experiential versus Material Job Type (α = .88)

In general terms, we can categorize jobs along a continuum with endpoints of object-jobs and experience-jobs:

Object-jobs are those involved with offering something tangible that the consumer gains ownership over and can keep in her/his possession for a while. Examples of objects are clothes, furniture, jewelry, and various types of electronic devices.

Experience-jobs are those involved with offering an event or a series of events that the consumer lives through and, at the end, is left with nothing tangible, except for her/his memories of the

experience. Examples of experiences are vacations, meals at restaurants, theater performances, and music concerts.

Thinking about your current job, answer the question: My job is primarily involved with offering people...

1. …an experience.

2. …an intangible event or a series of events that the person lives through.

3. …a material object.

4. …a tangible object that the person can keep in their possession.

5. In my view, my current job is BEST described as a: [1 = *Totally Object-Job*; 7 = *Totally Experience-Job*]

Involvement of the Self with the Good (α = .97; adopted and modified from Zaichkowsky's [1985] Personal Involvement Inventory Scale)

The experiences/objects I sell are:

Unimportant to me/Important to me

Of no concern to me/Of concern to me

Irrelevant to me/Relevant to me

*Mean nothing to me/Mean a lot to me

Worthless to me/Valuable to me

Don't matter to me/Matter to me

*Insignificant to me/Significant to me

*Not meaningful to me/Meaningful to me

*Starred items were also removed from the Involvement of the Self with the Good scale, and the shorter scale was used in robustness analyses, where we found the same results in this and all other three studies.

Perceived Positive Impact on Others (α = .91; adopted and modified from Grant [2008] and Grant and Campbell's [2007] Perceived Prosocial Impact Scale)

I feel that my work selling experiences/objects makes a positive difference in other people's lives.

I am very aware of the ways in which my work providing experiences/objects is benefiting others.

I am very conscious of the positive impact that my work has on others.

My work selling experiences/objects really makes others' lives better.

I have positive impact on others on a regular basis.

My work has positive impact on a large number of people.

Job Meaningfulness (α = .93; adopted and modified from Spreitzer's [1995] Meaning of Work Scale)

The work I do in providing experiences/objects is very important to me.

My job activities involved in providing experiences/objects are personally meaningful to me.

Working with selling experiences/objects is meaningful to me.

Social Characteristics (α = .90; adopted from Morgeson and Humphrey [2006])

I have the opportunity to develop close relationship with customers.

I have the chance to get to know customers.

I have the opportunity to meet customers.

Customers take a personal interest in me.

Customers are friendly.

Creativity (α = .92; adopted from Carmeli and Schaubroeck [2007])

My job allows me to…

1. ...demonstrate originality at work.

2. ...take risks in terms of producing new ideas.

3. ...find new uses of existing methods or equipment.

4. ...try out new ideas and approaches to problems.

5. ...identify opportunities for new products/processes.

6. ...generate novel, but operable work-related ideas.

7. ...serve as a good role model of creativity.

Autonomy (α = .93; adopted from Morgeson and Humphrey [2006])

1. The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.

2. The job providing experiences/objects allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own.

3. The job provides me with significant autonomy in making decisions.

Appropriateness of the Job Type Distinction

I think that categorization is applicable for my job.

The 'Object-Experience' continuum is a useful way to categorize my job.

*The term "such offerings" populated in place of experiences or objects in instances where participants answered the happiness measure before the job categorization measure, as, in these

cases, the online questionnaire was not yet able to tailor the happiness item according to whether participants viewed their jobs as offering experiences versus objects.

WEB APPENDIX B

Addressing Potential Reverse Causality

This study had two objectives: First, to test whether people who report being happier in life in general are more inclined to take on experiential- than material-focused jobs (addressing the possibility for reverse causality). Second, to examine, with a within-subjects approach, the replicability of the finding that jobs perceived to provide experiential goods to customers are associated with greater job-related happiness than jobs perceived to provide them material goods.

Procedures

One hundred and fifty participants from MTurk (49% females, M_{age} = 33.95, SD = 10.52) completed the study for monetary compensation. Participants were asked to "imagine that you have been looking for a job. You've recently interviewed with a ski resort and they've just called you back offering a job. In fact, they have two positions open at the ski resort, and they've asked you to select one. Because these positions are virtually identical (they offer the same pay, working ours, etc.), you decide that you will take the one that you think will give you most happiness. The only difference between the two jobs is that you will be selling visitors either skiing experiences or skiing objects. Please click next to read the descriptions of the two job positions." The descriptions of the "Sales Position Selling Skiing Experiences [Objects]" read: "You will work in a store within our resort selling various types of skiing experiences [objects] to visitors. The skiing activities [equipment] you sell allows them to add to their winter/outdoor experience [gear set]. In your everyday interactions with customers, you will focus on telling them about the characteristics of the skiing activities [equipment] and on what it is like to have that experience [object]. So, your occupation will really be about selling people various types of skiing experiences [objects]." These two job descriptions appeared to participants in random order. Following, participants made their job choice by answering the question, "Which of the two jobs would give you most happiness and, therefore, the

one you would choose?" (0 = *The job selling skiing objects to customers*; 1 = *The job selling skiing experiences to customers*). These two choice options appeared in random order. Next, using the same five-item measure of job type employed throughout our studies (α = .96), participants indicated, on the experiential-material dimension, their perception of the job they had selected. Following, they reported their general happiness in life using Lyubomirsky and Lepper's (1999) Subjective Happiness Scale (SHS; e.g., "In general, I consider myself:"; 1 = *Not a very happy person,* 7 = *A very happy person*; α = .88). The questionnaire randomized the order in which the SHS measure appeared, either as the first material participants saw in the questionnaire—i.e., before they had read any job-related information—or at the end of the questionnaire, as depicted in the sequence of the present description. Measurement order did not influence any of the conclusions.

Results

An exploratory factor analysis confirmed that the five items forming the job type measure loaded on a single factor (Eigenvalue > 1; all loadings > .92), which accounted for 88.10% of the variance. Further, an ANOVA confirmed that participants who selected an experiential job perceived that job as more experiential (M = 6.19, SD = 0.98) than did participants who selected a material job (M = 2.19, SD = 1.36, $F(1, 148) = 430.90$, $p < .001$).

Job choice. A z-test of proportion examined whether, when selecting between an experiential and a material job based on the level of happiness that each job is expected to provide, people display an inclination towards either. In line with our Hypothesis 1 and the results reported in the manuscript, a noticeable majority of participants (63%) indicated the job selling skiing experiences as the one that would give them most happiness and, therefore, the one they would choose, a proportion that is significantly greater than the neutral value of 50% (z = 3.18, p = .001, 95% CI = [54.74%, 70.73%]). This result remained the same if we did a one-sample t-test. In the

case of a *t*-test, the analysis yielded the same conclusion and showed a medium effect size ($t(149) = 3.37$, $p = .001$, mean difference = 0.13, 95% CI = [0.06, 0.21], Cohen's $d = 0.55$).

General happiness in life and job choice. This analysis examined whether happier (less happy) participants tended to choose the experiential (material) job. An ANOVA with job choice predicting general happiness showed that participants who selected the experiential job ($M = 4.72$, $SD = 1.49$) were statistically indistinguishable in their level of general happiness in life to those who selected the material job ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 1.51$, $F(1, 148) = 1.42$, $p = .23$).

An interesting additional possibility is that, despite the lack of association between general happiness in life and job choice, happier people may still tend to see any job as more experiential than material. That is, irrespective of which job participants chose, happier participants may perceive their selected job as more experiential than material. This idea is consistent with our conceptualization of job type as a subjective perception of a job that, as such, can vary across people. Because participants in this study classified along the experiential versus material dimension the job that they selected, by looking separately into each group (the group who selected the experiential job and the one who selected the material job), we are able to identify whether general happiness associates with how participants classified that job. Two separate correlation analyses indicated that, within the group who selected the job selling skiing experiences, there was no statistically significant association between participants' general happiness and their classification of that job ($r = .08$, $p = .41$). A similar result emerged for the group who select the job selling skiing objects ($r = .02$, $p = .87$).

In sum, replicating the findings reported in the manuscript, this study provides additional evidence that people associate jobs perceived to be providing experiences versus material objects with greater job-related happiness. Additionally, in addressing reverse causality, we find no evidence that people who are in general happier in life tend to gravitate toward experiential versus material

jobs, or that, when considering a specific job, their perception of that job as experiential versus material differs from that of their less happy counterparts.

WEB APPENDIX C

Study Materials and Measures (Study 3)

Study Text

[**Introductory Information to All Participants**]

In this study we are interested in learning about how sellers and buyers interact and in testing an online chat platform. These days, these interactions often happen online where an employee of a firm talks with a customer via a chat platform. In this study you will play the role of the employee who works for 'The 3D Company', a firm that sells 3D TVs. We will connect you with another participant from Mturk who will play the role of the customer. We will give you instructions along the way about what to write to that person. Then you wait for him/her to write you a response. After that we will ask you some questions about your interaction with this person.

[**Framing Manipulations**]

Experiential Condition: In this study, you are the online sales manager at a firm that sells 3D TVs. 3D TVs are something people use for some time. Your goal is that, during the time they use the TV, your customers like the experience of using it. In your online interactions with customers, you focus on telling them about the characteristics of the experience and on what it is like to have that experience. So, in your mind, your occupation is really about selling people experiences.
Keeping this in mind, please click next for the study to establish a chat connection with the other person. After the conversation we will ask you some questions about it.

Material Condition: In this study, you are the online sales manager at a firm that sells 3D TVs. 3D TVs are something people keep for some time. Your goal is that, during the time they own the TV, your customers like the object. In your online interactions with customers, you focus on telling them about the characteristics of the object and on what it is like to have that object. So, in your mind, your occupation is really about selling people material objects.

Keeping this in mind, please click next for the study to establish a chat connection with the other person. After the conversation we will ask you some questions about it.

[**Two Personal Introduction Exchanges**]

[**First TV-Related Exchange-Customer's Question**]

Hi (participant's first name—which participants had entered earlier to introduce themselves to the customer—populated here)! Glad you can get me some information. Yes, can you please tell me about 3D TVs?

[**Additional Information Provided to Participants**]

Experiential Condition: You can enter your response below. Important: It has been found that sales are more successful if the salesperson focuses on what the customer will get out of the experience of using the product. So, throughout this interaction, please make sure you focus on the characteristics of that TV experience. For example, you could tell them about fun they would have watching a 3D TV with their friends, and how it would fit with the other activities they do. Overall, describe to the other person what you think that experience is like. Take as much time as you need to write up this description.

Material Condition: You can enter your response below. Important: It has been found that sales are more successful if the salesperson focuses on specific product features and provides really good descriptions of the object itself. So, throughout this interaction, please make sure you focus on the characteristics of that TV object. For example, you could tell them about where the TV would go in their home or apartment, and how it would go with their other material goods. Overall, describe to the other person what you think that object is like. Take as much time as you need to write up this description.

[**End of Interaction—Good Bye from Customer**]

Hey, thanks for telling me about it. Have a great day.

List of Measurement Items–Each item was measured on a 7-point scale anchored by 1 = Strongly Disagree; 7 = Strongly Agree, or 1 = Not at All; 7 = Very Much, as appropriate (unless otherwise stated).

Job-Related Happiness (α = .94)

When you think about this job, how happy does it make you?

How happy did it make you selling experiences/objects to people?

How much does this job contribute to your happiness in life?

Involvement of the Self with the Good (α = .98)

The experiences/objects I sell are:

Unimportant to me/Important to me

Of no concern to me/Of concern to me

Irrelevant to me/Relevant to me

Mean nothing to me/Mean a lot to me

Worthless to me/Valuable to me

Don't matter to me/Matter to me

Insignificant to me/Significant to me

Not meaningful to me/Meaningful to me

Perceived Positive Impact on Others (α = .96)

I feel that my work selling experiences/objects made a positive difference in the potential customer's life.

I am very aware of the ways in which my work providing experiences/objects benefited the potential customer.

I am very conscious of the positive impact that my work had on the other person.

My work selling experiences/objects made the potential customer's life better.

I had a positive impact on that person.

My work has positive impact on a large number of people.

Job Meaningfulness (α = .95)

The work I did in providing experiences/objects was very important to me.

The job activity I just did providing experiences/objects was personally meaningful to me.

Working with selling experiences/objects was meaningful to me.

WEB APPENDIX D

Study Materials (Study 4)

Study Text

Experiential Condition—Negative Outcome

In this study, imagine that you work at a ski resort. More specifically, you work in a store within the resort that sells various types of skiing experiences to visitors. The skiing activities you sell allows them to add to their winter/outdoor experience. In your everyday interactions with customers, you likely focus on telling them about the characteristics of the skiing activities and on what it is like to have that experience. So, in your mind, your occupation is really about selling people experiences. Importantly: Since you started in this job, many of the experiences you have sold to customers have not turned out well. As a consequence, a lot of your daily interactions with customers have been negative.

Your task: Think about what your work selling experiences would be like. Please remember that most of those experiences have not turned out well for customers. In some detail, please describe what comes to your mind.

Material Condition—Negative Outcome

In this study, imagine that you work at a ski resort. More specifically, you work in a store within the resort that sells various types of skiing objects to visitors. The skiing equipment you sell allows them to add to their winter/outdoor gear set. In your everyday interactions with customers, you likely focus on telling them about the characteristics of the skiing equipment and on what it is like to have that object. So, in your mind, your occupation is really about selling people material objects. Importantly: Since you started in this job, many of the objects you have sold to customers have not turned out well. As a consequence, a lot of your daily interactions with customers have been negative.

Your task: Think about what your work selling objects would be like. Please remember that most of those objects have not turned out well for customers. In some detail, please describe what comes to your mind.

Experiential Condition—Control

In this study, imagine that you work at a ski resort. More specifically, you work in a store within the resort that sells various types of skiing experiences to visitors. The skiing activities you sell allows them to add to their winter/outdoor experience. In your everyday interactions with customers, you likely focus on telling them about the characteristics of the skiing activities and on what it is like to have that experience. So, in your mind, your occupation is really about selling people experiences.

Your task: Think about what your work selling experiences would be like. In some detail, please describe what comes to your mind.

Material Condition—Control

In this study, imagine that you work at a ski resort. More specifically, you work in a store within the resort that sells various types of skiing objects to visitors. The skiing equipment you sell allows them to add to their winter/outdoor gear set. In your everyday interactions with customers, you likely focus on telling them about the characteristics of the skiing equipment and on what it is like to have that object. So, in your mind, your occupation is really about selling people material objects.

Your task: Think about what your work selling objects would be like. In some detail, please describe what comes to your mind.

WEB APPENDIX E

Set of Analyses regarding Conceptual Consistency and Appropriateness, Model Fit, Convergent and Discriminant Validity, All Links of the Mediation Model, and Potential Alternative Mediators and Control Variables for Studies1-4.

This Web Appendix documents results for the conceptual consistency of the job type measure, the appropriateness of that measure, analyses testing the fit of the four-factor measurement model (CFA, and convergent and discriminant validity), all links forming the two-step sequential mediation model, mediation analyses including the predicted mediators plus three potential alternative mediators (social characteristics, creativity, autonomy), and regression and ANCOVAs accounting for a set of factors (e.g., salary, job prestige, social desirability). For concision, we present the results for the regression, ANCOVAs, and mediation analyses in semi-tabular instead of text form.

Study 1— Field Survey with Employees across Jobs and Industries

Conceptual Consistency of the Experiential versus Material Job Type Measure

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of the five items comprising the job type measure extracted one relevant factor (Eigenvalue > 1; all loadings > .77) that accounted for 68.83% of the variance.

Appropriateness of the Experiential versus Material Job Type Distinction

Results showed that participants had a positive perception of its appropriateness (M = 4.76, SD = 1.75), a value that is significantly greater than the neutral value of 4, and, importantly, had an acceptably large effect size ($t(207) = 6.26$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 0.87$; Cohen, 1988, 1992; Schmidt, 1996).

Measurement Model Fit

Our measurement model was designed to capture four separate factors—involvement of the self with the good and perceived positive impact on others (the step 1 mediators), job meaningfulness

(the step 2 mediator), and job-related happiness (the dependent variable). We conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA; AMOS) to test whether the data fit this proposed four-factor model. Results yielded: $\chi^2(150) = 311.66$, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF = 2.07, RMSEA = .07, NNFI = .96, and CFI = .97, indicating that our measurement model was in line with established parameters of adequate model fit (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012). For further confirmation, we combined the items measuring two factors that could potentially be seen as conceptually overlapping—involvement of the self with the good and job meaningfulness—and conducted another CFA. Results showed that, compared to the four-factor model, this three-factor model did not fit the data as well: $\chi2(130) = 305.44$, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF = 2.35, RMSEA = .08, NNFI = .94, and CFI = .96. Given the acceptable and superior fit of the empirical four-factor model, we considered these factors as separate constructs.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Results showed that all criteria for both validities were met.

Table E1

Statistics for Convergent and Discriminant Validity—Study 1.

Construct	Reliability	AVE	MSV	ASV	SQRT of AVE
Involvement with the Good	0.97	0.82	0.54	0.39	0.91
Perceived Positive Impact	0.91	0.62	0.40	0.34	0.79
Job Meaningfulness	0.93	0.83	0.57	0.51	0.91
Job-Related Happiness	0.88	0.74	0.57	0.40	0.86

Regression Analysis Including Control Variables—Job Prestige and Salary

We measured two control variables: participants' salaries and the level of prestige associated with their jobs. We assessed participants' salaries with the question: "What is your annual salary?" Because prestige is a condition ascribed to a person by others (Carmeli, 2005; Henrich & Gil-White, 2001), we assessed it, post-experimentally, by asking 126 individuals from MTurk in the United

States and Canada (51% females, M_{age} = 37.47, *SD* = 13.14), who participated for financial compensation, to read five randomly selected job descriptions from the focal participants (on average, each job was rated by three raters) and respond to the question: "In my view, this job is…" (1 = *Not at all prestigious*; 7 = *Very prestigious*). Results showed that the association between experiential versus material job type on job-related happiness was maintained at a marginally significant level of p = .059 when the two factors were entered in the regression (see below).

Experiential versus material job type: β = 0.11, *SE* = 0.06, $t(189) = 1.90$, p = .059

Prestige: β = 0.35, *SE* = 0.09, $t(189) = 4.13$, $p < .001$

Salary: β = .000, *SE* = .000, $t(189) = 1.84$, p = .07

Test of Mediation—Reporting of All Paths

This section documents the results for all links of the two-step sequential mediation analysis for Study 1 reported in the manuscript text.

Outcome variable: Involvement of the self with the good

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.30, *SE* = 0.06, $t(206) = 4.94$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = [0.18, 0.41])

Outcome variable: Perceived positive impact

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.14, *SE* = 0.05, $t(206) = 3.16$, $p < .01$, 95% CI = [0.05, 0.24])

Outcome variable: Job meaningfulness

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.01, *SE* = 0.04, $t(204) = 0.33$, p = .74, 95% CI = [-0.07, 0.10])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.56, *SE* = 0.05, $t(204) = 10.64$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = [0.46, 0.66])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.35, *SE* = 0.07, $t(204) = 5.14$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = [0.22, 0.49])

Outcome variable: Job-related happiness

Experiential versus material job type (β = -0.04, *SE* = 0.44, *t*(203) = -0.87, *p* = .38, 95% CI = [-0.12, 0.05])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.05, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(203) = 0.70, *p* = .48, 95% CI = [-0.09, 0.18])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.23, *SE* = 0.08, *t*(203) = 3.07, *p* < .01, 95% CI = [0.08, 0.39])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.59, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(203) = 8.08, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.45, 0.74])

Indirect effects

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.14, *SE* = 0.03, 95% CI = [-0.03, 0.07])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.03, *SE* = 0.02, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.07])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.01, *SE* = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.05, 0.07])

Involvement of the self with the good → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.10, *SE* = 0.03, 95% CI = [0.04, 0.17])

Perceived positive impact → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.03, *SE* = 0.01, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.06])

Mediation Analyses Including Three Potential Alternative Mediators—Social Characteristics, Autonomy, and Creativity

Given the novelty of the experiential versus material job type distinction within the job design domain, as a robustness check, it is important to account for additional job design variables that might differ between experiential and material jobs and could complement, or replace, involvement of the self with the good and perceived positive impact in explaining the effect on job meaningfulness and job-related happiness. First, research in the consumer domain has documented that experiential (vs. material) goods cultivate more customer happiness because they are more often consumed in the company of others—experiences foster greater social interactions (Caprariello &

Reis, 2013). Thus, we examined the potential mediating role of a job's social characteristics—that is, the degree to which there is the opportunity for positive socializing. Additionally, we also examined the possible greater creativity and autonomy that could come from being involved in jobs that have stronger experiential (vs. material) characteristics. As for social characteristics, we looked at creativity and autonomy's potential mediating role in the job type → job meaningfulness relationship. Using 7-point scales, anchored "*Strongly Disagree*" to "*Strongly Agree*", we assessed these three job design factors: social characteristics (5-items—e.g., "I have the opportunity to develop close relationships with customers"; α = .90; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006); creativity (7-items—e.g., "My job allows me to demonstrate originality at my work"; α = .92; Carmeli & Schaubroeck, 2007), and autonomy (3-items—e.g., "The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work"; α = .93; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). As reported below, when the mediation analysis included the two hypothesized pathways plus these three potential alternative mediators, results replicated the ones we documented in Study 1 reported in the manuscript, indicating that only the pathways via involvement of the self with the good and via perceived positive impact on others transmitted the effect.

Outcome variable: Involvement of the self with the good

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.30, *SE* = 0.06, $t(206) = 4.94$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = [0.18, 0.41])

Outcome variable: Perceived positive impact

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.14, *SE* = 0.05, $t(206) = 3.16$, $p = .002$, 95% CI = [0.05, 0.23])

Outcome variable: Social characteristics

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.15, *SE* = 0.06, $t(206) = 2.42$, $p = .02$, 95% CI = [0.03, 0.27])

Outcome variable: Autonomy

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.06, *SE* = 0.06, *t*(206) = 1.00, *p* = .32, 95% CI = [-0.06, 0.18])

Outcome variable: Creativity

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.02, *SE* = 0.06, *t*(206) = 0.40, *p* = .69, 95% CI = [-0.09, 0.14])

Outcome variable: Job meaningfulness

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.05, *SE* = 0.04, *t*(201) = 1.49, *p* = .14, 95% CI = [-0.02, 0.13])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.42, *SE* = 0.50, *t*(201) = 8.37, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.32, 0.52])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.21, *SE* = 0.06, *t*(201) = 3.20, *p* = .002, 95% CI = [0.08, 0.33])

Social characteristics (β = 0.05, *SE* = 0.04, *t*(201) = 1.25, *p* = .21, 95% CI = [-0.03, 0.14])

Autonomy (β = 0.12, *SE* = 0.06, *t*(201) = 2.01, *p* = .05, 95% CI = [0.003, 0.23])

Creativity (β = 0.28, *SE* = 0.06, *t*(201) = 4.90, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.17, 0.39])

Outcome variable: Job-related happiness

Experiential versus material job type (β = -0.01, *SE* = 0.04, *t*(200) = -0.18, *p* = .86, 95% CI = [-0.09, 0.08])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.03, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(200) = 0.46, *p* = .64, 95% CI = [-0.10, 0.16])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.19, *SE* = 0.08, *t*(200) = 2.45, *p* = .02, 95% CI = [0.04, 0.34])

Social characteristics (β = 0.06, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(200) = 1.11, *p* = .27, 95% CI = [-0.04, 0.15])

Autonomy (β = 0.17, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(200) = 2.49, *p* = .01, 95% CI = [0.04, 0.31])

Creativity (β = 0.11, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(200) = 1.59, *p* = .11, 95% CI = [-0.03, 0.25])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.42, *SE* = 0.08, *t*(200) = 5.13, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.26, 0.58])

Indirect effects

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.01, *SE* = 0.03, 95% CI = [-0.04, 0.07])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.03, *SE* = 0.02, 95% CI = [0.002, 0.07])

Social characteristics (β = 0.01, *SE* = 0.01, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.04])

Autonomy (β = 0.01, *SE* = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.02, 0.05])

Creativity (β = 0.003, *SE* = 0.01, 95% CI = [-0.02, 0.03])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.02, *SE* = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.06])

Involvement of the self with the good → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.05, *SE* = 0.02, 95% CI = [0.02, 0.10])

Perceived positive impact → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.01, *SE* = 0.01, 95% CI = [0.001, 0.03])

Social characteristics → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.003, *SE* = 0.004, 95% CI = [-0.003, 0.01])

Autonomy → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.003, *SE* = 0.005, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.02])

Creativity → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.003, *SE* = 0.008, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.02])

Study 2—Mental Framing Intervention of Experiential versus Material Job Type with Sales Employees

Conceptual Consistency of the Job Type Distinction (i.e., Manipulation Check)

The analysis extracted two factors (Eigenvalue > 1; all loadings > .80), which together accounted for 83.44% of the variance. The three items measuring the experiential dimension of the job loaded on one factor and the two items measuring its material dimension loaded on the other factor. No cross loading was observed (all cross loading values < .15). We note that establishing the extraction to a single item yielded factors with loadings > .72. However, to confirm the success of the framing manipulation, we conducted two additional analyses. Both tests yielded the expected results. Specifically, the analysis including the three experiential items (which on the EFA loaded together on one factor) showed a significantly higher score for experiential (M = 4.75, SD = 1.53) than for material condition participants (M = 3.90, SD = 1.89, $t(307) = 4.35$, $p < .001$, mean difference = 0.85, 95% CI = [0.46, 1.23], Cohen's d = 0.49); and the analysis including the two material items (which on the EFA loaded together on another factor) showed a significantly higher score for material (M = 2.66, SD = 1.80) than for experiential condition participants (M = 1.93, SD = 1.21, $t(307) = 4.12$, $p < .001$, mean difference = 0.72, 95% CI = [0.17, 1.07], Cohen's d = 0.47). Together, these results help confirm that the framing manipulation had the intended effect.

Appropriateness of Experiential versus Material Job Type Distinction

Participants reported an overall positive perception of the appropriateness of the experiential versus material job type distinction (M = 5.65, SD = 1.08), a value that is significantly above the scale's neutral value of 4, with an acceptably large effect size ($t(308) = 26.79$, $p < .001$, Cohen's d = 3.07).

Measurement Model Fit

Results from a CFA (AMOS) confirmed the adequacy of our four-factor measurement model comprised by the dependent variable and the three predicted mediators: χ^2 (145) = 256.19, $p < .001$,

CMIN/DF = 1.76, RMSEA = .05, NNFI = .98, and CFI = .98; and its superiority over a three-factor model that, as in Study 1, combined the items measuring involvement of the self with the good and those measuring job meaningfulness: χ^2 (123) = 332.10, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF = 2.70, RMSEA = .07, NNFI = .95, and CFI = .97. These indices indicate that our measures appropriately captured the four conceptually independent constructs.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Results showed that all criteria for both validities were met.

Table E2

Statistics for Convergent and Discriminant Validity—Study 2.

Construct	Reliability	AVE	MSV	ASV	SQRT of AVE
Involvement with the Good	0.97	0.79	0.72	0.61	0.89
Perceived Positive Impact	0.96	0.78	0.77	0.68	0.88
Job Meaningfulness	0.94	0.83	0.77	0.76	0.92
Job-Related Happiness	0.93	0.80	0.77	0.67	0.90

Test of Mediation—Reporting of All Paths

This section documents the results for all links of the two-step sequential mediation analysis reported in the manuscript text.

Outcome variable: Involvement of the self with the good

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.41, *SE* = 0.15, *t*(306) = 2.58, *p* = .01, 95% CI = [0.09, 0.72])

Outcome variable: Perceived positive impact

Experiential versus material job type (β= 0.35, *SE* = 0.11, *t*(306) = 3.03, *p* = .002, 95% CI = [0.12, 0.59])

Outcome variable: Job meaningfulness

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.002, *SE* = 0.09, *t*(304) = 0.02, *p* = .97, 95% CI = [-0.18, 0.19])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.43, *SE* = 0.04, *t*(304) = 10.76, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.35, 0.51])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.59, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(304) = 10.95, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.48, 0.70])

Outcome variable: Job-related happiness

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.11, *SE* = 0.08, *t*(303) = 1.37, *p* = .17, 95% CI = [-0.05, 0.28])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.07, *SE* = 0.04, *t*(303) = 1.70, *p* = .08, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.15])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.37, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(303) = 6.38, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.25, 0.48])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.48, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(303) = 9.43, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.38, 0.59])

Indirect effects

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.03, *SE* = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.007, 0.08])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.13, *SE* = 0.05, 95% CI = [0.04, 0.24])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.001, *SE* = 0.04, 95% CI = [-0.08, 0.09])

Involvement of the self with the good → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.08, *SE* = 0.04, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.18])

Perceived positive impact → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.10, *SE* = 0.03, 95% CI = [0.03, 0.18])

Study 3—Selling Behaviors & Mental Framing of Job Type

Conceptual Consistency of the Experiential versus Material Job Type Distinction (i.e., Manipulation Check)

The analysis extracted two factors (Eigenvalue > 1; all loadings > .82), which together accounted for 81.77% of the variance. The three items measuring the experiential dimension of the job loaded on one factor and the two items measuring its material dimension loaded on the other factor. No cross loading was observed (all cross loading values < .12). We note that establishing the extraction to a single item yielded factors with loadings > .69. However, we conducted two additional analyses to confirm the success of the framing manipulation. Both tests yielded the expected results. Specifically, the analysis including the three experiential items (which on the EFA loaded together on one factor) showed a significantly higher value for experiential (M = 5.08, SD = 1.26) than for material condition participants (M = 3.42, SD = 1.82, $t(201) = 7.60$, $p < .001$, mean difference = 1.66, 95% CI = [1.23, 2.09], Cohen's d = 1.06); and the analysis including the two material items (which on the EFA loaded together on another factor) showed a significantly higher value for material (M = 6.15, SD = 1.14) than for experiential condition participants (M = 5.19, SD = 1.63, $t(201) = 4.83$, $p = .001$, mean difference = 0.96, 95% CI = [0.57, 1.36], Cohen's d = 0.68). Together, these results help confirm that the framing manipulation had the intended effect.

Appropriateness of the Experiential versus Material Job Type Distinction

Participants reported an overall positive perception of the appropriateness of the experiential versus material job type distinction (M = 5.29, SD = 1.37), a value that is significantly greater than the scale's neutral value of 4, with a large effect size ($t(202) = 13.39$, $p < .001$, Cohen's d = 1.88).

Measurement Model Fit

A CFA (AMOS) confirmed the adequacy of the four-factor measurement model comprised by the dependent variable and the three predicted mediators: $\chi^2(137) = 203.23$, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF =

1.48, RMSEA = .05, NNFI = .98, and CFI = .99; and its superiority over a three-factor model that, as in Studies 1 and 2, combined the items measuring involvement of the self with the good and those measuring job meaningfulness: $\chi^2(132) = 280.35$, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF = 2.12, RMSEA = .08, NNFI = .96, and CFI = .98. These indices indicate that our measures appropriately captured the four conceptually independent constructs.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Results showed that all criteria for both validities were met.

TableE3

Statistics for Convergent and Discriminant Validity—Study 3.

Construct	Reliability	AVE	MSV	ASV	SQRT of AVE
Involvement with the Good	0.98	0.85	0.66	0.57	0.92
Perceived Positive Impact	0.96	0.81	0.81	0.68	0.89
Job Meaningfulness	0.95	0.87	0.76	0.71	0.93
Job-Related Happiness	0.94	0.84	0.81	0.70	0.91

ANCOVA Accounting for Social Desirability

In this analysis, experiential versus material job type was entered as the independent variable, job-related happiness as the dependent variable, and social desirability as control variable. Results showed that the effect of experiential versus material job type on job-related happiness remained statistically significant when social desirability was accounted for.

Experiential versus material job type: $M_{exp} = 4.51$, $SD = 1.67$ vs. $M_{mat} = 3.88$, $SD = 1.95$, $F(1, 200) = 4.34$, $p = .03$, Cohen's $d = 0.34$

Social desirability: $F(1, 200) = 8.83$, $p = .003$

Additional Analyses on Social Desirability

Results showed a significant difference in social desirability between the experiential versus material job type conditions ($M_{exp} = 4.55$, $SD = 0.87$ vs. $M_{mat} = 4.30$, $SD = 0.85$, $t(201) = 2.07$, $p = .03$, mean

difference = 0.25, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.49], Cohen's d = 0.29). Further, there was a significant correlation between social desirability and job-related happiness in the experiential condition (r = .31, p = .001) but not in the material condition (r = .11, p = .29). We note that social desirability concerns in the experiential versus material literature are normally linked to materialism and the stigmas associated with it (Caprariello & Reis, 2013; Carter & Gilovich, 2012; Van Boven, Campbell, & Gilovich, 2010; Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003). Because there is no evidence from the material condition that social desirability associated with participants' reporting on job-related happiness, these findings (together with those of Replication Studies 1 and 2 presented in Web Appendix H, and Replication Study 3 presented in Web Appendix I) reduce concerns that social desirability could have influenced the observed results.

Test of Mediation—Reporting of All Paths

This section documents the results for all links of the two-step sequential mediation analysis reported in the manuscript text.

Outcome variable: Involvement of the self with the good

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.48, SE = 0.24, t(201) = 2.01, p = .04, 95% CI = [0.009, 0.95])

Outcome variable: Perceived positive impact

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.47, SE = 0.22, t(201) = 2.13, p = .03, 95% CI = [0.03, 0.91])

Outcome variable: Job meaningfulness

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.10, SE = 0.13, t(199) = 0.75 , p = .44, 95% CI = [-0.16, 0.36])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.47, SE = 0.05, t(199) = 8.86, p < .001, 95% CI = [0.36, 0.57])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.59, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(199) = 10.28, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.48, 0.70])

Outcome variable: Job-related happiness

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.10, *SE* = 0.11, *t*(198) = 0.88, *p* = .37, 95% CI = [-0.12, 0.34])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.13, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(198) = 2.31, *p* = .02, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.24])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.61, *SE* = 0.06, *t*(198) = 9.64 *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.49, 0.74])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.28, *SE* = 0.06, *t*(198) = 4.51, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.16, 0.40])

Indirect effects

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.06, *SE* = 0.04, 95% CI = [-0.004, 0.17])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.29, *SE* = 0.14, 95% CI = [0.02, 0.57])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.02, *SE* = 0.03, 95% CI = [-0.04, 0.10])

Involvement of the self with the good → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.06, *SE* = 0.03, 95% CI = [0.001, 0.15])

Perceived positive impact → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.08, *SE* = 0.05, 95% CI = [0.005, 0.20])

Study 4—Manipulation of Negative Outcome Valence

Conceptual Consistency of the Experiential versus Material Job Type Distinction (i.e., Manipulation Check)

The analysis extracted one factor (Eigenvalue > 1; all loadings > .86), which accounted for 78.90% of the variance.

Appropriateness of Experiential versus Material Job Type Distinction

Participants reported an overall positive perception of the appropriateness of the experiential versus material job type distinction (M = 4.60, SD = 1.31), a value that is significantly greater than the scale's neutral value of 4, with a large effect size ($t(383) = 9.04$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 0.92$).

Measurement Model Fit

Results from a CFA (AMOS) confirmed the adequacy of our four-factor measurement model comprised by the dependent variable and the three predicted mediators: $\chi^2(146) = 281.04$, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF = 1.92, RMSEA = .05, NNFI = .98, and CFI = .99; and its superiority over a three-factor model that, as in Studies 1-3, combined the items measuring involvement of the self with the good and the those measuring job meaningfulness: $\chi^2(129) = 395.78$, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF = 3.06, RMSEA = .07, NNFI = .96, and CFI = .98. These indices confirm that our measures appropriately captured the four conceptually independent constructs.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Results showed that all criteria for both validities were met.

Table E4

Statistics for Convergent and Discriminant Validity—Study 4.

Construct	Reliability	AVE	MSV	ASV	SQRT of AVE
Involvement with the Good	0.97	0.86	0.59	0.42	0.93
Perceived Positive Impact	0.96	0.80	0.69	0.51	0.89
Job Meaningfulness	0.95	0.87	0.66	0.60	0.93
Job-Related Happiness	0.94	0.86	0.69	0.58	0.93

Test of Mediation—Reporting of All Paths

This section documents the results for all links of the two-step sequential mediation analysis reported in the manuscript for the negative valence and control conditions.

Negative Valence Condition

Outcome variable: Involvement of the self with the good

Experiential versus material job type (β = 1.07, *SE* = 0.25, *t*(194) = 4.20, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.57, 1.58])

Outcome variable: Perceived positive impact

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.41, *SE* = 0.22, *t*(194) = 1.82, *p* = .06, 95% CI = [-0.03, 0.87])

Outcome variable: Job meaningfulness

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.23, *SE* = 0.16, *t*(192) = 1.41, *p* = .15, 95% CI = [-0.09, 0.55])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.45, *SE* = 0.04, *t*(192) = 9.66, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.36, 0.54])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.51, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(192) = 9.82, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.41, 0.62])

Outcome variable: Job-related happiness

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.19, *SE* = 0.15, *t*(191) = 1.32, *p* = .18, 95% CI = [-0.09, 0.49])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.05, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(191) = 1.03, *p* = .30, 95% CI = [-0.04, 0.15])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.50, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(191) = 8.56, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.39. 0.62])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.28, *SE* = 0.06, *t*(191) = 4.38, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.15, 0.41])

Indirect effects

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.05, *SE* = 0.05, 95% CI = [-0.04, 0.18])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.21, *SE* = 0.12, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.48])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.06, *SE* = 0.05, 95% CI = [-0.02, 0.19])

Involvement of the self with the good → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.14, *SE* = 0.06, 95% CI = [0.04, 0.29])

Perceived positive impact → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.06, *SE* = 0.03, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.15])

Control Condition

Outcome variable: Involvement of the self with the good

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.59, *SE* = 0.26, $t(186) = 2.26$, $p = .02$, 95% CI = [0.07, 1.10])

Outcome variable: Perceived positive impact

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.69, *SE* = 0.17, $t(186) = 4.06$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = [0.35, 1.02])

Outcome variable: Job meaningfulness

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.26, *SE* = 0.13, $t(184) = 2.02$, $p = .04$, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.52])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.49, *SE* = 0.04, $t(184) = 10.69$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = [0.40, 0.58])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.60, *SE* = 0.07, $t(184) = 8.58$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = [0.46, 0.74])

Outcome variable: Job-related happiness

Experiential versus material job type (β = -0.04, *SE* = 0.14, $t(183) = -0.29$, $p = .76$, 95% CI = [-0.33, 0.24])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.15, *SE* = 0.06, $t(183) = 2.40$, $p = .01$, 95% CI = [0.02 0.28])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.25, *SE* = 0.09, *t*(183) = 2.81, *p* = .005, 95% CI = [0.07, 0.44])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.49, *SE* = 0.08, *t*(183) = 6.05, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.33, 0.65])

Indirect effects

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.09, *SE* = 0.08, 95% CI = [-0.04, 0.27])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.17, *SE* = 0.07, 95% CI = [0.04, 0.33])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.13, *SE* = 0.07, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.28])

Involvement of the self with the good → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.14, *SE* = 0.09, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.37])

Perceived positive impact → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.20, *SE* = 0.07, 95% CI = [0.08, 0.37])

Web Appendix F

Additional Statistics (Studies 1-4)

This Web Appendix reports summary statistics showing the overall mean values for each variable and their inter-correlations. Further, it reports mean and standard deviation values of the outcome variables by job type (experiential versus material).

Study 1

Table F1

Summary Statistics Data—Study 1.

				Correlations				
Labels	Variables	*M*	*SD*	X	M1	M2	M3	Y
X	Job Type (Experiential vs. Material)	4.33	1.78	--				
M1	Involvement with the Good	5.02	1.62	.33	(.97)			
M2	Perceived Positive Impact	5.36	1.20	.22	.52	(.91)		
M3	Job Meaningfulness	4.90	1.56	.26	.73	.58	(.93)	
Y	Job-Related Happiness	4.82	1.56	.17	.56	.54	.72	(.88)

Note. $N = 208$. Job type (X) was coded as a continuous variable with higher values associated with experiential (vs. material) jobs. Involvement of the self with the good consists of the average of eight 7-point items. Perceived positive impact consists of the average of six 7-point items. Job meaningfulness consists of the average of three 7-point items. Job-related happiness consists of the average of three 7-point items. Reliability values on the diagonal.

Study 2

Table F2

Means and Standard Deviations of Outcome Variables by Job Type (Experiential vs. Material)—Study 2.

	Experiential Job		Material Job	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Involvement of the Self with the Good **	5.79	1.30	5.37	1.47
Perceived Positive Impact **	5.92	1.01	5.57	1.05
Job Meaningfulness **	5.73	1.24	5.35	1.46
Job-Related Happiness ***	5.67	1.20	5.29	1.34

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table F3

Summary Statistics Data—Study 2.

				Correlations				
Labels	Variables	*M*	*SD*	X	M1	M2	M3	Y
X	Job Type	0.52	0.50	--				
M1	Involvement with the Good	5.59	1.40	.14	(.96)			
M2	Perceived Positive Impact	5.75	1.04	.16	.56	(.92)		
M3	Job Meaningfulness	5.55	1.36	.14	.75	.71	(.92)	
Y	Job-Related Happiness	5.53	1.29	.18	.61	.71	.78	(.90)

Note. $N = 309$. Job type (X) was coded as 1 = Experiential ($n = 160$), 0 = Material ($n = 149$). Involvement of the self with the good consists of the average of eight 7-point items. Perceived positive impact consists of the average of six 7-point items. Job meaningfulness consists of the average of three 7-point items. Job-related happiness consists of the average of three 7-point items. Reliability values on the diagonal.

Study 3

Table F4

Means and Standard Deviations of Outcome Variables by Job Type (Experiential vs. Material)—Study 3.

	Experiential Job		Material Job	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Involvement of the Self with the Good *	5.00	1.62	4.52	1.79
Perceived Positive Impact *	4.75	1.50	4.27	1.65
Job Meaningfulness *	4.54	1.73	3.93	1.99
Job-Related Happiness *	4.51	1.67	3.88	1.95

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table F5

Summary Statistics Data—Study 3.

				Correlations				
Labels	Variables	*M*	*SD*	X	M1	M2	M3	Y
X	Job Type	0.52	0.50	--				
M1	Involvement with Good	4.77	1.72	.14	(.98)			
M2	Perceived Positive Impact	4.52	1.59	.14	.69	(.96)		
M3	Job Meaningfulness	4.25	1.88	.16	.78	.81	(.95)	
Y	Job-Related Happiness	4.21	1.83	.17	.73	.86	.82	(.94)

Note. $N = 203$. Job type (X) was coded as 1 = Experiential ($n = 106$), 0 = Material ($n = 97$). Involvement of the self with the good consists of the average of eight 7-point items. Perceived positive impact consists of the average of six 7-point items. Job meaningfulness consists of the average of three 7-point items. Job-related happiness consists of the average of three 7-point items. Reliability values on the diagonal.

Study 4

Table F6

Means and Standard Deviations of Outcome Variables by Job Type (Experiential vs. Material)—Study 4.

	Experiential Job		Material Job	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Involvement with the Good—Negative Condition	4.38	1.72	3.30	1.85
Involvement with the Good—Control Condition	4.79	1.72	4.20	1.86
Perceived Positive Impact—Negative Condition	3.21	1.71	2.79	1.49
Perceived Positive Impact—Control Condition	5.30	1.01	4.61	1.29
Job Meaningfulness—Negative Condition	3.86	1.80	2.92	1.68
Job Meaningfulness—Control Condition	4.95	1.54	3.97	1.80
Job-Related Happiness—Negative Condition	2.92	1.82	2.18	1.36
Job-Related Happiness—Control Condition	4.71	1.58	4.01	1.63

Table F7

Summary Statistics Data—Study 4.

Labels	Variables	*M*	*SD*	Correlations				
				X	M1	M2	M3	Y
X	Job Type	0.49	0.50	--				
M1	Involvement with Good	4.15	1.87	.22	(.97)			
M2	Perceived Positive Impact	3.96	1.73	.17	.50	(.96)		
M3	Job Meaningfulness	3.91	1.85	.26	.74	.71	(.95)	
Y	Job-Related Happiness	3.43	1.87	.20	.60	.79	.77	(.94)

Note. N = 384. Job type (X) was coded as 1 = Experiential, 0 = Material. Participants were randomly distributed by condition as following: experiential-negative (n = 95), and material-negative (n = 101), experiential-control (n = 95), material-control (n = 93). Involvement of the self with the good consists of the average of eight 7-point items. Perceived positive impact consists of the average of six 7-point items. Job meaningfulness consists of the average of three 7-point items. Job-related happiness consists of the average of three 7-point items. Reliability values on the diagonal.

Web Appendix G

List of Jobs, Companies, and Industries and Job Type Subjective Classification for Study 1 and List of Goods Sold by Salespeople in Study 2

This Web Appendix contains information about the jobs held by participants in Study 1 and the goods sold by participants in Study 2. For Study 1, it also shows those participants' subjective perceptions of their jobs along the experiential versus material job type dimension, and a trained coder's perception of those jobs as classified on the 11 industries forming the Standard Industrial Classification List (http://siccode.com/en/siccode/list/directory)*. The list is sorted by participant's perceptions of their jobs. For Study 2, the table lists the goods that participants included in their description of their jobs (24% of the descriptions did not mention the good directly and are not included on the list).

Study 1 - Job Position	Type of Good Offered/Sold	Industry Classification Based on SIC*	Participant's Perceptions (1 = Very material; 7 = Very experiential)
Engineer	Naval ship components	4	1.0
Sales associate	Retail	7	1.0
Sales	Mattresses	7	1.0
Editor	Printing services for the general public	4	1.0
Produce associate	Groceries	7	1.0
Die cast operator	Battery terminals and sinkers	4	1.0
Office manager	Software	9	1.0
Secretary/sales	Cars	7	1.0
Sales management	Body care products	7	1.2

Owner	Hand crocheted and knit gifts for children and adults	7	1.2
Managing owner	Used goods	7	1.2
IT	Legal	9	1.2
Supervisor	Liquor	7	1.2
Editor	Medical information	9	1.4
Salesman	Bulbs	7	1.4
Customer service specialist	Sports decals and apparel	7	1.4
Supervisor	Phones	7	1.6
Sales rep	Custom clothing	7	1.6
Sales associate	Clothing and accessories	7	1.6
Cashier	Groceries	7	1.6
Freelancer	Editing	9	1.6
Technician	Warning systems	4	1.6
Sales and marketing	Jewelry	7	1.6
Transcriptionist	Transcription services	9	1.6
Sales sanager	Car sales	7	1.8
Sales associate	Home furnishings	7	1.8
Shop keeper	Products such as coffee cups, t-shirts, etc. with my design on them.	7	1.8
Engineer	Design and manufacturing Services	9	1.8
Program manager	Film, cameras, print equipment, etc.	7	2.0
Server	Food	7	2.0
Clerks	Goods	7	2.0
Sales support representative	Metalworking	4	2.2

Quality engineer	Metal fabrication	4	2.2
Cashier	Baby supplies	7	2.2
Growth	Market research	9	2.2
Email design specialist	Publications	4	2.4
Attorney	Intellectual property services	9	2.4
Payroll clerk	Financial dealings of the town	8	2.4
Sales clerk	Books, university apparel, electronics, school supplies	7	2.4
Sales associate	Paint products	7	2.4
In store	Pizza	7	2.6
Finance/procurement manager	We service the residents of Boston	8	2.6
Optometrist	Eyewear	9	2.6
Sample analyzer	Dairy services	9	2.6
Advisor	Education	9	2.6
Technical support agent	Insurance for electronics and smartphones	9	2.8
Manager	Aircraft	4	2.8
Operations coordinator	OTC products online	7	2.8
Account manager	Insurance	8	2.8
Sales	Furniture	7	2.8
Maintenance	Chicken	1	2.8
Maintenance technician	Chicken	1	3.0
Scribe	Healthcare	9	3.0
Office manager	Professional services	9	3.0
Life guard	Pool access, recreational facility memberships	9	3.0

Fleet administrator	Vehicle maintenance and repair	9	3.0
Technical support tier3	High speed internet	9	3.0
Sorter	Scrap metal	6	3.0
Cashier, sales floor	Craft, hobby, home decor, party, seasonal supplies	7	3.2
Accelerator operator	Research facility	9	3.2
Pet groomer	Pet groomer	9	3.2
Author	Novels	4	3.2
Billing manager	Power and natural gas	2	3.2
Affiliate marketer	Do not sell	9	3.2
Broker's assistant	Luxury real estate and rentals	7	3.2
Manager	European mattresses	7	3.4
Product assurance engineer	Precision liquid handling equipment	4	3.4
Business systems analyst	Consulting and IT solutions	9	3.4
Property controller	Real estate	8	3.6
Developer	Entertainment	9	3.6
Office manager	Medical devices	4	3.6
Server	Pizza and other food	9	3.6
Cashier	Fast food	7	3.6
Assistant manager	Sell	7	3.8
Mechanical turker	A large, internet based work force for hire	9	3.8
Merchant activation	Credit card processing	9	3.8
Warehouse	Automotive parts	6	3.8
Accountant	Accounting	9	3.8

Internet consultant	Food	7	3.8
Demo person	Food	9	3.8
Budget analyst	Prosecution of federal crimes	10	4.0
Office manager	Medical care	9	4.0
Broker	Brokerage services	8	4.0
Security	Heavy equipment	9	4.0
Worker	Employee leasing, payroll processing	9	4.0
Assistant manager	Gas station	7	4.0
Client service coordinator	Veterinary services and products	1	4.0
Mail room	Mail room	9	4.0
Worker	Sub contract	9	4.0
Sales rep	Newspaper subscriptions	4	4.2
Developer	Finance	8	4.2
Assistant	Movies	9	4.2
Budget analyst	Education	8	4.2
System engineer	IT Solutions for healthcare	9	4.2
Registered Nurse	Health care	9	4.2
Sales associate	Home security	7	4.2
Medical billing specialist	Health care	9	4.2
Sales associate	Clothing	7	4.4
Project manager	Petroleum company	2	4.4
Office manager	handyman	9	4.4
Executive director	Public procurement unit	10	4.4

Customer service rep	Education	9	4.4
Administrative assistant	Education	9	4.4
Sales	Vape products	7	4.4
Owner	Quilts, longarm quilting	7	4.4
Professor	Education	9	4.4
Insurance agent	Insurance	8	4.4
Technology coordinator	Education	9	4.6
Implementations	Data analysis	9	4.6
Courier	Food	5	4.6
Cashier	Healthcare products	7	4.6
Copywriter	Consumer electronics	7	4.6
Teacher	Daycare	9	4.8
Postdoc	Research	9	4.8
Worker	Everything	7	4.8
Dental assistant	Dental services	9	4.8
Server	Hospitality	7	4.8
Engineer	Consulting services	9	4.8
Office manager	Daycare	9	5.0
Freelance journalist	Media	9	5.0
Libertarian	Public	9	5.0
Assistant professor	Education	9	5.0
Medical scribe	Healthcare	9	5.0
Carpenter	Politics	3	5.0

School counselor	Education	9	5.0
Bookkeeper	Bookkeeping	9	5.0
Supervisor	Information	9	5.0
Account manager	Examinations	9	5.0
Admin	Software	4	5.2
Food service manager in cafeteria of school	Education	10	5.2
Freelance writer	SEO content	9	5.2
Founder	Health services	9	5.2
Freelance writer/journalist	Content/copywriting services	9	5.2
Loan counselor	Student loan servicing	9	5.2
Teacher	Educational lessons	9	5.2
Data analyst	Everything	7	5.4
Legislative affairs	Scientific research	9	5.4
Construction manager	Education to students	3	5.4
Server	Food	7	5.4
Veterinarian technician	Veterinarian care, animal products, food, vaccination, surgical procedures, etc	1	5.4
Instructor	Education	9	5.4
Manager	Events	9	5.4
Travel sales	Timeshare rentals	9	5.4
Licensed sales staff	Insurance	8	5.6
Certified navigator	Non-profit organization	9	5.6
Business analyst	Retail	7	5.6
Controller	Printing	9	5.6

Owner/instructor	Martial arts instruction	9	5.8
Clinical research coordinator	Healthcare	9	5.8
Receptionist	Nursing and rehab	9	5.8
Art teacher	School	9	5.8
General manager	Pizza	7	5.8
Physical therapist	Healthcare	9	5.8
Programmer	Education	9	5.8
Legal technician I	Court services	9	5.8
Healthcare analyst	Health services	9	6.0
Togo specialist	Foodstuffs and beverages	7	6.0
Reservationist	Transport individuals to point A to B	5	6.0
Registered Nurse	Healthcare services	9	6.0
Associate professor	College education credits	9	6.0
Administrative assistant	Health services	9	6.0
Specialist	Assistance	10	6.0
Nurse	Hospital	9	6.0
Pilot	Helicopter rescue	5	6.0
Nursing	Hospital	9	6.2
Manager	Education	9	6.2
Recreation leader	Municipality	9	6.2
Central receiving/mailroom assistant	Education	9	6.2
Crew scheduler	Airline flights	5	6.2
Bartender	Food and drinks	7	6.2

Assistant manager	Food service, ice cream products	7	6.2
Administrative assistant	Healthcare	9	6.2
Software developer	Tech service to schools	9	6.2
Associate manager	First-run feature films	9	6.2
Research assistant	Research on freshwater organisms	9	6.2
Customer service	Cable, internet, phone	9	6.2
Waitress	Food, drink, alcohol, etc.	7	6.2
Teacher	Education	9	6.2
Entertainment coordinator	Nerd themed products and entertainment	7	6.4
PCA	Home health services	9	6.4
Office technician	State prison	10	6.4
ABA implementer	Services to individuals with developmental disabilities	9	6.4
Substitute teacher	Education	9	6.4
Consultant	Consulting services	9	6.4
Janitor	Cleaning services	9	6.6
Direct care	Services for individuals with ID	9	6.6
Teacher	Elementary education	9	6.6
Substitute teacher	Teaches students	9	6.6
Main homemaker	Nanny, maid, cook and overall caring services	9	6.6
Teacher	Education	10	6.8
Postal clerk	Transports the mail	5	6.8
Administrative associate	Safety	10	6.8
Customer service	Insurance	8	6.8

Nanny	Childcare services	9	6.8
Teacher	Teaches students	9	6.8
Mechanic	Travel	5	6.8
Sales manager	Insurance	8	7.0
Certified nursing assistant	Residential living for the elderly plus in & out patient rehabilitation	9	7.0
Teacher	Education	9	7.0
Teacher	Public education	9	7.0
Owner/president	Consulting services for the gaming industry	9	7.0
Musician	Music	9	7.0
Caregiver	Elderly care	9	7.0
PSR(Usher)	Art/events	9	7.0
Education specialist	Guided tours of the state's history	9	7.0
Stagehand	Event production services and equipment rental	9	7.0
Overnight supervisor	Secretarial service	9	7.0
Behavioral assistant	Treatment for mental illness	9	7.0

* The Standard Industrial Classification (http://siccode.com/en/siccode/list/directory) is comprised by the following 11 industry categories:

1. Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing

2. Mining

3. Construction

4. Manufacturing

5. Transportation & Public Utilities

6. Wholesale Trade

7. Retail Trade

8. Finance, Insurance, Real Estate

9. Services

10. Public Administration

11. Forest and Gathering of Forest Products

List of Goods Sold by Salespeople in Study 2

(Number of each participant selling each type of good in parentheses)

Goods Sold
Adult Products (1)
Advertising (1)
Amine Items (1)
Apparel Goods (1)
Arts and Crafts (4)
Baby Products (1)
Beach Accessories (1)
Beadwork (1)
Beer (1)
Birdwatching Equipment (1)
Books (3)
Business Solutions (1)
Cameras (2)
Candles (2)
Car Parts (1)
Car Rental (1)
Cars (11)
Cell Phones (9)
Chemicals (2)
Cleaning Products (2)
Clothing (17)
Clothing and Accessories (1)
Coaching Services (2)
Collectables (1)
Computer Software (1)
Computers (4)
Computers and Software (1)
Concert tickets (1)
Consumer Experiences (1)
Consumer Goods (11)
Convenience Store Goods (1)
Cosmetics (7)
CPR Training (1)
Customer Service (1)
Decoration Lights (1)
Decoration Products (1)
Dental Prosthetics (1)
DIY Products (1)

Driving Instruction (1)
Electronic Devices (7)
Electrical Installation (1)
Exercise App (1)
Exhibition Spaces (1)
Eye Glasses (1)
Fabric (1)
Fast Food (1)
Figurines (1)
Financial Advising (3)
Flowers(2)
Food (7)
Fragrances (1)
Furniture (4)
Gaming Consoles (1)
Garden Products (1)
Golf Equipment (1)
Greeting Cards (1)
Groceries (1)
Gym Membership (1)
Handbags (2)
Health Supplements (1)
Helmet (1)
Home Appliances (1)
Home Décor Items (2)
Home Improvement Products (1)
Hotel Stays (1)
Houses and Real Estate (8)
Humor Products (1)
Insurance (1)
Internet Service (1)
Jewelry (6)
Learning Experiences (1)
Liferafts (1)
Logistics (1)
Magnets (1)
Medicine (1)
Membership to Warehouse Store (1)
Miniatures (1)
Mortgage Loans (1)
Musical Instruments (1)
Outdoor Items (1)
Packaging Supplies (1)
Paint (1)

Paper products (1)
Parts and Machinery (1)
Pet Products (3)
Phones and Internet Equipment (1)
Picture Frames (1)
Plants (3)
Pokemon Miniatures (1)
Power Tools (1)
Prints (1)
Relaxation Products (1)
Safety Components for Automobiles (1)
Scent Products (1)
School Supplies (1)
School Uniforms (1)
Security Systems (1)
Shampoo and Conditioner (1)
Shoes (5)
Silverware (1)
Software (3)
Spa Services (1)
Sporting Goods & Equipment (3)
Sports and Gaming Products (1)
Sunglasses (1)
Swimming Pools (1)
Tobacco Products (1)
Threaded Fab (1)
Time Saving Products (2)
Tires (1)
Tools and Parts (1)
Toothbrushes (1)
Training Products (1)
Travel (1)
Urns (1)
Utensils (1)
Vacation Experiences (3)
Video Recorders (1)
Videogames (1)
Watches (3)
Water Equipment (1)
Website Design (1)
Wine (2)

WEB APPENDIX H

Two Replications of Study 2—Holding Job Position and Focal Good Constant

This Web Appendix documents two replications of Study 2 reported in the manuscript. These replications provide additional experimental control. That is, they hold constant the job position (as does Study 2 reported in the manuscript) as well as the focal good (BBQ grill).

Replication Study 1—Mental Framing Intervention of Experiential versus Material Job Type in a Sales Position

This study offers a conceptual replication of Study 2 reported in the manuscript. Similar to Study 2, it employs a framing manipulation designed to encourage participants to think of the job in experiential or material terms (Bastos, 2019, 2020; Bastos & Brucks, 2017; Carter & Gilovich, 2010, 2012). Differently from Study 2, this study takes a more controlled approach by keeping not only the job position—sales job—but also the good provided constant—a BBQ grill.

Procedures

One hundred and sixty-one Master's level business students from a European university (57% females, M_{age} = 23.17, SD = 1.48) participated in the study for class credit. Using a between-subjects design, the study randomly assigned participants to imagine being a store manager selling BBQ grills. These grills were presented to participants as being either an experiential or a material good. Participants in the experiential (n = 66 vs. material [n = 95]) framing condition read: "In this study, imagine that you are a manager at a store that sells BBQ grills. Grills are something people use [keep] for some time. Your goal is that, during the time they use [own] the grill, your customers like the experience of using it [like the object]. In your everyday interactions with customers, you focus on telling them about the characteristics of the experience [object] and what it is like to have that experience [object]. So, in your mind, your occupation is really about selling people experiences [material objects]." Next, participants wrote, in some detail, what they thought

the work would be like and answered the same measures of job-related happiness (α = .87), involvement of the self with the good (α = .96), perceived positive impact (α = .90), job meaningfulness (α = .92), experiential versus material job type distinction (α = .86; serving as manipulation check), and appropriateness of the job type distinction (r = .80, p < .001).

In addition, we assessed the same three potential alternative mediators as in Study 1 reported in the manuscript: social characteristics (α = .78), creativity (α = .90), and autonomy (α = .82). While none of the these three variables mediated the effect, leaving the results reported below unchanged, jobs perceived as more experiential (vs. material) were associated with greater creativity and autonomy.[14]

We also measured two additional control variables: social desirability, with the 10-item version of Marlowe and Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Reynolds, 1982; e.g., "I am always willing to admit when I make a mistake"; α = .59), and participants' expected salary ("What do you think your monthly salary at that BBQ grill store would be?"). The effect of job type on job-related happiness reported below replicated fully when social desirability and salary were accounted for.

Results

Conceptual Consistency of the Experiential versus Material Job Type Measure (i.e., Manipulation Check). The analysis extracted a single factor (Eigenvalue > 1; all loadings > .76), which accounted for 66.36% of the variance.

Appropriateness of Experiential versus Material Job Type Distinction. Participants reported an overall positive perception of the appropriateness of the experiential versus material job type distinction (M = 4.90, SD = 1.24), a value that is significantly greater than the scale's neutral value of 4, and with an acceptably large effect size (t(160) = 9.24, p < .001, Cohen's d = 1.46).

[14] See below for a mediation analysis including the two predicted pathways plus these three potential alternative mediators.

Measurement Model Fit. Results from a CFA (AMOS) confirmed the adequacy of the four-factor measurement model comprised by the dependent variable and the three predicted mediators: χ^2 (151) = 238.77, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF = 1.58, RMSEA = .06, NNFI = .97, and CFI = .97; and its superiority over a three-factor model that combined the items measuring two factors that could potentially be seen as conceptually overlapping—involvement of the self with the good and job meaningfulness: χ^2 (133) = 269.96, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF = 2.03, RMSEA = .08, NNFI = .94, and CFI = .96. These indices indicate that our measures appropriately captured the four conceptually independent constructs.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity. Results showed that all criteria for both validities were met.

Table H1

Statistics for Convergent and Discriminant Validity—Replication Study 1.

Construct	Reliability	AVE	MSV	ASV	SQRT of AVE
Involvement with the Good	0.96	0.78	0.45	0.43	0.89
Perceived Positive Impact	0.90	0.60	0.71	0.56	0.89
Job Meaningfulness	0.92	0.80	0.71	0.58	0.86
Job-Related Happiness	0.87	0.76	0.58	0.50	0.87

Manipulation check. Participants in the experiential framing condition judged the job as significantly more experiential (M = 5.16, SD = 1.35) than did participants in the material framing condition (M = 4.30, SD = 1.53, $t(159) = 3.63$, $p < .001$, mean difference = 0.85, 95% CI = [0.38, 1.31], Cohen's d = 0.59), indicating that the framing manipulation had the intended effect.

Job type (experiential vs. material) and job-related happiness. Supporting Hypothesis 1, participants reported significantly greater job-related happiness when they perceived the job selling BBQ grills as one providing customers with an experience (M = 4.48, SD = 1.47) rather than a material object (M = 3.67, SD = 1.34, $t(159) = 3.62$, $p < .001$, mean difference = 0.81, 95% CI = [0.37, 1.25], Cohen's d = 0.78).

Two-step sequential mediation. Supporting Hypothesis 2, a sequential mediation analysis (PROCESS, model 80) showed that the indirect effect of job type on job-related happiness was significant via both paths: 'involvement of the self with the good → job meaningfulness' (two-step sequential mediation: β = 0.06, *SE* = 0.04, 95% CI = [0.002, 0.16]) and 'perceived positive impact → job meaningfulness' (two-step sequential mediation: β = 0.17, *SE* = 0.06, 95% CI = [0.06, 0.33]). For a tabular reporting of all links in the mediation analysis, please see the section at the end of the study.

Additional tests: ANCOVA accounting for salary and social desirability. In this analysis, experiential versus material job type was entered as the independent variable, job-related happiness as the dependent variable, and salary and social desirability as control variables. Results showed that the effect of job type on job-related happiness remained statistically significant when the two factors were accounted for.

Experiential versus material job type: M_{exp} = 4.48, *SD* = 1.47 vs. M_{mat} = 3.67, *SD* = 1.35, $F(1, 156) = 11.85$, $p = .001$, Cohen's $d = 0.57$

Salary: $F(1, 156) = 0.72$, $p = .40$

(Additional statistics for Salary: M_{exp} = 3026.52, *SD* = 10505.67 vs. M_{mat} = 1632.48, *SD* = 2203.85, $F(1, 158) = 1.56$, $p = .21$)

Social desirability: $F(1, 156) = 0.34$, $p = .56$

Because social desirability, as measured in this research, is an individual characteristic rather than an outcome of the study manipulation, it was likely that random assignment would equally distribute this characteristic across the two job type conditions, and that attenuated the possibility that social desirability would influence the effect of experiential versus material job type in the ANCOVA above. Indeed, results showed no difference in social desirability between the experiential and the material job type conditions (M_{exp} = 4.20, *SD* = 0.71 vs. M_{mat} = 4.06, *SD* = 0.65, $t(159) =$

1.31, p = .19, mean difference = 0.14, 95% CI = [-0.07, 0.35], Cohen's d = 0.20). For a deeper examination of whether social desirability was associated with participants' reporting on job-related happiness, we examined the relationship between those two variables within each experiential (vs. material) job type condition. Should a social desirability effect exist, we would expect to observe a positive (negative) correlation in the experiential (material) condition, with special emphasis on the material condition since that is the one possibly associated with materialism stigmas (Van Boven, Campbell, and Gilovich, 2010). Results indicated no significant association between social desirability and job-related happiness in the experiential (r = .16, p = .39) or the material condition (r = .007, p = .95). These results assuage concerns that social desirability influenced the results.

Discussion

Using a mental framing procedure similar to that of Study 2 reported in the manuscript, this study offers convergent support for our predicted model. We find that participants who frame the same job in experiential rather than material terms report greater involvement of the self with the good and perceived positive impact on others, making the job more meaningful and, consequently, a greater source of job-related happiness.

By holding constant the job function and the good provided, this study neutralizes additional idiosyncrasies associated with the jobs considered in Studies 1 and 2 reported in the manuscript. Further, and adding to Study 1's evidence, this study rules out the same three potential alternative mediators (autonomy, creativity, and social characteristics). Finally, this study accounts again for expected salary and social desirability.

Whereas this study offers additional evidence for the model, the proximity of sales employees to the end users may make sales jobs uniquely, and perhaps solely, suitable for the mental framing intervention. Thus it is informative to learn whether the ability to move the mental framing of a job along the experiential-material dimension is similarly present, and has the same impact,

outside of a sales context. Such evidence would add to that from Study 2 reported in the manuscript where participants held a wide variety of jobs and were encouraged to think of them in experiential or material terms. To examine the framing intervention outside of sales, the next Replication Study 2 focused on a specific, non-sales job.

Reporting of All Paths in the Mediation Analysis of Replication Study 1

This section documents the results for all links of the two-step sequential mediation analysis for Replication Study 1 reported above.

Outcome variable: Involvement of the self with the good

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.51, *SE* = 0.24, *t*(159) = 2.14, *p* = .04, 95% CI = [0.04, 0.97])

Outcome variable: Perceived positive impact

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.62, *SE* = 0.19, *t*(159) = 3.29, *p* = .001, 95% CI = [0.25, 1.00])

Outcome variable: Job meaningfulness

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.75, *SE* = 0.14, *t*(157) = 5.40, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.47. 1.02])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.28, *SE* = 0.06, *t*(157) = 5.05, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.17, 0.40])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.61, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(157) = 8.60, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.47, 0.75])

Outcome variable: Job-related happiness

Experiential versus material job type (β = -0.003, *SE* = 0.17, *t*(156) = -0.02, *p* = .99, 95% CI = [-0.35, 0.34])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.21, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(156) = 2.94, *p* = .004, 95% CI = [0.07, 0.34])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.19, *SE* = 0.10, *t*(156) = 1.87, *p* = .06, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.38])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.47, *SE* = 0.09, *t*(156) = 5.13, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.29, 0.65])

Indirect effects

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.10, *SE* = 0.07, 95% CI = [0.003, 0.26])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.11, *SE* = 0.07, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.28])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.35, *SE* = 0.09, 95% CI = [0.18, 0.54])

Involvement of the self with the good → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.07, *SE* = 0.04, 95% CI = [0.003, 0.17])

Perceived positive impact → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.18, *SE* = 0.07, 95% CI = [0.06, 0.33])

Mediation Analyses Including Three Potential Alternative Mediators—Social Characteristics, Autonomy, and Creativity

Results showed that when the five variables (involvement of the self with the good, perceived positive impact, social characteristics, autonomy, and creativity) were entered as potential step 1 mediators in the two-step sequential mediation analysis (PROCESS, model 80), only the two predicted pathways were significant, via 'involvement of the self with the good → job meaningfulness' and 'perceived positive impact → job meaningfulness'.

Outcome variable: Involvement of the self with the good

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.51, *SE* = 0.24, *t*(159) = 2.14, *p* = .03, 95% CI = [0.04, 0.97])

Outcome variable: Perceived positive impact

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.62, *SE* = 0.19, *t*(159) = 3.29, *p* = .001, 95% CI = [0.25, 0.99])

Outcome variable: Social characteristics

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.11, *SE* = 0.15, *t*(159) = 0.76, *p* = .45, 95% CI = [-0.18, 0.41])

Outcome variable: Autonomy

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.59, *SE* = 0.20, *t*(159) = 2.96, *p* = .004, 95% CI = [0.20, 0.98])

Outcome variable: Creativity

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.63, *SE* = 0.20, *t*(159) = 3.14, *p* = .002, 95% CI = [0.23, 1.03])

Outcome variable: Job meaningfulness

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.68, *SE* = 0.14, *t*(154) = 5.00, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.41, 0.94])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.25, *SE* = 0.06, *t*(154) = 4.53, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.14, 0.36])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.52, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(154) = 7.17, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.38, 0.66])

Social characteristics (β = 0.12, *SE* = 0.08, *t*(154) = 1.63, *p* = .11, 95% CI = [-0.03, 0.27])

Autonomy (β = 0.12, *SE* = 0.06, *t*(154) = 1.86, *p* = .06, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.24])

Creativity (β = 0.10, *SE* = 0.06, *t*(154) = 1.66, *p* = .10, 95% CI = [-0.02, 0.22])

Outcome variable: Job-related happiness

Experiential versus material job type (β = -0.03, *SE* = 0.17, *t*(153) = -0.18, *p* = .86, 95% CI = [-0.38, 0.31])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.19, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(153) = 2.73, *p* = .01, 95% CI = [0.05, 0.33])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.18, *SE* = 0.10, *t*(153) = 1.83, *p* = .07, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.38])

Social characteristics (β = -0.03, *SE* = 0.09, *t*(153) = -0.30, *p* = .77, 95% CI = [-0.21, 0.15])

Autonomy (β = 0.004, *SE* = 0.08, *t*(153) = 0.06, *p* = .96, 95% CI = [-0.14, 0.15])

Creativity (β = 0.15, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(153) = 2.08, *p* = .04, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.30])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.42, *SE* = 0.10, *t*(153) = 4.40, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.23, 0.62])

Indirect effects

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.10, *SE* = 0.06, 95% CI = [0.001, 0.24])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.11, *SE* = 0.07, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.28])

Social characteristics (β = -0.003, *SE* = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.04, 0.03])

Autonomy (β = 0.002, *SE* = 0.05, 95% CI = [-0.08, 0.11])

Creativity (β = 0.10, *SE* = 0.06, 95% CI = [0.002, 0.22])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.29, *SE* = 0.08, 95% CI = [0.14, 0.46])

Involvement of the self with the good → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.05, *SE* = 0.04, 95% CI = [0.002, 0.14])

Perceived positive impact → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.14, *SE* = 0.06, 95% CI = [0.04, 0.26])

Social characteristics → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.01, *SE* = 0.01, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.03])

Autonomy → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.03, *SE* = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.08])

Creativity → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.03, *SE* = 0.02, 95% CI = [-0.01, 0.09])

Additional Statistics

Table H2

Means and Standard Deviations of Outcome Variables by Job Type (Experiential vs. Material)—Replication Study 1.

	Experiential Job		Material Job	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Involvement with the Good*	4.54	1.62	4.03	1.37

Perceived Positive Impact **	4.62	1.14	4.00	1.20
Job Meaningfulness***	4.81	1.34	3.54	1.30
Job-Related Happiness***	4.48	1.47	3.67	1.35

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table H3

Summary Statistics Data—Replication Study 1.

				Correlations				
Labels	Variables	*M*	*SD*	X	M1	M2	M3	Y
X	Job Type (Experiential vs. Material)	0.41	0.49	--				
M1	Involvement with Good	4.24	1.49	.17	(.96)			
M2	Perceived Positive Impact	4.25	1.21	.25	.62	(.90)		
M3	Job Meaningfulness	4.06	1.46	.43	.65	.75	(.92)	
Y	Job-Related Happiness	4.00	1.45	.28	.62	.64	.73	(.87)

Note. $N = 161$. Job type (X) was coded as 1 = Experiential ($n = 66$), 0 = Material ($n = 95$). Involvement of the self with the good consists of the average of eight 7-point items. Perceived positive impact consists of the average of six 7-point items. Job meaningfulness consists of the average of three 7-point items. Job-related happiness consists of the average of three 7-point items. Reliability values on the diagonal.

Replication Study 2—Mental Framing Intervention of Experiential versus Material Job Type in a Product Designer Position

Using the same mental framing paradigm, this study re-tests the predicted model in a non-sales job context that, importantly, unfolds farther from the end customer: a product designer working in a corporate office.

Procedures

One hundred and seventy-six U.S. and Canadian MTurk participants (59% females, M_{age} = 42.13, SD = 13.62) completed the study for financial compensation. Using a between-subjects design, the study asked all participants to "please imagine that you work at the corporate office of a firm that produces BBQ grills. You work designing and creating the BBQ grills." Similar to Web Appendix H—Replication Study 1, these grills were presented to participants as being either an experiential or a material good. Participants in the experiential (n = 87 vs. material [n = 89]) framing condition read: "Grills are something people use [keep] for some time. Your goal is that, during the time they use [own] the grill, your customers like the experience of using it [like the object]. In your everyday work, you focus on the details of the BBQ experience [object] that those people will have. You are often thinking about the different parts of that experience [object]. So, in your mind, your occupation is really about offering people experiences [material objects]."

Next, participants wrote what they thought the work would be like and answered the same measures of job-related happiness (α = .93), involvement of the self with the good (α = .97), perceived positive impact on others (α = .96), job meaningfulness (α = .94), experiential versus material job type distinction (α = .78; serving as manipulation check), and appropriateness of the job type distinction (r = .80, p < .001). Further, the study measured and accounted for four additional relevant variables that could potentially influence the results. Specifically, participants reported on seven factors (four of which were not examined in Study 1 reported in the manuscript or Replication

Study 1): social desirability (same 10-item measure; $\alpha = .74$), expected salary ("What do you think your monthly salary would be?"), prestige ("This is a prestigious job"), possibility of irreparable errors in the job ("It is possible to make irreparable errors in this job"), surface acting ("This job would require me to pretend displaying certain emotions that I actually didn't feel"; "This job would often require me to put on an act in order to appear appropriate"; $r = .80$, $p < .001$; adapted from Grandey [2003]), opportunity for career advancement ("I see opportunities for career advancement in that job"), and required level of formal education ("This type of job requires a substantial amount of formal education"). Except for the salary question, all others were measured on 7-point Likert scales (1 = *Strongly disagree;* 7 = *Strongly agree*). The effect of experiential (vs. material) job type on job-related happiness reported below replicated fully when these seven factors were accounted for.

Results

Conceptual Consistency of the Job Type Measure (i.e., Manipulation Check). The analysis extracted two factors (Eigenvalue > 1; all loadings > .78), which together accounted for 79.53% of the variance. The three items measuring the experiential dimension of the job loaded on one factor and the two items measuring its material dimension loaded on the other factor. No cross loading was observed (all cross loading values < .10). We note that establishing the extraction to a single item yielded factors with loadings > .72. However, we conducted two additional analyses to confirm the success of the framing manipulation. Both tests yielded the expected results. Specifically, the analysis including the three experiential items (which on the EFA loaded together on one factor) showed a significantly higher score for experiential ($M = 6.88$, $SD = 1.71$) than for material condition participants ($M = 5.01$, $SD = 1.96$, $t(174) = 6.74$, $p < .001$, mean difference = 1.87, 95% CI = [1.32, 2.42], Cohen's $d = 1.02$); and the analysis including the two material items (which on the EFA loaded together on another factor) showed a significantly higher score for material ($M = 6.38$, $SD = 1.04$) than for experiential condition participants ($M = 5.30$, $SD = 1.43$,

$t(174) = 5.69$, $p < .001$, mean difference = 1.08, 95% CI = [0.70, 1.45], Cohen's $d = 0.86$). Together, these results help confirm that the framing manipulation had the intended effect.

Appropriateness of Experiential versus Material Job Type Distinction. Participants reported an overall positive perception of the appropriateness of the experiential versus material job type distinction ($M = 5.21$, $SD = 1.39$), a value that is significantly greater than the scale's neutral value of 4, with a large effect size ($t(175) = 11.61$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 1.75$).

Measurement Model Fit. Results from a CFA (AMOS) confirmed the adequacy of our four-factor measurement model comprised by the dependent variable and the three predicted mediators: χ^2 (150) = 260.66, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF = 1.73, RMSEA = .07, NNFI = .97, and CFI = .98; and its superiority over a three-factor model that combined the items measuring involvement of the self with the good and those measuring job meaningfulness: χ^2 (132) = 252.07, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF = 1.91, RMSEA = .07, NNFI = .96, and CFI = .97. These indices indicate that our measures appropriately captured the four conceptually independent constructs.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity. Results showed that all criteria for both validities were met.

Table H4

Statistics for Convergent and Discriminant Validity—Replication Study 2.

Construct	Reliability	AVE	MSV	ASV	SQRT of AVE
Involvement with the Good	0.97	0.79	0.72	0.61	0.89
Perceived Positive Impact	0.96	0.78	0.77	0.68	0.88
Job Meaningfulness	0.94	0.83	0.77	0.76	0.92
Job-Related Happiness	0.93	0.80	0.77	0.67	0.90

Manipulation check. Participants in the experiential framing condition judged the job as significantly more experiential ($M = 5.21$, $SD = 1.30$) than did participants in the material framing condition ($M = 3.65$, $SD = 1.37$, $t(174) = 7.70$, $p < .001$, mean difference = 1.56, 95% CI = [1.15, 1.96], Cohen's $d = 1.16$).

Job type (experiential vs. material) and job-related happiness. Supporting Hypothesis 1, participants in the experiential (vs. material) framing condition reported significantly greater job-related happiness (M_{exp} = 5.52, SD = 1.30 vs. M_{mat} = 4.98, SD = 1.36, $t(174) = 2.69$, $p = .008$, mean difference = 0.54, 95% CI = [0.14, 0.94], Cohen's $d = 0.40$).

Two-step sequential mediation. Supporting Hypothesis 2, a sequential mediation analysis (PROCESS, model 80) indicated that the indirect effect of job type on job-related happiness was significant via both paths: 'involvement of the self with the good → job meaningfulness' (two-step sequential mediation: β = 0.16, SE = 0.06, 95% CI = [0.05, 0.31]) and 'perceived positive impact → job meaningfulness' (two-step sequential mediation: β = 0.16, SE = 0.07, 95% CI = [0.04, 0.33]). Please see the end of the study for the reporting of all links in this mediation analysis.

Additional analyses: ANCOVA accounting for seven factors. In this analysis, experiential versus material job type was entered as the independent variable, job-related happiness as the dependent variable, and the seven factors as control variables. Results showed that the effect of job type on job-related happiness remained statistically significant when the seven factors were accounted for.

Experiential versus material job type: M_{exp} = 5.52, SD = 1.30 vs. M_{mat} = 4.98, SD = 1.36, $F(1, 167) = 7.63$, $p = .006$, Cohen's $d = 0.40$

Salary: $F(1, 167) = 0.18$, $p = .67$

(Additional statistics for salary: M_{exp} = 18204.98, SD = 29752.68 vs. M_{mat} = 12740.45, SD = 21316.08, $F(1, 174) = 1.96$, $p = .16$)

Error: $F(1, 167) = 0.02$, $p = .90$

(Additional statistics for error: M_{exp} = 4.60, SD = 1.49 vs. M_{mat} = 4.57, SD = 1.58, $F(1, 174) = 0.01$, $p = .91$)

Prestige: $F(1, 167) = 7.53$, $p = .007$

(Additional statistics for prestige: M_{exp} = 4.44, SD = 1.66 vs. M_{mat} = 4.03, SD = 1.47, $F(1, 174)$ = 2.90, p = .09)

Career advancement: $F(1, 167) = 17.30$, $p < .001$

(Additional statistics for career advancement: M_{exp} = 4.67, SD = 1.49 vs. M_{mat} = 4.52, SD = 1.43, $F(1, 174) = 0.46$, p = .49)

Formal education: $F(1, 167) = 0.76$, p = .39

(Additional statistics for formal education: M_{exp} = 4.54, SD = 1.62 vs. M_{mat} = 4.17, SD = 1.61, $F(1, 174) = 2.31$, p = .13)

Surface acting: $F(1, 167) = 6.39$, p = .01

(Additional statistics for surface acting: M_{exp} = 3.93, SD = 1.65 vs. M_{mat} = 3.16, SD = 1.57, $F(1, 174)$ = 9.81, p = .002)

Social desirability: $F(1, 167) = 1.01$, p = .31

Additional analyses regarding social desirability. As in Replication Study 1 reported in this Web Appendix H, results showed no significant difference in social desirability between the two job type conditions (M_{exp} = 4.48, SD = 1.03 vs. M_{mat} = 4.31, SD = 0.80, $t(174) = -1.24$, p = .21, mean difference = 0.17, 95% CI = [-0.45, 0.10], Cohen's d = 0.18). Further, there was no significant association between social desirability and job-related happiness in the experiential (r = .16, p = .13) or the material job type condition (r = -.05, p = .64). These results indicate that social desirability is unlikely to have influenced the results.

Discussion

Using the mental framing procedure in a non-sales, corporate-level job, this study offers additional support for our model. Participants who framed the job of designing and creating BBQ grills in experiential rather than material terms reported greater involvement of the self with the grill and greater perceived positive impact on others, making the job more meaningful and, consequently,

a greater source of job-related happiness. This study complements Studies 2 and 3 reported in the manuscript and the Replication Study 1 by showing the functionality of the framing intervention beyond sales jobs.

Reporting of All Paths in the Mediation Analysis of Replication Study 2

This section documents the results for all links of the two-step sequential mediation analysis of Replication Study 2.

Outcome variable: Involvement of the self with the good

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.60, *SE* = 0.19, *t*(174) = 3.14, *p* < .01, 95% CI = [0.22, 0.97])

Outcome variable: Perceived positive impact

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.52, *SE* = 0.18, *t*(174) = 2.90, *p* < .01, 95% CI = [0.17, 0.88])

Outcome variable: Job meaningfulness

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.24, *SE* = 0.08, *t*(172) = 2.70, *p* < .01, 95% CI = [0.07, 0.42])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.45, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(172) = 9.13, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.35, 0.54])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.51, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(172) = 9.94, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.41, 0.61])

Outcome variable: Job-related happiness

Experiential versus material job type (β = -0.12, *SE* = 0.12, *t*(171) = -0.96, *p* = .34, 95% CI = [-0.35, 0.12])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.05, *SE* = 0.08, *t*(171) = 0.59, *p* = .56, 95% CI = [-0.11, 0.20])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.28, *SE* = 0.09, *t*(171) = 3.24, *p* < .01, 95% CI = [0.11, 0.44])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.63, *SE* = 0.10, *t*(171) = 6.24, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.43, 0.83])

Indirect effects

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.03, *SE* = 0.06, 95% CI = [-0.08, 0.16])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.14, *SE* = 0.07, 95% CI = [0.02, 0.29])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.15, *SE* = 0.06, 95% CI = [0.04, 0.28])

Involvement of the self with the good → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.17, *SE* = 0.06, 95% CI = [0.06, 0.31])

Perceived positive impact → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.17, *SE* = 0.07, 95% CI = [0.05, 0.33])

Additional Statistics

Table H5

Means and Standard Deviations of Outcome Variables by Job Type (Experiential vs. Material)—Replication Study 2.

	Experiential Job		Material Job	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Involvement of the Self with the Good **	5.83	1.12	5.24	1.38
Perceived Positive Impact **	5.67	1.08	5.14	1.30
Job Meaningfulness ***	5.79	1.08	5.02	1.35
Job-Related Happiness **	5.52	1.30	4.98	1.37

* *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, *** *p* < .001.

Table H6

Summary Statistics Data—Replication Study 2.

				Correlations				
Labels	Variables	*M*	*SD*	X	M1	M2	M3	Y
X	Job Type (Experiential vs. Material)	0.49	0.50	--				
M1	Involvement with the Good	5.53	1.29	.23	(.97)			
M2	Perceived Positive Impact	5.39	1.22	.21	.72	(.96)		
M3	Job Meaningfulness	5.40	1.28	.30	.82	.83	(.94)	
Y	Job-Related Happiness	5.24	1.36	.20	.70	.76	.82	(.93)

Note. N = 176. Job type (X) was coded as 1 = Experiential (n = 87), 0 = Material (n = 89). Involvement of the self with the good consists of the average of eight 7-point items. Perceived positive impact consists of the average of six 7-point items. Job meaningfulness consists of the average of three 7-point items. Job-related happiness consists of the average of three 7-point items. Reliability values on the diagonal.

WEB APPENDIX I

A Replication of Study 3—Selling Behaviors & Mental Framing of Job Type

This study provides a direct replication of Study 3 reported in the manuscript. However, different from Study 3, the present study involved participants in a longer interaction with the customer. All results replicate fully.

Procedures

Two hundred and five U.S. and Canadian MTurk participants (55% females, M_{age} = 37.19, *SD* = 13.37) completed the study for financial compensation. The online questionnaire first informed all participants that, "In this study we are interested in learning about how sellers and buyers interact, and in testing an online chat platform. These days, these interactions often happen online where an employee of a firm speaks with a customer via a chat platform. In this study you will play the role of the employee who works for 'The 3D Company', a firm that sells 3D TVs." Participants were informed that they would be connected with another person who would be taking the role of the customer and that they would be interacting through a chat platform. For realism sake, during the interaction, there were timed pauses between answers—as if the customer were writing his/her responses—, and a typing error included in his/her responses—as to represent typographical errors common in this form of conversation.

Participants were randomly assigned to the experiential (*n* = 98) or the material framing condition (*n* = 107). To manipulate framing, participants were encouraged to think of the 3D TV as either an experiential or a material good. However, different from those studies, participants were not asked to write about the job. Instead, they enacted the job through their actual selling behaviors in the computer-mediated interaction with the customer.

After establishing the chat connection and having a brief personal introduction with the potential customer, participants received a message from the customer requesting information about

3D TVs. Before writing their reply, participants in the experiential [material] framing condition read instructions designed to focus their communication on the experiential [material] aspects of the 3D TV: "Important: It has been found that sales are more successful if the salesperson focuses on what the customer will get out of the experience of using the product [focuses on specific product features and provides really good descriptions of the object itself]. So, throughout this interaction, please make sure you focus on the characteristics of that TV experience [TV object]. Describe to the other person what you think that experience [object] is like." After typing and sending their message to the potential customers, and still reinforcing the framing manipulation, participants received and responded to another pre-programed question from the customer focusing on either the experiential or the material aspects of the 3D TV.

Following the end of the interaction, participants completed measures of job-related happiness ($\alpha = .95$), involvement of the self with the good ($\alpha = .98$), perceived positive impact on others ($\alpha = .94$), and job meaningfulness ($\alpha = .96$). Participants then answered the same manipulation check measure of the experiential versus material job type distinction ($\alpha = .81$), reported their perception of the appropriateness of this distinction ($r = .58$, $p < .001$), answered the same measure of social desirability, which we account for in our analysis ($\alpha = .72$).

Results

Conceptual Consistency of the Experiential versus Material Job Type Measure (i.e., Manipulation Check). The analysis extracted two factors (Eigenvalue > 1; all loadings > .79), which together accounted for 83.32% of the variance. The three items measuring the experiential dimension of the job loaded on one factor and the two items measuring its material dimension loaded on the other factor. No cross loading was observed (all cross loading values < .15). We note that establishing the extraction to a single item yielded factors with loadings > .65. However, we conducted two additional analyses to confirm the success of the framing manipulation. Both tests

yielded the expected results. Specifically, the analysis including the three experiential items (which on the EFA loaded together on one factor) showed a significantly higher score for experiential (M = 4.48, SD = 1.60) than for material condition participants (M = 3.26, SD = 1.62, $t(203) = 5.42$, $p < .001$, mean difference = 1.22, 95% CI = [0.77, 1.66], Cohen's d = 0.75); and the analysis including the two material items (which on the EFA loaded together on another factor) showed a significantly higher score for material (M = 6.21, SD = 1.21) than for experiential condition participants (M = 5.62, SD = 1.34, $t(203) = 3.30$, $p = .001$, mean difference = 0.59, 95% CI = [0.23, 0.94], Cohen's d = 0.46). Together, these results help confirm that the framing manipulation had the intended effect.

Appropriateness of the Experiential versus Material Job Type Distinction. Participants reported an overall positive perception of the appropriateness of the experiential versus material job type distinction (M = 5.22, SD = 1.11), a value that is significantly greater than the scale's neutral value of 4, with a large effect size ($t(204) = 15.72$, $p < .001$, Cohen's d = 2.20).

Measurement Model Fit. A CFA (AMOS) confirmed the adequacy of the four-factor measurement model comprised by the dependent variable and the three predicted mediators: $\chi^2(152) = 246.66$, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF = 1.62, RMSEA = .05, NNFI = .98, and CFI = .98; and its superiority over a three-factor model that combined the items measuring involvement of the self with the good and those measuring job meaningfulness: $\chi^2(143) = 284.17$, $p < .001$, CMIN/DF = 2.12, RMSEA = .07, NNFI = .96, and CFI = .98. These indices indicate that our measures appropriately captured the four conceptually independent constructs.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity. Results showed that all criteria for both validities were met.

Table I1

Statistics for Convergent and Discriminant Validity—Replication Study 3.

Construct	Reliability	AVE	MSV	ASV	SQRT of AVE
Involvement with the Good	0.98	0.87	0.67	0.58	0.93
Perceived Positive Impact	0.94	0.72	0.71	0.65	0.85
Job Meaningfulness	0.96	0.89	0.69	0.68	0.95
Job-Related Happiness	0.95	0.87	0.71	0.64	0.93

Manipulation check. Participants in the experiential framing condition perceived the job as significantly more experiential (M = 3.64, SD = 1.21) than did participants in the material framing condition (M = 2.66, SD = 1.23, $t(203) = 5.68$, $p < .001$, mean difference = 0.97, 95% CI = [0.63, 1.31], Cohen's d = 0.80).

Job type (experiential vs. material) and job-related happiness. Supporting Hypothesis 1, participants who perceived themselves as selling the experiential aspects of the 3D TV reported significantly greater job-related happiness (M = 4.40, SD = 1.63) than did those who perceived themselves as selling the material aspects of the TV (M = 3.59, SD = 1.82, $t(203) = 3.36$, $p = .001$, mean difference = 0.81, 95% CI = [0.33, 1.29], Cohen's d = 0.46).

Two-step sequential mediation. A sequential mediation analysis (PROCESS, model 80) showed that the indirect effect of job type on job-related happiness was significant via both paths: 'involvement of the self with the good → job meaningfulness' (two-step sequential mediation: β = 0.12, SE = 0.06, 95% CI = [0.02, 0.25]) and 'perceived positive impact → job meaningfulness' (two-step sequential mediation: β = 0.11, SE = 0.05, 95% CI = [0.02, 0.23]), supporting Hypothesis 2. For a tabular reporting of all links in the mediation analysis, please see the section at the end of the study.

Additional analysis: ANCOVA accounting for social desirability. In this analysis, experiential versus material job type was entered as the independent variable, job-related happiness

as the dependent variable, and social desirability as the control variable. Results showed that the effect of experiential versus material job type on job-related happiness remained statistically significant when social desirability was accounted for.

Experiential versus material job type: M_{exp} = 4.40, SD = 1.63 vs. M_{mat} = 3.59, SD = 1.82, $F(1, 202) = 11.17$, $p = .001$, Cohen's $d = 0.47$

Social desirability: $F(1, 202) = 5.17$, $p = .02$

Additional analyses regarding social desirability. Results showed a non-significant difference in social desirability between the experiential versus material job type conditions (M_{exp} = 4.40, SD = 0.90 vs. M_{mat} = 4.36, SD = 0.88, $t(203) = 0.33$, $p = .73$, mean difference = 0.04, 95% CI = [-0.20, 0.28], Cohen's $d = 0.05$). Further, there was only a marginal correlation in the experiential condition ($r = .18$, $p = .07$) and a non-significant correlation in the material condition ($r = .13$, $p = .16$). These results suggest that social desirability is unlikely to have influenced the results.

Discussion

This study replicates Study 3 reported in the manuscript. Perceiving that they were providing an experience versus an object to customers led participants to be happier in the job—an effect stemming from differences in their involvement of the self with the good and perceived positive impact on customers, each of which contributed to job meaningfulness.

Test of Mediation—Reporting of All Paths

This section documents the results for all links of the two-step sequential mediation analysis reported above.

Outcome variable: Involvement of the self with the good

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.58, *SE* = 0.24, *t*(203) = 2.45, *p* = .02, 95% CI = [0.11, 1.05])

Outcome variable: Perceived positive impact

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.53, *SE* = 0.19, *t*(203) = 2.82, *p* < .01, 95% CI = [0.16, 0.90])

Outcome variable: Job meaningfulness

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.22, *SE* = 0.13, *t*(201) = 1.69, *p* = .09, 95% CI = [-0.04, 0.48])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.53, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(201) = 10.06, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.43, 0.64])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.54, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(201) = 8.02, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.41, 0.67])

Outcome variable: Job-related happiness

Experiential versus material job type (β = 0.17, *SE* = 0.14, *t*(200) = 1.17, *p* = .24, 95% CI = [-0.11, 0.44])

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.08, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(200) = 1.16, *p* = .25, 95% CI = [-0.06, 0.22])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.52, *SE* = 0.08, *t*(200) = 6.34, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.36, 0.68])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.41, *SE* = 0.08, *t*(200) = 5.37, *p* < .001, 95% CI = [0.26, 0.56])

Indirect effects

Involvement of the self with the good (β = 0.05, *SE* = 0.05, 95% CI = [-0.04, 0.17])

Perceived positive impact (β = 0.28, *SE* = 0.10, 95% CI = [0.08, 0.50])

Job meaningfulness (β = 0.09, *SE* = 0.06, 95% CI = [-0.02, 0.22])

Involvement of the self with the good → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.13, *SE* = 0.06, 95% CI = [0.02, 0.26])

Perceived positive impact → Job meaningfulness (β = 0.12, *SE* = 0.05, 95% CI = [0.03, 0.24])

Additional Statistics

Table I2

Means and Standard Deviations of Outcome Variables by Job Type (Experiential vs. Material)—Replication Study 3.

	Experiential Job		Material Job	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Involvement of the Self with the Good *	4.96	1.60	4.38	1.78
Perceived Positive Impact **	4.91	1.28	4.38	1.40
Job Meaningfulness **	4.57	1.62	3.76	1.86
Job-Related Happiness **	4.41	1.64	3.59	1.82

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table I3

Summary Statistics Data—Replication Study 3.

				Correlations				
Labels	Variables	*M*	*SD*	X	M1	M2	M3	Y
X	Job Type	0.48	0.50	--				
M1	Involvement with the Good	4.65	1.71	.17	(.98)			
M2	Perceived Positive Impact	4.63	1.36	.19	.71	(.94)		
M3	Job Meaningfulness	4.15	1.79	.23	.81	.78	(.96)	
Y	Job-Related Happiness	3.98	1.77	.23	.70	.78	.79	(.95)

Note. $N = 205$. Job type (X) was coded as 1 = Experiential ($n = 98$), 0 = Material ($n = 107$). Involvement of the self with the good consists of the average of eight 7-point items. Perceived positive impact consists of the average of six 7-point items. Job meaningfulness consists of the average of three 7-point items. Job-related happiness consists of the average of three 7-point items. Reliability values on the diagonal.

WEB APPENDIX J

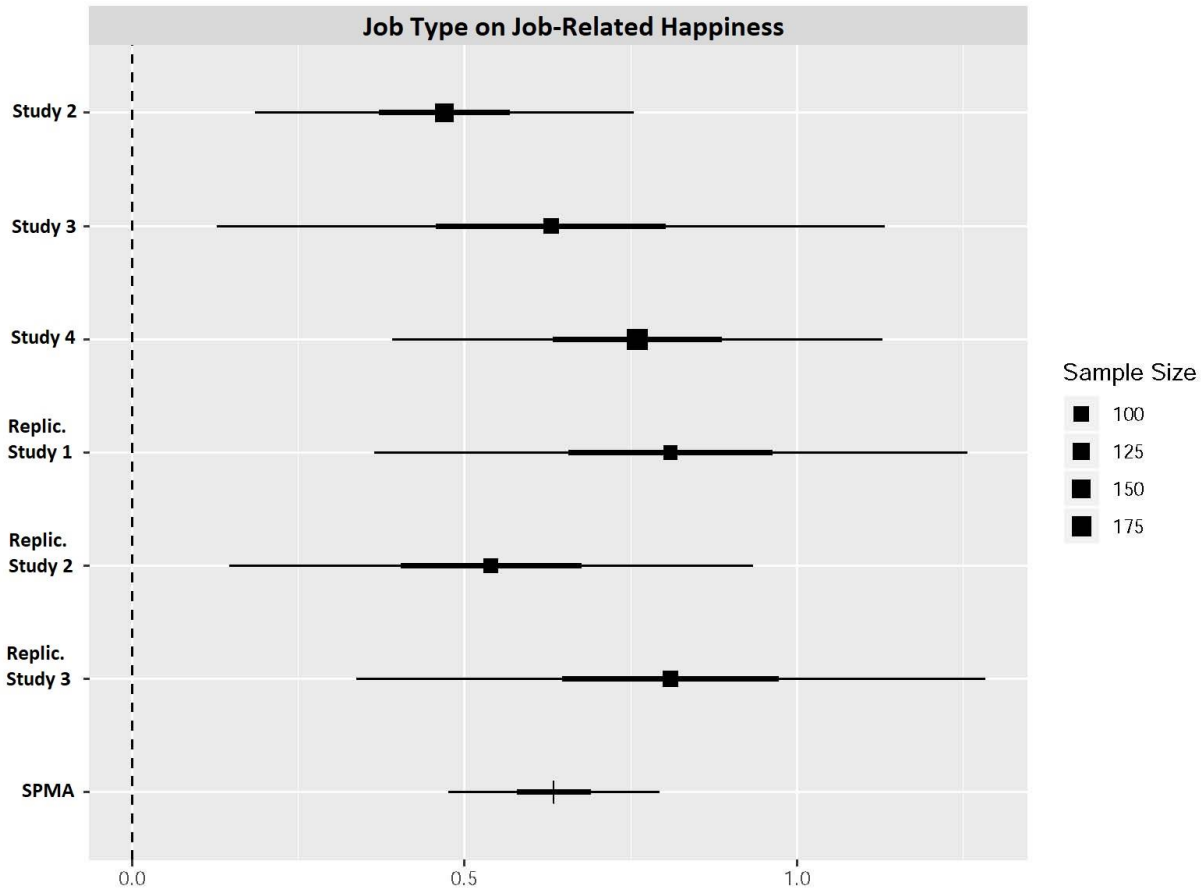
Single-Paper Meta-Analysis

We conducted a single-paper meta-analysis (SPMA; McShane & Böckenholt, 2017) across our data to provide a synthesized view of the effect of experiential versus material job type on job-related happiness as captured by the evidence we obtained in Studies 2–4* reported in the manuscript and Replication Studies 1-3 reported in Web Appendices H and I.

Across these six studies, we found that jobs perceived as experiential led to greater job-related happiness than did jobs perceived as material. An SPMA of these data estimated the effect at .63 (95% CI = [0.47, 0.79]), indicating that employees whose jobs were perceived as primarily providing experiences versus material objects derived greater happiness from their jobs. I^2 was estimated at 97.61% (95% CI = [96.79, 98.23]), suggesting that heterogeneity is high, with method factors accounting for a moderate variation in the observed effect beyond that attributable to the experimental treatment. This is expected given that the studies employed different manipulation procedures among considerably distinct sample populations (McShane & Böckenholt, 2017). The visual convergence of effects demonstrated in Figure J1 is particularly encouraging, as it indicates the robustness and generalizability of the findings.

FIGURE J1

META-ANALYSIS RESULTS FOR STUDIES 2-4 REPORTED IN THE PAPER, AND REPLICATION STUDIES 1-3 REPORTED IN WEB APPENDICES H AND I



SPM Tool Used for This Analysis: https://blakemcshane.shinyapps.io/spmeta/ (McShane & Böckenholt, 2017)

* McShane and Böckenholt's (2017) SPM tool does not accommodate continuous independent variables, thus the data from Study 1 could not be included. Because outcome valence did not moderate the effect of experiential versus material job type in Study 4, the SPMA considered the overall statistics for the experiential and material conditions across both outcome valence conditions in that study.

Statistics from the Six Studies Used in the SPMA.

Job Type	Experiential			Material		
Study	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Study 2	5.76	1.20	160	5.29	1.34	149
Study 3	4.51	1.67	106	3.88	1.95	97
Study 4	3.82	1.92	190	3.06	1.75	194
Replication Study 1	4.48	1.47	66	3.67	1.34	95
Replication Study 2	5.52	1.30	87	4.98	1.36	89
Replication Study 3	4.40	1.63	98	3.59	1.82	107

Additional Reference in Web Appendix

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