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EXPLORING THE DETERMINANTS OF ENTITLEMENT MENTALITY AMONG GENERATION Y IN TWO TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN JOHANNESBURG, SOUTH AFRICA

BY

EMMANUEL NKOMO

Thesis presented for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Business Science, Human Resources Management) in the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg

SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR CHRIS CALLAGHAN

JUNE, 2017

DECLARATION

I, **Emmanuel Nkomo**, hereby declare that this dissertation is my own work. The dissertation will be submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in the field of Management at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. I declare that the dissertation has not been submitted before for the award of any degree or examination at this or any other University**.**

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I recognise that it was my responsibility to conduct this research in an ethical manner and according to guidelines of the University of the Witwatersrand, and according to any laws or legal frameworks that may apply, as well as according to the norms and expectations of the Management discipline.

Signature _____

Date _____

June, 2017

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ABSTRACT

For the past two years, South Africa has been gripped by a spate of demonstrations by university students demanding free university education. These demonstrations have been violent, and mediation efforts have not succeeded in yielding long-term results. According to the theory of rising expectations, in an economy that is improving and where the people are not oppressed, their expectations often outstrip the pace of actual change (Gale, 2008). When there is a mismatch between what people expect and what they actually get, theory suggests that rising expectations lead to civil unrest as demands for improvement continue to grow. It is the contention of this thesis that the theory of rising expectations is associated with the behaviour of the university students as they make demands for free education, better employment opportunities and more accountability from the government. Also associated with the behaviour of these university students in South Africa is generational cohort theory, which predicts that certain significant national and global events have a long-lasting impact on value systems of individual groups and social orders resulting in the formation of new generational cohorts (Smolla & Sutton, 2002). These individuals then share enduring distinctive sets of values, beliefs, and behaviours (Strauss & Howe, 2000). Furthermore, research suggests that Generation Y are materialistic, which is the value individuals place on possessions (Belk, 1985), have a high entitlement mentality, and their work values are mostly extrinsic. Entitlement has been defined as a "pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others" (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004, p. 31). In the absence of literature that relates to the potential influence of the theory of rising expectations and generational cohort theory on the behaviour of Generation Y in South Africa, this research seeks to: (i) investigate whether Generation Y are indeed materialistic and entitled; (ii) investigate the potential influence of demographic factors on work centrality, work values, materialism, and an entitlement mentality; (iii) investigate the potential influence of work centrality, work values, and materialism on an entitlement mentality; and (iv) investigate the mediating effect of materialism on the relationship between demographic factors, work values, work centrality, and an entitlement mentality in the context of a private college and a public university in South Africa.

This research employed a two-stage approach. The first stage, a quantitative study, applied a descriptive approach to validate and justify the research findings that link Generation Y with materialism and entitlement mentality. Entitlement mentality was measured using two dimensions: exploitative and non-exploitative entitlement. Based on a literature review, a model was then developed and tested in the second stage of the study using Structural Equation Modelling.

Findings from Stage Two suggested that Generation Y are materialistic and highly entitled, but that their entitlement is non-exploitative. Men were found to be more materialistic than women, but women were found to be more entitled than men. However, both genders were found to have low levels of exploitative entitlement, albeit with men showing slightly higher levels of exploitative entitlement. Gender and age were also significantly associated with materialism and entitlement. However, gender and age were found not to be significantly associated with work centrality. Work centrality was found to be significantly associated with entitlement mentality. Work values, on the other hand, were found not to be significantly associated with entitlement mentality, but were significantly associated with materialism. Materialism was found to be significantly associated with entitlement mentality.

On the basis of all of these results, it was concluded that the theory of rising expectations and generational cohort theory might be responsible for the entitlement mentality and materialism, which literature often associates with Generation Y. The results also suggested that for organisations to attract and retain Generation Y employees, managers need to pay attention to extrinsic aspects of the job, such as pay.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY, THE RESEARCH PROBLEM, AND THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

For a long time, social analysts have associated rising expectations with political instability. According to Gale (2008), the term *revolution of rising expectations* was popular during the 1950s to describe the hope of the poorest countries for a better future in the wake of post-war decolonialisation. The theory behind the revolution of rising expectations is that in an economy that is improving and where the people are not oppressed, their expectations often outstrip the pace of actual change. When there is a mismatch between what people expect and what they actually get, rising expectations lead to civil unrest as demands for improvement continue to grow (McElroy, 2015). Writing earlier in the nineteenth century, Alexis de Tocqueville suggested that the revolution of rising expectations explained why the centres of the French Revolution were in regions where standards of living were higher (Gale, 2008). South Africa is relatively well developed when compared to other countries in Africa and developing countries elsewhere. Recently however, South Africa has witnessed a lot of protests, which have mostly taken place at the local government level, and most notably by university students. To some degree, these protests have coincided with the new party called the Economic Freedom Fighters (the EFF) entering politics; this party is made up generally of young people, and since their entry into politics, parliament has not been the same. The EFF have, for example, interrupted the president during parliamentary sessions, staged walkouts, and continuously called for parliament to impeach the president instead of letting the sessions continue as normal (Hawkins, 2016).

The theory/revolution of rising expectations may be able to explain the social and political developments taking place in South Africa, and in this thesis, the reasons why this theory explains the above-mentioned developments will be unpacked. According to Carroll and Buchholtz (2015), rising expectations arise from the belief that each succeeding generation ought to have a standard of living that is higher than that of its predecessor. Davies (1969) illustrated his 'J-curve hypothesis,' which is a model showing relationships between rising expectations and civil unrests. His proposition was that revolution is likely when a down-turn in the economy occurs after long periods of rising expectations, accompanied by a parallel increase in people's satisfaction. When people's expectations continue to rise but their needs are not met, a gap is created between expectations and reality. That gap eventually becomes the spark that ignites a rebellion against a social system that has failed to fulfil the general population's expectations (Gale, 2008).

Gale (2008) argued that the idea that unfulfilled expectations can create unstable social and political unrest is closely related to the concept of relative deprivation, which is seen as an explanation for civil unrest. Relative deprivation is the perceived discrepancy in what people think that they should achieve and what they do achieve. As people's standards of living increase, they are less likely to tolerate corrupt and inefficient governments (Gale, 2008). Relative deprivation is closely linked to a concept that, of late, has been associated with young people: the entitlement mentality. Entitlement has been known to exist for at least several generations. For example, the term 'Me Decade' described the 1970s in the United States of America (USA), while the 1980s were referred to as the 'Greed Decade' and the 1990s were referred to as the 'New Gilded Age (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, & Bushman, 2004 p.30). There is a popular perception that entitlement and materialism have dramatically increased in society (Campbell *et al*., 2004). Research suggests that Generation Y is more entitled than other generations (e.g., Alexander & Sysko, 2012; Twenge, 2006).

This study therefore aims firstly to discover whether young people indeed have a high entitlement mentality and materialistic values. This study will then look into the determinants of materialism and entitlement among the youth in South Africa. In order to do so, this study links the theory of rising expectations with generational cohort theory. Despite their implications for work settings, there is relatively little research that has examined entitlement mentality and materialism together from a management perspective. The significance of a study focusing on entitlement mentality is particularly salient as many managers and researchers have expressed frustration with what they perceive as a workers with increasingly high expectations for salary, job flexibility and duties but little willingness to put in a lot more effort or remain loyal to a company (Fist, 2010).

Although no agreement has been reached on the concept of generational differences, many studies have acknowledged that differences between generations do exist (e.g., Shaw & Fairhurst, 2008; Smolla & Sutton, 2002). The long-standing controversy in literature on whether differences in generations are caused by cohort differences or career stages has not been yet been resolved. Generational cohort theory suggests that times shape people's behaviour, which in turn shapes economic development (Beaven, 2014). If this is indeed true, then South Africa may have serious problems dealing with a large group of dissatisfied youth. According to generational cohort theory, certain significant national and global events have a long-lasting impact on the value systems of individual groups and social orders, which results in the formation of new generational cohorts (Smolla & Sutton, 2002).

Generational cohort theory suggests that some social, political, and economic events result in a generation that shares enduring, distinctive sets of values, beliefs, and behaviours (Strauss & Howe, 2000). It was Karl Mannheim who proposed in 1952 that individuals who share adjacent birth cohorts could be labelled a 'generation' if, during their formative years, these individuals experienced a large-scale social and economic change that led to the development of a shared understanding of their cohorts' 'common destiny' (Smola & Sutton, 2002). Closely related to the above argument is the belief that a group's characteristics affect the way that they relate to their environment, their relationships, work ethic, and vocational behaviour, (Cates, 2010; Glass, 2007; Kupperschmidt, 2000).

Some researchers believe that the differences that appear to exist across generations are caused by age-related differences. These differences are thought to be based on the individual's career stage. According to Super, Thompson, and Lindeman's (1988) theory of career development, which was later supported by Savickas (2002), there are four stages through which individuals move during the development of their careers. The first stage is known as the exploration stage, in which individuals are concerned with identifying their interests and aligning their knowledge with their career choice; changes in career choices are common at this stage. The second stage is the establishment stage, where individuals are more focused on building the career that they have chosen. The third stage is known as the maintenance stage, which occurs during mid-life, with individuals striving to hold on to the careers that they have chosen; career changes are rare at this stage. The final stage is the disengagement stage, which sees a decline in an individual's interest in their career (Savickas, 2002; Super *et al.*, 1988).

Given that there is literature that supports both the generational cohort theory and the theory of career development, it is not the intention of this study to support one or the other theory. However, there is lack of knowledge as to which theory predicts relationships between employee attitudes and vocational behaviour. Both theories acknowledge that differences among generations exist, but there is lack of knowledge regarding possible consequences arising from these different predictions. Researchers have suggested that members of Generation Y are materialistic, have a high entitlement mentality, and that their work values are mostly extrinsic (e.g., Smola & Sutton, 2002; Twenge, 2009). Given that material objects are obtained through money, and work is the common means by which money can be obtained, this study aims to explore whether Generation Y have high work centrality, (the generalised importance of work in one's life).

In addition to developing and testing theory that relates rising expectations to materialism and an entitlement mentality, this study therefore also seeks to investigate the potential of work centrality and work values in influencing younger workers' behaviour in the workplace. Grounded in literature, a model was developed for this study, and hypotheses were derived and tested quantitatively.

There is some agreement that Generation Y differs from previous generations in terms of their work-related characteristics (Shaw & Fairhurst, 2008). Lindquist (2008) asserted that the policies and methods used previously to secure the best candidates from previous generations are likely to be relatively ineffective with Generation Y.

There is, however, a paucity of literature regarding the influence of rising expectations on the development of materialistic values, entitlement mentality, and work values at the individual level, both in general and in the specific context of South Africa. Also absent from the literature in general is empirical evidence of the specific contribution of (i) work centrality, (ii) work values, and (iii) the impact of material values on entitlement mentality. However, some studies elsewhere have attempted to determine which factors are associated with the following: gender and work values (e.g., Croson & Gneezy, 2009; Dirilen-Gumus & Buyuksahin-Sunal, 2012), and age and work values (e.g., Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008; Davis, Pawlowski, & Houston, 2006; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman & Lance, 2010).

Generation Y represents the workforce of the future and it is therefore necessary to understand their vocational behaviour and its antecedents. Loughlin and Barling (2001) acknowledged that although a lot of young workers have entered the workplace in recent years, it is not easy to predict the future behaviour of young workers. The present study focuses on the youngest generation (Generation Y) in the South African context because this age group makes up the single largest cohort to enter the South African labour force in recent years (Statistics South Africa, 2015). It is therefore imperative to gain a better understanding of the aspirations of this generation.

1.1.1 Research problem

Research studies have noted that entitlement mentality, materialism, and extrinsic values have increased among young workers and adolescents (e.g., Chaplin & John, 2009; Twenge *et al.*, 2010).

The research problem addressed in this research is about the lack of knowledge regarding how the above concepts are associated with work attitudes and vocational behaviour. Absent from the literature is a holistic perspective that links rising expectations to the development of an entitlement mentality and materialistic values, and the influence of these concepts on work centrality and work values. The research problem examined in this research is addressed using both a theoretical and practical approach.

To the extent that materialism and an entitlement mentality are rising among young people in South Africa (Duh, 2015) the testing of the influence of work centrality and work values on these concepts is expected to reveal certain relationships that may be common across global contexts. However, such an analysis is also expected to pick up variances that are associated with the unique societal context of the research. It is argued here that without a holistic perspective of the influence of personal factors on work-related values and the influence of these work-related values on employment expectations, a lack of knowledge on how to meet the expectations of Generation Y exists. It is further argued here that a holistic approach offers a new perspective on the relationships around employment expectations of this youngest generation, who already comprise a large proportion of the South African labour force.

According to Hayes (2014), the unemployment figures for South Africa's youth are very high; official figures show that unemployment for the youth (aged 15-34) in South Africa has gradually risen to 36 per cent. It is widely believed that unemployment amongst the youth could be as high 50 per cent (Lings 2015). Only 37 per cent of the youth labour force has a high school degree (Hayes, 2014). For the last quarter of 2013, two-thirds of all unemployed South Africans were under the age of 35 (Statistics South Africa, 2013). If indeed expectations have risen in South Africa and entitlement mentality is high among the youth, this is a ticking time-bomb ready to explode at any time (Hayes, 2014). Despite the very high unemployment rate in South Africa, there is still a severe shortage of at the national level which affects socio economic growth and development (Booysen & Nkomo 2014).

One of the challenges facing organisations today is attracting, developing, and retaining the talent of future corporate leaders (Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005). Managers are thus turning to academics for advice on appropriate strategies to motivate and retain Generation Y in the workplace (Barnes, 2009; Real, Mitnick, & Maloney, 2010). An understanding of this generation’s expectations and work attitudes will assist the current and future performance of organisations (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Huntley, 2006; Smola & Sutton, 2002).

Politicians and commentators around the world are aware of the fact that the incessant global crisis is destroying whatever hopes young people may have had regarding the future.
This has resulted in a build-up of tensions, and history has shown that the young have always been at the forefront of agitating for change (Bloom, 2012). The young are naturally optimistic, but those who are looking for employment and have not found it for a long time, often lose self-confidence and can become disillusioned and disempowered (Boom, 2012). It is therefore not surprising that young people have taken matters into their own hands and started 'revolutions' around the world, as evidenced by the recent uprisings in countries in North Africa, such as Tunisia and Egypt (Isaka & Berouk, 2011).

Some researchers regard younger generations, such as Generation X and particularly Generation Y, to be more self-centred than older generations (e.g., Sirias, Karp, & Brotherton, 2007; Twenge, Konrath, Foster, Campbell, & Bushman, 2008). However, there is still a gap in current knowledge in this area because the results of both qualitative and quantitative studies on generational differences have so far been inconclusive. It is not the intention of this study to contrast Generation Y with other generations, since this has been done to a large extent (e.g., Dries, Peperman, & De Kerpel, 2008; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002; Lyons, 2003). Instead, the purpose of this study is to extend knowledge on the understanding of Generation Y's employment expectations. In light of the shortage of skills in South Africa, qualified members of Generation Y will have some choice in selecting the organisations to work for, based on what these organisations have to offer. As employers attempt to attract and retain younger employees, it is imperative for managers to have some idea of the expectations that Generation Y can bring to the workplace (Lyons, Urick, Kuron, & Schweitzer, 2015). Research indicates that Generation Y has unique sets of values. Most of the studies on Generation Y have been carried out in developed countries, such as the USA, the United Kingdom (UK), and Australia (Smola & Sutton, 2002). This study therefore attempts to extend the literature to cover a developing country context, by using focusing on South Africa.

The above section presented a brief background and rationale of the study. The section that follows will examine in more detail the contribution of this study to the body of knowledge related to Generation Y's expectations and preferences in the workplace.

1.2 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

1.2.1 Theoretical contribution

Contemporary literature has noted emerging human resource practices in which organisations are attempting to adapt to the preferences and expectations of Generation Y (e.g., Alsop, 2008; Gloeckler, 2008). Some of the new practices include providing amenities that focus on work-life balance and recreation activities (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010). Some organisations have even tried to attract Generation Y by introducing volunteer programmes into the workplace, based on the notion that Generation Y wants to contribute to society (Needleman, 2008). Despite all these efforts, some researchers believe that these efforts are based on generalisations and exaggerations regarding young people's work values and attitudes (Oliver, 2006). Generation Y employees now make up a large segment of the South African workforce, and they continue to become influential as more of them enter the workplace (Statistics South Africa, 2015).The growing importance of this generation makes it imperative for organisations and society at large to fully understand their attributes and expectations. Media interest in the youngest generation has grown recently, as experts have attempted to unravel the characteristics of the newest cohort of workers (Oliver, 2006).

Generation Y are described as being career-focused risk-takers who are less loyal to their employers than older generations (Hays Recruitment, 2005). Advice from consultants and analysts has been that employers should not expect these young workers to be passive to authority as older generations have been (Beaton, 2005). As opposed to the workaholic mentality of their Baby Boomer parents, Generation Y workers expect a workplace that is much more flexible, so that they can balance work and life (Booth, 2005). The general consensus among researchers is that Generation Y have high expectations of pay, promotion, and advancement. Four themes are recurrent in research focusing on young people's vocational behaviour (Oliver, 2006). First, work is not that important in young people's lives (Du Bois-Reymond, 1998); instead, work-life balance features prominently in their work expectations. Second, young people's attitudes towards the structure of occupations are much more flexible (Dwyer, Harwood, & Tyler, 1999; Worth, 2003). Third, young people do not necessarily identify themselves with their work, but have other identities; for example, occupation is just one form of that identity (Dwyer & Wyn, 2001; Wyn & Dwyer, 2000). Finally, highly educated young people have very high expectations about the satisfaction that they can derive from work (Oliver, 2006).

It is with the above four themes in mind that this study seeks to explore the expectations of Generation Y in South Africa, so that managers may then engage with them in meaningful ways. While there is a well-documented body of literature identifying the outcomes associated with entitlement (e.g., Blakely, Andrews, & Moorman, 2005; Byrne, Miller, & Pitts, 2010; Restubog, Bordia, & Bordia, 2009), very little research has examined materialism, entitlement, work values, and work centrality together (e.g., Żemojtel-Piotrowska, Baran, Clinton, Piotrowski, Baltatescu, & Hiel, 2013). The current study contributes to the literature by examining these concepts and their effect on the behaviour of Generation Y. To the knowledge of the researcher, no such study has been carried out in South Africa. Most studies on materialism focus on Generation Y as consumers (e.g., Duh, 2015). By conducting this study from a social science perspective, managers can then plan strategies to attract and retain members of this generation who are quickly taking over the South African workforce.

Literature suggests that values have implications for the understanding and prediction of human behaviour (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). Work values have been found to be useful predictors of an individual's vocational behaviour (Rokeach, 1973). To date, no agreement has been reached on the difference between work values and general values. However, work values have been defined as what people want and expect from their work (Brief, 1998; Frieze, Olson, Murrell, & Selvan, 2006; Nord, Brief, Atieh, & Doherty, 1988). Work values have a significant influence on employees' work preferences and can shape employee attitudes and behaviours (Dose, 1997), as well as decisions made on the job (Judge & Bretz, 1992; Lofquist & Dawis, 1971). One popular definition of work values has been between *extrinsic* and *intrinsic values* (e,g.,Deci & Ryan, 1985; Porter & Lawler, 1968; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Extrinsic work values focus on the tangible outcomes of work, such as income, promotion opportunities, and status. In contrast, intrinsic work values relate to the intangible outcomes that reflect the love for work (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This study focuses on both the intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions of work values.

1.2.2 Practical contribution

Understanding the work values of younger workers might help organisations adopt human resource practices that will attract this group of workers (Lyons & Schweitzer, 2008). The study of work values can be beneficial to managers in the following ways:

1. Work values have been linked to job satisfaction (Locke, 1991). By identifying work values that are considered to be important to Generation Y, it is then possible to effectively link rewards to motivation.
2. Work values have also been linked to employee turnover (Steers & Mowday, 1981). The study of work values can therefore assist in identifying key factors that might ensure the retention of employees.
3. The study of Generation Y's work values will assist employers in attracting and retaining qualified workers to replace the older generations as they retire and leave skills gaps.

The section below presents the research aims and objectives

1.3 THE RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVE, THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS, AND THE DERIVED HYPOTHESES.

1.3.1 The aims of the research

The research focus of this study was to generate a better understanding of the employment expectations of Generation Y. A clearer understanding of the critical success factors and drivers of attraction, motivation and retention of this generation is required. The overall aim of the research was to explore the linkage between materialistic values, work centrality, entitlement mentality, and work values of Generation Y students. Another aim of this research was to discover if a focus on material objects was associated with youths' attitudes towards work. For example, if Generation Y have a high demand for money and material goods, they might then view work as important in life (Twenge & Kessler, 2013). However, it is also possible that increased materialism and entitlement might be accompanied by a decline in work centrality. Studies carried out in the USA suggest that work centrality has changed there, with people now placing more importance on other things than just work (e.g., Highhouse, Ziclar, & Yankelevich, 2010; Smola & Sutton, 2002; Twenge *et al.*, 2010). The research objective for this study is considered below.

1.3.2 The research objective

The purpose of the present study was to determine whether Generation Y in the South African context were both materialistic and entitled. Furthermore, the study aimed to find out whether entitlement mentality is significantly associated with materialism, work values, work centrality, gender, and age.

Therefore, the overarching objective was to generate insight, which can be used to provide recommendations for human resource practices that might assist managers in attracting and retaining Generation Y workers. The research questions and hypotheses derived from this objective are introduced next.

1.3.3 The research Questions and hypotheses

The main research question relates to whether young people in South Africa have a high sense of entitlement and high material values. If they are indeed highly entitled and highly materialistic, what kind of work values do they hold?

Considering that money is the means by which material objects can be obtained and work is the normal means of getting money, how central is work to the youth in South Africa? Some research suggests that among young people, there is currently a decline in work centrality and an increase in materialism (e.g., Smola & Sutton, 2002). Research further suggests that there is an increase in extrinsic work values and a decrease in intrinsic work values and work centrality among the youth (Lyons & Kuron, 2014).

Demographic factors such as age and gender have been found to influence individual values, which in turn influence workplace behaviour (e.g., Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). Work attitudes have also been found to conform to an individual's values (e.g., Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004). Hitlin and Piliavin (2004) have also suggested that values may originate from biological influences, race, gender, social class, age, and family characteristics. Based on the above arguments, the first research question is:

1. *Is there a relationship between demographic factors (age and gender) and work centrality?*

Ger and Belk (1996) carried out studies that compared materialism in economically developed cultures and less economically developed cultures, and found no consistent pattern on materialism between affluent and less affluent countries. The second research question posed in this research is therefore:

2. *Is there a relationship between demographic factors (gender and age) and materialism?*

Research suggests that managers are concerned with rising entitlement mentality in organisations (Twenge & Foster, 2008). The main source of this increase has been attributed to the entrance of Generation Y employees into the workforce. The third research question is therefore:

3. *Is there a relationship between demographic factors (e.g., age and gender) and an entitlement mentality?*

Studies have been conducted on demographic factors and work values, with most of these studies focusing on a single demographic variable: e.g., age (Itzhak, 1999; Joyner, 2000); gender (Azam, 2002; Boatwright & Slate, 2000); education (Rowley, 1996; Sekaran, 2000), and tenure (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Therefore, the fourth research question is:

4. *Is there a relationship between demographic factors (e.g., age and gender) and work values?*

From the above research questions, the following subordinate research questions are also derived, in order to gain insight into Generation Y's work expectations:

1. *Is there a significant association between materialism and work centrality?*
2. *Is there a significant relationship between work values and materialism?*
3. *Is there a significant relationship between materialism and an entitlement mentality?*
4. *Is there a significant relationship between an entitlement mentality and work centrality*

Below is the chapter plan for the thesis.

1.5 CHAPTER PLAN FOR THE THESIS

- **Chapter 1: Introduction**

In this chapter, the background to the study was outlined, and the theoretical framework of the research was introduced. The theory of rising expectations presented and related to generational cohort theory. A brief review of literature was also presented. In this section, the research problem and research questions were introduced, followed by the aim of the research, the research objectives, and the derived hypotheses. The final section of the chapter concluded with an outline of the chapters and a justification for the research.

- **Chapter 2: Literature review**

In this chapter, the theoretical framework underpinning the study is introduced. The next section presents two approaches to generational differences; generational cohort theory and career stage theory. Next, this chapter considers the research evidence explaining the role that values play in shaping behaviour. After this, the theory and research findings related to the characteristics of Generation Y are reviewed. In addition, this chapter also reviews the literature relating to following key concepts: (i) general values; (ii) values and cohort theory; (iii) materialistic values; (iv) work values; (v) work centrality; and (vi) the entitlement mentality.

- **Chapter 3: Research methodology**

This chapter discusses the quantitative approach and the placement of the research in relation to ontological and epistemological perspectives of existing research paradigms. Justification is given for the choice of the paradigm adopted for this research. This chapter then introduces and discusses the quantitative process applied in the research. The research design is first outlined, followed by the population and sample of the study. In order to explain the data analysis process adopted in this study, sampling processes, sample size calculation, and confidence level issues are discussed. Issues relating to the sampling protocol, reliability, and validity are then presented. This chapter also discusses the scale development process and statistical methods used to test each hypothesis. The final section of this chapter considers the ethical procedures followed in the research and a discussion of the associated limitations.

- **Chapter 4: Results**

In this chapter, the results are reported. First, the descriptive results of the study are reported. After this, the reliability and validity of the measures are considered. Finally, the multivariate results (SEM) are reported in relation to each of the hypotheses.

- **Chapter 5: Discussion**

In this chapter, the results that were reported in Chapter 4 are discussed in greater detail. The first part of this chapter deals with the results of the descriptive statistics followed by a discussion of the multivariate results. The focus of this chapter is to relate the results to literature.

- **Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations for theory, practice, and further research.**

The objective of this chapter is to offer a presentation of the implications of this research in relation to theory and practice, and to make recommendations for further research. This chapter therefore provides a summary of the following: the research aims and objectives; the process of hypothesis testing, and a summary of the empirical findings. Finally, recommendations for practice and for further research are presented.

1.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

In the first chapter, the background to the study was provided. The theoretical tension between generational cohort theory and career stages theory was introduced. The contribution of the study was also considered. The research problem, the research objective, and the research questions were presented. A model that diagrammatically outlines the research hypotheses to be tested was then provided. The final section of this chapter summarised the contents of the thesis using a breakdown of the different chapters.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter deals with the theoretical framework for the study. It begins by giving a brief description of the theory of rising expectations, followed by generational cohort theory and values theory. Three related constructs were specifically identified as relevant to the study: work values, materialistic values, and work centrality. Related to materialism and rising expectations is the entitlement mentality concept. A justification is provided for linking generational cohort theory with rising expectations, materialism, and entitlement mentality.

The present research is underpinned by the theory/revolution of rising expectations (e.g., Davies, 1969) and generational cohort theory (e.g., Mannheim 1953; Inglehart, 1977; Strauss & Howe, 1991). According to Davies (1969), prolonged periods of rising expectations and satisfaction of these expectations are usually followed by short periods of sharp economic downturns, during which the gap between what people want and what they actually get quickly widens and becomes intolerable. In his examination of the events of the 1894 strikes in the Chicago area and historical statistics from the USA's 1789-1945 period, Davies (1969) found that real wages rose steadily during the post-Civil War period until the 1894 recession. Historical data showed that during this recession, working people suddenly lost their jobs or found themselves with lower take-home pay (Davies, 1969). Davies (1969) concluded that the phenomenon of frustrated rising expectations appeared in major revolutions like the Russian revolution of 1917, the Egyptian revolution of 1952, and most likely the American revolution of 1775 and the French revolution of 1789. Based on these findings, the theory of rising expectations was born.

South Africa is the youngest democracy in Africa, and its economy has undergone a substantial transformation since the advent of democracy. South Africa recorded an average rate of economic growth of 3.3 per cent per annum in real terms from 1994 until 2012; this is a remarkable improvement on the 1.4 per cent average annual growth registered from 1980 to 1993 (Industrial Development Corporation, 2013). According to the IDC, South Africa's gross domestic product (GDP) by 2012 was 77 per cent larger in real terms relative to 1994, with the corresponding increase for the global economy being 90 per cent.

Growth in the South African economy has been rather unstable and strongly related to global economic performance. From 2004 to 2007, the South African economy recorded its fastest growth rates since the 1960s, with real GDP growth averaging 5.2 per cent per annum (IDC, 2013).

However, the period from 2008 to 2012 was characterised by poor performance of the economy, which coincided with the service delivery riots that have now become common place in South Africa.

Cohort theory proposes that common experiences shared by individuals of a particular age create similarities among the individuals in the cohort (Smolla & Sutton, 2002). According to Strauss and Howe (1991, p. 64), a generation has a "peer personality," which they define as a "generational persona recognised and determined by (1) common age location; (2) common beliefs and behaviour; and (3) perceived membership in a common generation". Furthermore, generational theory supports the notion "that a generation is shaped by its interactions with other generations" (Coomes & DeBard, 2004, p. 8).

A generational cohort is defined as an identifiable group that shares year of birth and age, and has witnessed the same significant events that occurred during the generation's formative years (Kupperschmidt, 2000). The rationale for this is the belief that there are likely to be some differences in the values, beliefs, and behaviours of members of different generations, as a result of the times when each generation was raised. Some researchers have warned that the composition of today's workforce makes conflicts inevitable in the workplace and that ignoring generational differences may lead to a reduction in productivity (Jurkiewicz, 2000; Kupperschmidt, 2000; Smola & Sutton, 2002). Linking the theory of rising expectations and generational cohort theory would suggest that there is a group of people sharing the same values, behaviour, and attitudes (e.g., Generation Y), who have been exposed to relative affluence and suddenly find themselves jobless and with an uncertain future to look forward to. Based on the theory of rising expectations, conflict in the workplace and outside of the workplace is inevitable.

The workforce today is composed of individuals from four generations (Twenge *et al.*, 2010): the Veterans (born 1925-1945), the Baby Boomers (born 1946-1964), Generation X, (born 1965-1981), and Generation Y (born 1982-1999). Research suggests that these generations are different in terms of personality, attitudes, and vocational behaviours (e.g., Twenge, Zhang, & Im, 2004; Wells & Twenge, 2005). Modern organisations, which are increasingly comprised of Generation Y, are calling for a greater understanding of the unique characteristics of their youngest cohort (Dulin, 2008). Meredith and Schewe (1994) warn that it is important to distinguish between a cohort and generation. Although the two words refer to groups of people that are age-related, they are not exactly the same. According to Schewe and Noble (2000), generations are formed when one begets children. The Baby Boomers (born 1946-1964), for example, gave birth to Generation X, who then gave birth to Generation Y.

2.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF GENERATION Y

Although studies on Generation Y have been carried out in developed countries, there is a dearth of literature in the context of developing countries, apart from studies that have focused on their consumer behaviour (e.g., Duh, 2015). It has been argued that significant events, be they economic, social, or political, result in generations developing common attitudes and values based on those events (Daboval, 1998; Parry & Urwin, 2011; Smolla & Sutton, 2002; Zemke *et al.*, 1999). Because different countries are affected by different events, it would therefore be unwise to say that the characteristics of Generation Y are the same throughout the world. However, with the advent of technology, where news travels faster than at any other time, there might be more similarities among generation Y members than differences across different contexts.

Generation Y in South Africa comprises two groups. The first group is made up of black and white South Africans who witnessed the events that took place before independence, but could not have participated because they were not old enough (Martins & Martins, 2012). The second is made up of young South Africans born into a new South Africa, who are commonly referred to as the "born free" generation; they are largely made up of black members, born into a new South Africa without apartheid (Martins & Martins, 2012). According to Booysen and Nkomo (2014) the first group of Generation Y came of age in a system without legal restrictions based on race. The 'born free' generation grew up in a democratic South Africa where people from different races interact and socialise and this is the generation that has just started to enter the labour market (Booysen & Nkomo, 2014).

This study focuses mainly on the 'born free' generation, who by their age would still be in tertiary education. This generation is considered to be very important to organisations, since they are the major source for professionals for both the government and private sector (Ng, Lyons, & Schweitzer, 2010). Widespread usage of social media has ensured that both white and black South African members of generation Y have been exposed to global influences and therefore have more in common with one another than previous generations (Martins & Martins, 2012). According to Chang (2011), Generation Y in South Africa is affected by high unemployment, exposure to drugs, and AIDS, among other social ills. All these negatives have bred a frustrated, disillusioned, and angry generation. This generation is highly educated and self-confident, with a high sense of entitlement (Chang, 2011). Having been influenced by globalisation, Generation Y in South Africa is considered to have high expectations of success, want to lead an expensive lifestyle, and are entrepreneurial (Martins & Martins, 2012).

Because of their large numbers in developing countries such as South Africa, Generation Y has been described as the next boomer generation (Cui, Trent, Sullivan, & Matiru, 2003). Although Generation Y is the most widely used term for this generation, they have also been referred to as the 'Millennials' and the 'Internet Generation'. Members of this generation are said to have been born between 1982 and 1999 (Smolla & Sutton, 2002). The organisational characteristics, such as organisational culture, policies, and practices that attract this generation are considered to be different from older generations. Because Generation Y has been exposed early to technology and mass media, they have different worldviews from previous generations (Smolla & Sutton, 2002).

The values that have been hypothesised as defining generation Y are optimism, sociability, and high self-confidence (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 1999). This generation is not comfortable with organisational structures that are hierarchical (Filipczak, 1994). Howe and Strauss (2000) state that Generation Y are more ethnically diverse than any other generation, with many of them being of mixed race. Kotler and Keller (2005) describe Generation Y as a generation 'with its nerves on edge'. Its members are not afraid of change and therefore security of tenure is not that important to them (Hart, 2006). Generation Y appreciates being given responsibilities and taking part in decision-making (McCrindle & Hooper, 2006).

Generation Y's appearance is different, with piercings on their bodies and tattoos in all kinds of places (Shaw & Fairhurst, 2008). This generation owns smart phones and laptops (Shaw & Fairhurst, 2008), and communicates largely via social media, expecting instant feedback (Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Dahlroth, 2008; Gursoy, Maier, & Chi, 2008). Generation Y has been found to place great importance on challenging work, although it must be coupled with some bit of fun (Hurst & Good, 2009). They prefer working in teams where their creativity can be unleashed (Brazeel, 2009). Spiro (2006) also found that while money is important to Generation Y, what is more important is maintaining a work-life balance. Solnet and Hood (2008) argue that Generation Y in the USA have generally been raised in relative affluence, and as such has met the basic needs in Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. This generation values diversity, accountability, and corporate social responsibility (Atkinson, 2008).

While the above attributes of Generation Y can be viewed as positive, a high number of employers are reportedly not happy with this generation's vocational behaviour and attitudes (Preston, 2007).

A study carried out in Australia revealed that 40 per cent of business managers stated that Generation Y members are problematic and employers were not happy with their performance and work attitudes (Preston, 2007). In light of this, some researchers have highlighted that employers need to better understand the work-related attitudes of this generation (e.g., Terjesen, Vinnicombe, & Freeman, 2007).

2.2.1 Expectations of Generation Y

Treuren & Anderson (2010) summarised Generation Y's expectations as:

- Having training and development;
- Having work-life balance;
- Being involved in challenging work;
- Having mentorship and social interaction;
- Being given responsibility;
- Having a high salary; and
- Having flexible workplace leadership.

Greenberger, Lessard, Chen, and Farruggia's (2008) study from the USA found that Generation Y students expected good grades, but that this expectation was not related to hard work. In another study carried out in the USA, Generation Y rated a high salary as the single most important work value (Corporate Leadership Council, 2004). Some researchers have also noted that while promotions are very important to Generation Y, they are not willing to work hard to get the promotion; this has been ascribed to the sense of entitlement that has been found to be high among this group (Corporate Leadership Council, 2005; Twenge, 2006).

The emphasis on financial rewards may reflect in some way materialism and the sense of entitlement that researchers have persistently found among Generation Y. This has been described as an 'impatience to succeed' attitude, which results in an expectation of instant gratification (Ng *et al.*, 2010). Erickson (2009) found that Generation Y members are impatient with regards to salary increments and promotion.

Some researchers have suggested that many of the career goals and expectations of Generation Y are unrealistic, and do not take into account the relationship between reward and performance (Ng *et al.*, 2010). Hill (2002) used the term 'ability-performance nexus' to describe the contradiction in what Generation Y expects to achieve and what they can achieve.

Drawing on extant literature, Broadbridge *et al.* (2007) summarised the features of Generation Y's employment expectations and preferences. Table 1 below summarises these findings.

Table 1: Employment expectations of Generation Y

Employment expectation	Authors
Democratic leadership style, supportive culture.	Eisner, 2005; Broadbridge *et al.*, 2007
Challenging work that offers opportunities for long-term growth.	Eisner, 2005; Broadbridge *et al.*, 2007; Terjesen *et al.*, 2007; Hite & McDonald, 2012
Training and development.	Broadbridge *et al.*, 2007; Terjesen *et al.*, 2007; Martins & Martins, 2012
Variety in their daily work.	Terjesen *et al.*, 2007
Independence and autonomy.	Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Hite & McDonald, 2012
Work-life balance.	Eisner, 2005; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Hite & McDonald, 2012
High salary.	Hite & McDonald, 2012; Lowe, Levitt, & Wilson, 2008

2.2.2 Why study Generation Y?

Extant literature suggests that generations found in today's workplace exhibit different vocational behaviours (e.g., Konrath, O'Brien, & Hising, 2011; Twenge, Konrath, Foster, Campbell, & Bushman, 2008; Twenge, Campbell, & Gentile, 2011), work values and attitudes (e.g., Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Gursoy, Chi, & Karadag, 2013), and career experiences (e.g., Dries *et al.* 2008; Lyons, Schweitzer, Ng, & Kuron, 2012b).

An over-arching theme identified by Lyons and Kuron (2014) is an escalation in individualism across generations. Job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and loyalty have been reported to be lower among younger workers. Considering that Generation Y members are the workforce of the future, it is imperative to have a clear understanding of their behaviour and expectations in the workplace.

According to Lyons and Kuron (2014), the results showing a decline in organisational commitment and loyalty support Twenge's (2006) depiction of an emergent "Generation Me", which is more self-centred and agentic. Lyon and Kuron (2014) put the argument of generational differences into perspective when they warn that managers must recognise that the workplace differences identified in generations are a valid and important form of diversity. Compared with other types of diversity, generational differences are dynamic, and as such, enduring solutions are required in order for organisations to react to them as they unfold (Lyon & Kuron, 2014).

Another dimension to the generational debate identified by Joshi, Dencker, and Franz (2011) is that power and authority in organisations tend to be linked to age, thereby exposing generations to succession dynamics. In most organisations, it is the older workers who occupy higher positions and thus hold most of the power. It is therefore inevitable that conflict will arise from such a scenario. Researchers warn that managers should not view generational differences in the workplace as though these are just inter-group dynamics or life-stage differences, but as contemporary trends emerging in society and work as the generations evolve (Lyon & Kuron, 2014). As a result of these new developments, past management practices may not work in the modern context.

Recent studies indicate a decline in organisational commitment, especially among younger workers who are portrayed as less committed to their organisations (e.g., Lyon & Kuron 2014; Tenge, 2006). The decline in organisational commitment means that these young workers are more likely to move from organisation to organisation. Evidence from research also suggests that young workers seek personal growth in their work; thus it is those employers who can meet these needs that will gain a competitive advantage in attracting and retaining talent. For developing countries such as South Africa, where majority of job applicants are from Generation Y, firms are facing challenges as they decide whether they should adapt their recruitment strategy to the needs of this generation or not (Martins & Martins, 2012).

The general notion from literature suggests that if organisations aim to attract and retain graduates from the Generation Y cohort, they need to quickly develop better means of understanding the needs of these young workers in order to know what attracts them to join certain organisations and not others (Montgomery & Ramus, 2011).

According to Perlik (2001, p. 65), Generation Y are "rewriting the book on workplace wishes and demands". There is therefore a need for a greater understanding of the unique characteristics and expectations of this generation (Dulin, 2008). Underlining this need, Josiam, Reynolds, Thozhur, Crutsinger, Baum, and Devine (2008) state that it is important for employers to invest in research that may lead to deeper insights into Generation Y's mind-set, particularly with regard to expectations and vocational behaviour. One of the objectives of this study is therefore to contribute to "the understanding of the expectations and work behaviour of the youngest workforce, which some have argued expects so much, so fast, [that] it catches highly experienced managers off guard" (Lockyer, 2005, p. 126).

As Generation Y continues to become influential in the workplace, managers need to develop new ways of managing them if they expect to attract and retain them (Martin & Tulgan, 2002; Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 1999). Instead of understanding Generation Y's vocational behaviour as a mirror image of their own, managers need to adapt to the needs of this new generation, especially in South African where they are entering the workplace in large numbers, pretty much like the Baby Boomer generation did in the USA decades ago (Martins & Martins, 2012).

With Generation Y projected to be the largest generation in South Africa (Statistics South Africa, 2015) and even in the USA (81 million people), it is important that management keep up-to-date with knowledge about this generation (Sandfort & Haworth, 2002). Based on their numbers, this cohort will form tomorrow's managers and leaders, and as such, it is important for employers to be aware of their values, career expectations, and work attitudes (Martins & Martins, 2012). Because South Africa is largely made up of young people, with more than 50 per cent of the population being less than 35 years old (Statistics South Africa, 2015), more research is required on this group of workers in order to gain useful insights into their employment expectations.

2.2.3 Summary

This section reviewed popular characteristics of Generation Y. While some contradictions emerge in these descriptions, the general consensus is that Generation Y is technologically savvy and diverse, and that they require instant feedback. Negative expectations of this generation include materialism, lack of respect for hierarchy, and ambition that is not balanced with performance. It was however noted that more research still needs to be carried out on this generation, since they have just started entering the workplace in large numbers; this is especially true in South Africa, where Generation Y make up a large proportion of the population. A brief discussion on general values follows below.

2.3 GENERAL VALUES

Dose (1997) stated that in spite of a plethora of literature on values, no agreement has been reached on what makes up a 'value'. While Rokeach (1968) associated values with beliefs, Super (1978) viewed them as needs. Other researchers such as Schwartz and Bilsky (1990) associate values with goals, while Eagly and Chaiken (1992) associated them with attitudes. The general consensus, however, is that values are standards or criteria that guide action or behaviour. Values are also stable and hardly change over an individual's life-time (Dose, 1997; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989).

Most researchers have agreed that values are central to understanding attitudes and behaviour, be it in the workplace or society in general (e.g., Rokaech 1973; Williams 1968). Although values have been researched for a long time, they are still a topical issue today (Davidov, Schmidt, & Schwartz, 2008). The rationale is that groups who hold different values tend to demand that their own values be advanced at the expense of the opposing group's values (Davidov *et al.*, 2008). Thus values have the potential to cause conflict. Twenge *et al.* (2010) view values as being useful indicators of behaviour. They are seen as enduring, as motivators that guide, and they explain attitudes and actions (Rokeach 1973; Schwartz, 1992).

One of the often cited definitions of values is by Rokeach (1973, p. 5), who defined values as:

> *"An enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence."*

Super (1980, p 130) defined values as:

"Desirable states, objects, goals, or behaviour transcending specific situations and applied as normative standards to judge and to choose among alternative modes of behaviour."

Locke (1976, p 1304) defined values as:

"What a person consciously or sub consciously desires or wants or seeks to attain."

Similarly, Hofstede (1980, p. 19) defined values as a:

"[The] broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others."

According to Schwartz and Bilsky (1987), people think of values as what is important to them. Values are therefore relative; a value that is important to one person may not be important another. Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, p 551) summarise the findings of many theorists and researchers regarding values as follows:

- *"Values are beliefs. But they are beliefs tied inextricably to emotion, not objective, cold ideas. When values are activated, they become infused with feeling.*
- *Values transcend specific actions and situations. They are abstract goals. The abstract nature of values distinguishes them from concepts like norms and attitudes, which usually refer to specific actions, objects, or situations.*
- *Values guide the selection or evaluation of actions, policies, people, and events. That is, values serve as standards or criteria.*
- *Values are ordered by importance relative to one another. People's values form an ordered system of value priorities that characterise them as individuals. This hierarchical feature of values also distinguishes them from norms and attitudes."*

According to Schwartz and Bilsky (1987), demographic variables such as age, education, and gender are associated with the values that individuals hold. People's socialisation and learning experiences shape the expectations that they have in life. Demographic variables therefore indicate background circumstances that influence value priorities (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). Following up on this analysis, demographic factors are considered to be significant in explaining materialism, work values, an entitlement mentality, work centrality, and employment expectations.

This study therefore seeks, among other things, to establish the part played by demographic factors (e.g., gender & age) in explaining the relationships between the above-mentioned variables.

2.3.1 The structure of basic values

According to Schwartz and Boehnke (2003), basic values are theoretically assigned a structure and a content. The Values theory contends that ten basic values are universal in all societal contexts, and that the structure of these values is circular in nature. Schwartz (2012) defines each of the ten values but concedes, however, that some value items have multiple meanings and therefore express the goals of more than one value. The structure of these individual values is illustrated in Figure 2 below.

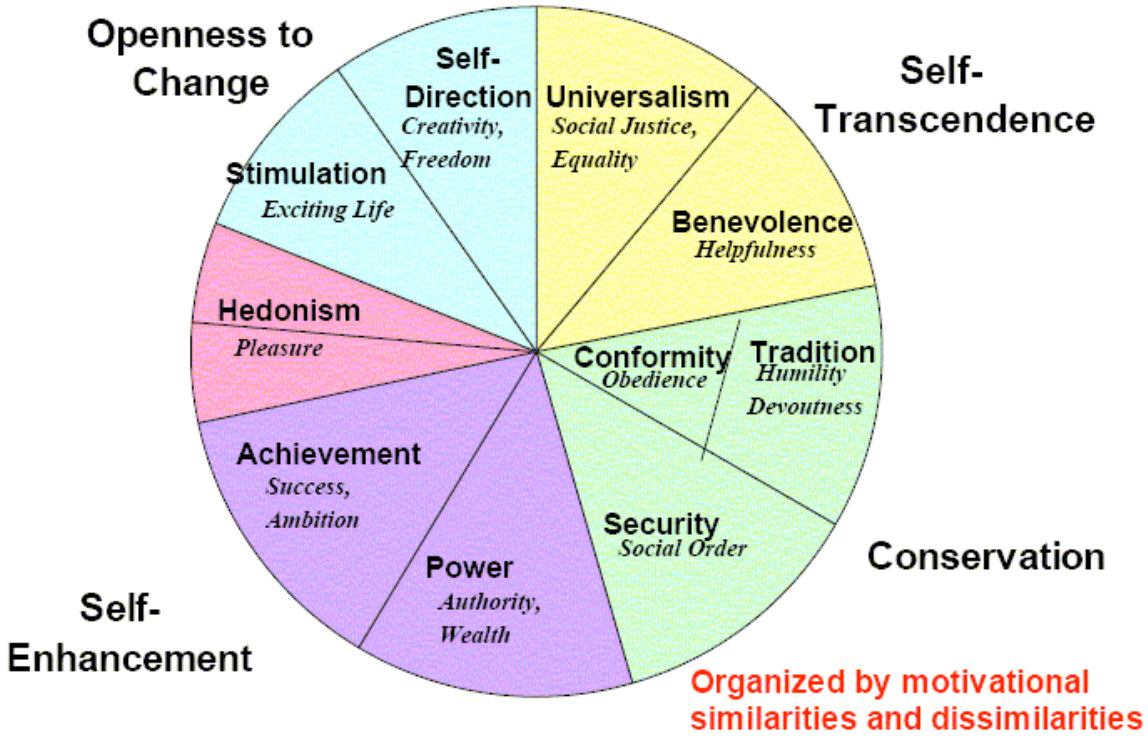


Figure 1: General values

Adapted from Schwartz (1992) with author's permission

According to Schwartz (2012), the arrangement of the values represents a motivational continuum. The values that are closer to one another in either direction of the circle have similar underlying motivations. Those that are further away from one another tend to be antagonistic.

As shown in Figure 2, Basic Human Values theory identifies ten basic human values that can be found across and within different cultures: (i) power, (ii) achievement, (iii) hedonism, (iv) stimulation, (v) self-direction, (vi) universalism, (vii) benevolence, (viii) tradition, (ix) conformity, and (x) security (Schwartz, 1992). Therefore in terms of Human Values theory, basic values have an influence on other dimensions of values (Callaghan 2016a, 2016b, 2017). Schwartz and Boehnke (2003, p. 231) argue therefore that "actions associated with any value have practical, psychological, and other social consequences" that may oppose or be compatible with "the pursuit of other values".

Literature and research has indicated that the Basic Human Values theory is supported to the extent that the above ten basic values converge into four universal 'higher-order' value types, which appear to have pairs that contradict each other: between 'openness to change' values versus 'conservation' values, and 'self-enhancement' values versus 'self-transcendence' values (Schwartz & Boehnke, 2003).

2.3.2 Higher-order value types

As stated above, the ten values are associated with four higher-order value types (Schwartz & Boehnke, 2003). These four higher order types are positioned in an anti-clockwise manner around the circumplex structure. The four higher-order types are: (i) openness to change, which is closely associated with self-direction, stimulation, and hedonism; (ii) self-enhancement, which is closely associated with achievement and power values; (iii) conservation, which is associated with security, conformity, and tradition values; and (iv) self-transcendence, which is associated with benevolence and universalism values.

2.3.3 Values and cohort theory

Inglehart (1997) found that older people would give higher priority to materialistic values than younger people; he postulated that this was linked to cohort effect. Inglehart's (1997) theory was that once people form their values during adolescence, these values hardly change afterwards. For example, those adolescents who have experienced economic hardships and insecurity have developed materialistic values throughout their lives. Inglehart's (1997) finding of lower priority on materialistic values in younger cohorts in the USA was interpreted as being due to the increasing affluence and prosperity enjoyed by American society in recent years (Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002).

According to Inglehart (198l; 1990), as countries become more developed and affluent, people's lower-order needs are met, and as such, materialism will begin to decline. The next phase would involve chasing after higher-order needs. However, a cross-cultural study conducted by Ger and Belk (1996), which compared materialism in economically developed cultures to less developed cultures, found no consistent pattern of materialism. Although Germany and the USA were among the most affluent countries, they were found to be the highest on materialism (Ger & Belk, 1996). Feather (1998) conducted another study in Canada and found little evidence of post-materialist values, which further confirmed Ger and Belk's (1996) study. Based on these findings in other studies, Inglehart's (1981) theory has not been consistently validated. It is therefore important that studies on materialism be carried out in different contexts.

2.3.4 Summary

This section examined the way in which general values have been conceptualised and defined. A general overview of human values was given. Human values were shown to influence belief systems, which in turn influence behaviour. Values were also described by some researchers as giving expression to needs and goals (Super, 1973). It was established that humans act to achieve the goals in expectation of meeting needs represented by values. Schwartz's (1992) conceptualisation of values was discussed. Schwartz (1992) aggregated the ten values into two contradictory categories: self-transcendence versus self enhancement, and openness to change versus conservation. A discussion of values theory and cohort theory concluded this section. Work values are considered below.

2.4 WORK VALUES

"Work is a necessary evil to be avoided." - Mark Twain

Work values have their origins in Weber's (1930) seminal discussion of *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*. He described values that emphasise the innate rewards one gets from pursuing honest work and the goodness of work itself (Weber, 1930). Attempting to describe the work ethic, Weber (1930, p.2) stated that "time is money…credit is money…and the good paymaster is lord of another man's purse".

He further explained that: *"*the sound of your hammer at five in the morning…heard by a creditor makes him easy six months longer; but if he sees you at a billiard table or hears your voice at a tavern when you should be at work, he sends for his money the next day*"* (Weber, 1930, p50).

It was Weber's description that laid the foundation to what is known today as work values. Researchers use the term 'work values' to describe attitudes associated with vocational behaviour. A handful of studies have attempted to examine work values as a multidimensional construct (Roberson, 1990). The concept of work values has therefore been viewed differently by different researchers, depending on the objectives of the research and the theoretical background (Dose, 1997).

Some researchers have conceptualised work values as individual preferences for certain types of work (e.g., Furnham, Forde, & Ferrari, 1999; Super 1973). Work values can be defined as the generalised belief about the relative desirability of various aspects of work (e.g., pay and autonomy) (Lyons *et al.*, 2010). According to Super (1973), values are derived from needs, and values are more general than interests. Dose (1997, p. 220) summarises and defines values as standards or criteria for choosing goals or guiding action… that are 'relatively enduring and stable over time.

Later on, Lyons *et al.* (2010) compared work values with general values and state that work values act as criteria used by individuals when choosing appropriate vocational behaviour.

Table 2: Typology of work values

Intrinsic work value • Elizur, 1984; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons *et al.*, 2010; Ross, Schwartz, & Surkiss, 1999 Extrinsic work values • Elizur, 1984; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Lyons *et al.*, 2010; Ross *et al.*, 1999; Schwarts, 1999	Social or altruistic work values • Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Finegan, 2000; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Leuty & Hansen, 2011; Lyons *et al.*, 2010; Pryor, 1987 Prestige work values • Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Leuty & Hansen, 2011; Lyons *et al.*, 2010; Pryor, 1979; Ross *et al.*, 1999)

Adapted from Kuron, Lyon, Schweitzer, and Ng (2014)

As shown in Table 2, Kuron *et al.* (2014) summarise the typologies of values given by different authors. Four themes were identified based on research and theory related to work values:

(1) Intrinsic work values, which pertain to the inherent psychological satisfactions of working, for example, challenging work.
(2) Extrinsic work values, which relate to material aspects of work, such as pay or job security.
(3) Social work values, which pertain to relations with co-workers, supervisors, and other people; these values include the desire to help others.
(4) Prestige work values, which relate to status, influence, and power.

2.4.1 The role that values in shaping behaviour

Ester, Braun, and Mohler (2006, p. 92) argued that work plays a fundamental role in human life by providing opportunities to satisfy different needs and goals, and that work values are "salient, basic, and influential". Research has demonstrated that young people's work values help shape their career choices and outcomes (Johnson & Mortimer, 2011). Work is important as the primary source of income, and is also an indicator for social class (Elizur & Sagie, 1999). According to Ross *et al.* (1999), work values occupy a central position in the overall pattern of values, and share a significant relationship with other personal values. The general notion is that work values have been treated as extensions of general values (Elizur & Sagie, 1999). Jin and Rounds (2012) argued that the varied use of work values in research and practice assumes that values are stable over time.

Different researchers have given various definitions of work values. Work values have been defined as beliefs about the relative importance of various aspects of vocational behaviour and outcomes (Dose, 1997; Ross *et al.,* 1999). Duffy (2010, p. 52) defined work values as "what a person wants out of work in general and also what components of a job are important to his or her work satisfaction". Hattrup, Mueller, and Joens (2007, p. 481) defined work values as "beliefs about the desirability of specific outcomes of working". Lyons, Duxbury, and Higgins (2006) defined work values as generalised beliefs about the desirability of certain work attributes and outcome. What is common across these different definitions is that values are associated with work outcomes. Work values have been conceptualised by some researchers as hierarchically ordered in an individual's mind; the individual therefore makes important job decisions based on this hierarchy (Brown & Crace, 1996; Ross *et al.*, 1999).

2.4.2 Work values and generational differences

Ho, Oldenburg, Day, and Sun (2012) stated that work values are an important commitment construct as they influence employees' affective responses in the workplace and are key to job involvement.
Following up on Locke's (1976) conceptualisation of work values, some studies have investigated work values by examining the importance that individuals give to particular work outcomes (Johnson *et al.*, 2007; Johnson & Mortimer, 2011; Lyon *et al.*, 2010). According to Locke (1976), individuals differ in what they want from their jobs, and these differences determine the choices that individuals make. Kalleberg (1977) argues that an analysis of work values must include a range of gratifications that individuals can derive from work in an industrial society and an assessment of how much an individual values each of the dimensions in the range. Given the above, a lot of research has focused on job satisfaction (e.g., Berger, Olson, & Boudreau, 1983), commitment (e.g., Oliver, 1990), and work involvement (e.g., Knoop, 1991). Dose (1997) has warned, however, that because researchers have different dimensions of work outcomes, comparisons of results across studies are likely to be difficult.

Although research on work values has attracted a lot of interest from researchers and practitioners, much of this research has been on generational differences (e.g., Aslop 2008; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Lyons *et al.*, 2006; Twenge, 2010). Meriac, David, and Banister (2010) argued that no aspect related to the differences between generations has received as much attention as that related to work values. Lyons *et al.* (2005) noted however that extant literature concerning generational differences has mostly been opinion-based and not empirically based. No known study has been conducted in the South African context linking work values and generational differences to materialism and the entitlement mentality.

Connor and Becker (1975) proposed that research on values might lead to resolution of conflict in the workplace. A lot of studies have been conducted on how conflicts might emerge in the workplace and their implications (e.g., Erickson, 2008; Hillman 2014; Yelkikalan & Ayhun, 2013). In order to reduce conflicts in the workplace and maintain organisational unity, it is argued that leaders need to consider the representative values adopted by diverse groups found in organisations (Izzo &Withers, 2001; Meredith, Schewe, & Hiam, 2002). The focus of most past research on generational differences has been to compare Baby Boomers and Generation X (e.g., Beutell & Witting-Berman, 2008; Smola & Sutton, 2002).

Generation Y has received comparatively less attention largely because its members have just recently started entering the workplace in large numbers. Of late, however, Generation Y has become the largest group of employees in their 20s (Twenge *et al.*, 2010). Based on the large numbers associated with Generation Y in most countries recently, research on their recruitment has begun to rise (Erickson, 2008; Yeaton, 2008). In spite of this interest, Twenge *et al.* (2010) argue that there is less empirical evidence on Generation Y than any other generation. It is because of the paucity of studies on Generation Y that the research in this thesis focuses on them.

2.4.3 Intrinsic and extrinsic work values

Although different dimensions of work values have been given by different researchers, two dimensions have been consistent: intrinsic and extrinsic work values (e.g., Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009; Hirschi, 2010; Vansteenkiste, Neyrinck, Niemiec, Soenens, De Witte, & Van den Broeck, 2007; Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2006). According to Kalleberg (1977), the intrinsic dimension of work values expresses the innate characteristics associated with the task itself, such as whether it is interesting or not, and whether the employee feels a sense of personal fulfilment derived from the job. Workers who have a preference for such work have a desire to be stimulated and challenged by the job that they perform. Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999) also stated that intrinsic work values relate to the satisfaction that a worker gets from the intangible rewards he/she gets from work. Lyons *et al.* (2006) further defined intrinsic work values as the inherent psychological satisfaction that a worker gets from working. From the above definitions of intrinsic work values, one can conclude that these values are the intangible work outcomes preferred by individuals involved in work settings. Western researchers have indicated that intrinsic rewards are decreasing and extrinsic rewards are increasing over generations (Twenge, 2010).

Lyons *et al.* (2006) referred to extrinsic work values as values that express the tangible outcomes of work, such as salary and benefits. Twenge (2010) also defined extrinsic work values as the outcomes of work, which are material-orientated, such as salary and advancement opportunities. Lyons *et al.* (2006) further stated that individuals who prefer extrinsic work values would seek work that provides good levels of tangible rewards such as salary, benefits, and job security. Based on the above definitions of extrinsic work values, one can further conclude that extrinsic work values are related to materialism. Because of the consensus by different researchers on the intrinsic-extrinsic typology of work values, this study will focus on both dimensions.

2.4 4 Importance of work values

In research, work values have been linked to job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement, career choice, and work performance (e.g., Berings, De Fruyt, & Bouwen, 2004; Dawis, 2002; Ho *et al.*, 2012; Lyons *et al.*, 2006). It is argued that congruence between an employee's work values and the encouragement of such values in the workplace may result in job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Hesketh, McLachlan, & Gardner, 1992).

Research indicates that people are more likely to be motivated, satisfied, and committed when their work values are reinforced in the organisation (Ho *et al.*, 2012). Given the importance that work values have in directly influencing employee behaviour in organisations, it is imperative to examine their nature and conceptualisation in work settings. It is through an understanding of work values by managers and researchers that employees can find meaning in their work, and that organisations can ensure that they have a committed workforce (Li *et al.*, 2008).

2.4.5 Demographic factors and work values

Most studies examining the influence of demographic factors on work values have tended to focus on a single variable at a time: for example, age and work values (e.g., Itzhak, 1999; Joyner, 2000), gender and work values (e.g., Azam, 2002; Boatwright & Slate, 2000), education and work values (e.g., Rowley, 1996; Sekaran, 2000), and tenure and work values (e.g., Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Research suggests that work values are influenced by age (e.g., Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010). A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies by Jin and Rounds (2012) showed some instability in work values during early adulthood, but no significant changes in either intrinsic or extrinsic work values between the ages of 18 and 22, and also between the ages of 22 and 26. Therefore, although there is agreement that work values change during the post-high school years, there is no consensus about the direction of change in intrinsic and extrinsic work values.

National studies conducted on the relationship between age and organisational commitment by Warr (1982) in the UK and by Lacy, Bokemeire, and Shepard (1983) in the USA found that older workers were more committed than younger workers.

The Meaning of Working (MOW) International Research Team (1987) and Mannheim, Baruch, and Tal (1997) conducted similar studies; findings from both studies indicated that older workers viewed formal employment as more important in their lives than did younger workers. Younger workers, however, view high salary and opportunities for growth as more important (Kalleberg & Loscocco, 1983) than older workers (Maurer, Weiss, & Barbeite, 2003). Gould and Werbel (1983) suggested that the reason why older workers have higher work centrality and work involvement than younger workers is because older workers have had more time in the workforce, and as such, work has become a strong part of their lives. According to lifespan psychology, younger workers are more focused on growth and learning, such that work may not be a central part of their lives (Ebner, Freund, & Baltes, 2006; Freund, 2006).

In a study covering the years 1973-1990, Rowe and Snizek (1995) found minimum gender differences in work values. Luzzo's (1995) study found significantly higher levels of career maturity among young women than young men. However, Marini, Fan, Finley, and Beutel's (1996) study found no gender difference in extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Tolbert and Moen's (1998) study found significant gender differences in some work values, with women exhibiting intrinsic rewards and men exhibiting extrinsic rewards. Boatwright and Slate (2000) found women to have stronger work ethics than men, and Azam (2002) reported higher work ethic and positive work attitudes with female workers than male workers. The above findings are inconclusive, however, with regard to demographic factors and work values. Based on the above findings, it is evident that further research is required to unravel the answers.

2.4.6 Summary

This section considered work values that have been viewed as separate but related to general values. Different definitions and approaches to work values were examined. Two dimensions of work values appeared to be popular in the literature: intrinsic and extrinsic work values. Intrinsic work values refer to inherent job characteristics associated with the task itself, such as interesting and challenging work. Extrinsic work values on the other hand, relate to the tangible aspects of work, such as pay, benefits, and job security. Most studies suggested that work values are underlying beliefs and criteria that individuals use in assessing work activities and outcomes. Work centrality is considered below.

2.5 WORK CENTRALITY

"Work consists of whatever the body is obliged to do. Play consists of whatever the body is not obliged to do." - Mark Twain

It is generally accepted that in the modern world, work is an important part of people's lives. A large number of people are likely to consider work and its outcomes to be a central part of their existence (Highhouse, Zickar, & Yankelevich, 2010). Given how important people regard work to be in their lives, researchers have conducted numerous studies on the attitudes, meanings, and assumptions that people have about their work lives (e.g., Koester, 2012; Paullay, Alliger, & Stone-Romero, 1994; Walsh & Gordon, 2008). Work centrality has also been identified as one of the variables associated with people's value systems (Hirschfeld & Field, 2000). Uçanok (2011) linked work centrality with basic values. Work centrality has also been defined as the importance of work in one's life, compared with other social life activities (Kanungo, 1982). Work centrality is linked to people's beliefs about the value of work and the role that work plays in people's lives (Harpaz, 1999). Work centrality is associated with how individuals act in the workplace and their attitude towards work even when outside the workplace (Alvesson, Ashcraft, & Thomas, 2008). One of the most popular definitions of work centrality is Mannheim's (1975, p. 81):

> *"The relative dominance of work-related contents in the individuals' mental processes, as reflected in responses to questions concerning the degree of concern, knowledge, and interest invested in the work role relative to other activities and in the individuals' emphasis on work-related sub-identities."*

"Would you continue to work if you won the lottery?" This is a popular question used in research to measure work centrality. Morse and Weiss (1955) earlier posed a related question to working men in the USA and found that 80 per cent of them indicated that they would continue to work even when they did not need to. According to Morse and Weiss (1955, p. 198), "it is through the producing role that most men tie into society, and for this reason and others, most men find the producing role important for maintaining their sense of wellbeing".

A lot of changes have taken place in society since then, and evidence suggests that the meaning and value of work has steadily declined, especially among young workers in the USA (e.g., Howard & Wilson, 1982; Yankelovich, 1978). Vecchio (1980) reviewed responses to interviews conducted by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC) in 1974, 1976, and 1977 to cross-check whether Morse and Weiss's (1955) conclusions were still valid after 20 years. In that study, male workers in the USA were asked the following question: "If you were to get enough money to live as comfortably as you would like for the rest of your life, would you continue to work or would you stop working?" Vecchio (1980) reported that 72 per cent of respondents indicated that they would continue to work, compared to 80 per cent in Morse and Weiss's (1955) study. According to Vecchio (1980), the results indicated a steady decline in the value that people attach to work.

Warr's (1982) study supported Vecchio's (1980) study, but using a sample of British workers this time. It was found that overall, 69 per cent of men and 65 per cent of women in the sample indicated that they would continue working even if they did not need to; these numbers were considered comparable with Vecchio's (1980) findings from the USA. The above findings therefore suggest a significant decrease in the importance of work in the UK, USA, and Germany (England, 1991; Ruiz- Quintanilla & Wilpert, 1991). Indeed, evidence suggests that the last two decades have been marked by declining work centrality in a variety of Western countries (e.g., Smola & Sutton, 2002; Peterson & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 2003). However no study on work centrality has been conducted in the South African context and this study attempts to extend knowledge in this area of research using the South African context.

2.5.1 Work centrality and job involvement

Individuals with high work centrality regard work as an important part of their lives (Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin, & Lord, 2002). Such individuals attach more importance to work than individuals with low work centrality. Hirschfeld and Feild (2000) argued that work centrality is relatively enduring, is not dependent on different conditions of work, and must be distinguished from job involvement. Paullay *et al.* (1994) regarded job involvement as the extent to which a worker is preoccupied with his/her present job, whereas work centrality is the perception that the worker has regarding how important work is in his/her life. Bal and Kooij (2011) also compared work centrality to job involvement and concluded that job involvement is influenced by work-related experiences, such as job demands and the availability of resources, whereas work centrality is about the importance of work in an individual's life.

The difference between work centrality and job involvement is that work centrality refers to the extent to which people believe that work is an important part of their lives, and job involvement refers to the extent to which people are absorbed in the work that they do (Diefendorff, *et al.*, 2002; Fortner, Crouter, & McHale, 2004). Highhouse *et al.* (2010), however, viewed work centrality as being broader than job involvement because it focuses on the importance of work in general, whereas job involvement focuses on an individual's concern for the current job.

Research suggests that there is a positive relationship between work centrality and job involvement (e.g., Hirschfeld & Field, 2000; Snir & Harpaz, 2002), work centrality and productivity (e.g., Mannheim, Baruch, &Tal, 1997), and work centrality and organisational commitment (e.g., Adams, Prescher, Beehr, & Lepisto, 2002; Diefendorff *et al.*, 2002; Hirschfeld & Field, 2000; Schmidt & Lee, 2008). Findings from the above research indicate the importance of work centrality to organisational outcomes. Individuals who work for something they believe in tend to get more involved with the job, thus benefiting the organisation (Uçanok, 2009). Individuals are likely to exert more effort for the organisation if they place a high value on what they do. In the same vein, Mannheim *et al.* (1997) asserted that employees must first focus on their own work before they can engage in organisational citizenship behaviours. Organisational citizenship behaviour has been defined by Organ (1988, p. 4) as: Individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation.

Work centrality has been linked to concepts such as work involvement and work role centrality. Table 3 below summarises some of the different definitions of work centrality and related constructs.

Table 3: Definitions of work centrality and related constructs

Construct	Definition	Source
Work involvement	A normative belief about the value of work in one's life.	Kanungo (1982, p. 342)
	Beliefs regarding the importance of work, especially with regard to the role that work plays in one's life.	Hirschfeld & Field (2000)
	The degree to which a person wants to be engaged in work	Warr, Cook, and Wall (1979, p. 133)
Work-role Centrality	The relative dominance of work-related contents in the individual's mental processes, as reflected in responses to questions concerning the degree of concern, knowledge, and interest invested in the work-role relative to other activities.	Mannheim, (1975, p. 81)
Work centrality	The beliefs that individuals have regarding the degree of importance that work plays in their lives.	Paullay *et al.* (1994, p. 225)
	Belief in work for work's sake and the importance of work.	Miller, Woehr, and Hudspeth (2001, p. 14)

2.5.2 Summary

This section considered work centrality, which is generally defined as the importance that one attaches to work. It was noted that there was a steady decline in work centrality among American and British workers. A distinction was made between work centrality and job involvement, and a link was established between work centrality and organisational citizenship behaviour. Work centrality was also linked to the concepts of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, although the direction of the relationship was not clear in literature. The final section dealt with the consequences of work centrality and definitions of work centrality and related constructs. Materialistic values are considered below.

2.6 MATERIALISTIC VALUES

"Money is a great servant but a bad master." -Francis Bacon

Materialism has been widely researched upon and defined in sociology, economics, consumer psychology, and marketing (Żemojtel-Piotrowska, Baran, Clinton, Piotrowski, Baltatescu, & Van Hiel, 2013). A lot of research has been conducted in different cultural contexts in order to understand how materialistic values develop (e.g., Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002; John, 1999; Roberts, Manolis, & Tanner, 2003). Ger and Belk (1996, p. 291) defined materialism as "the importance a consumer attaches to worldly possessions". Belk (1984) sees materialism as a personality trait and identified three categories of materialism: envy, non-generosity, and possessiveness. Schoeck (1966) defined envy as 'displeasure and ill will at the superiority of (another person) in happiness, success, reputation, or the possession of anything desirable'. Non-generosity is defined as "an unwillingness to give or share possessions with others" (Belk, 1984, p. 268). Finally, possessiveness is defined as "the inclination and tendency to retain control or ownership of one's possessions" (Belk, 1984, p. 267). Belk (1984, p. 291) went on to argue that "at the highest levels of materialism, such possessions assume a central place in a person's life and are believed to provide the greatest sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction".

Rassuli and Hollander (1986) defined materialism as an orientation towards getting and spending. Richins and Dawson (1992) have more recently defined materialism as the centrally held belief about the importance of possessions in a person's life. Materialism is viewed as a long-lasting desire to acquire and possess things. According to Richins and Dawson (1992), materialism consists of three components: acquisition centrality, acquisition and happiness, and the role of possessions in defining success. Kasser and Ryan (1993) considered materialism to be the value that consumers place on possessions, which is an indicator that materialism is a value. Micken and Roberts (1999) characterised materialism as reflecting a need for social identity, with materialists relying on objects to define who they are. Browne and Kaldenberg (1997) viewed materialism as a personality trait that focuses on material possessions. Kasser, Ryan, Couchman, and Sheldon (2004, p. 13) defined materialism as:

> *"The belief that it is important to pursue the culturally sanctioned goals of attaining financial success, having nice possessions, having the right image (produced, in large part, through consumer goods), and having a high status (defined mostly by the size of one's pocketbook and the scope of one's possessions)."*

Possession of such objects appears to enhance an individual's self-worth (Kilbourne, Grunhagen, & Foley, 2005). A common thread found in all the above definitions is that they generally reflect a relationship between an individual and objects/possessions.

2.6.1 What are the factors associated with materialism?

There are two perspectives that have been the focus of research on materialistic values: the socialisation perspective and the psychological perspective. The socialisation perspective focuses on family and the environment as sources of the development of materialism (Duh, 2015). In those cultures where possessions are considered important in life, the socialisation agents are assumed to have a stronger influence on individuals' attitudes towards possessions. Kasser *et al.* (2004) stated that social modelling may increase materialistic values because of constant exposure to messages extolling wealth and possessions; as a result, people tend to 'buy into' such ideas and become materialistic.

The psychological perspective, on the other hand, links the development of materialistic values to early individual circumstances that might foster insecurity in the minds of the affected, such as parental divorce and other changes in family structure. For example, reasons given for materialistic values from a psychological perspective include insecurity caused by poverty (Cohen & Cohen, 1996) and growing up during a recession (Inglehart, & Abramson, 1994). Kasser, Cohn, Kanner, and Ryan (2007) suggested that living in a competitive free market economy may foster feelings of insecurity about such things as possible job losses. A society that encourages material possessions makes people acquire extrinsic tastes involving materialism (Kasser & Ryan, 1993). Furthermore, such societies would have economies that promote economic growth by extolling consumptive behaviours; thus citizens in such economies are constantly bombarded with messages promoting materialism (Hurst *et al.*, 2014). The 'Scarcity Hypothesis' posits that "an individual's priorities reflect one's socioeconomic environment: one places the greatest subjective value on those things that are in relatively short supply" (Inglehart, 1990, p. 68).

Drawing on extant literature, Rindfleisch *et al.* (1997) proposed that young adults brought up in broken families are more likely to exhibit higher levels of materialism than young adults reared in more stable families.

A study conducted by Kasser, Ryan, Zax, and Sameroff (1995) in the USA revealed that individuals reared in disadvantaged economic circumstances tend to place a higher value on material objects than other life goals. Studies conducted in India also show that individuals from the lower castes were more likely to be more materialistic than individuals from other castes (Singhal & Misra, 1992). Given the above studies, one would predict that there will be a relationship between participants' socioeconomic status and their current materialistic value orientation.

2.6.2 Conceptualisation of materialism

Some researchers warn that because conceptualisations of materialism may be Western-based, they may only be relevant in similar cultures that promote individualism (Wong & Ahuvia, 1995). Material goods may be socially constructed symbols of identity, and these symbols would on a social level represent class, status, or membership in some social groups (Wong & Ahuvia, 1995). In agreement with the above concerns, Kwak, Zinkhan, and Dominick (2002) stated that the socialisation perspective focuses on the relationship between socialisation agents and materialism as if these variables are viewed in the same way in different cultures. Given the above, it is therefore important to define materialism according to the meaning attached to material possessions for the individuals concerned, and to be aware that these meanings differ between cultures (Wong & Ahuvia, 1995).

A study carried out by the Center for a New American Dream (2004) found that more than 70 per cent of adults in the USA and the UK believe that today's children and young adults are growing up exposed to a culture that is materialistic. This study argues that this exposure has led to the youth in these countries becoming more materialistic than the youth of previous generations. Research findings have not been conclusive, however, with regard to whether materialism has actually increased among youth. Based on Inglehart's (1977) seminal theory, materialism should decrease with economic development. Inglehart (1977) argued that more affluent societies should have reached the post-materialism phase and as such, exhibit lower materialism because their lower-order needs would have been met.

Some researchers have claimed that the relationship between materialism and personal wellbeing depend on the match between what individuals value and the type of values that are reinforced in their social settings (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000). For example, an environment that provides support and reinforces the importance of material values ensures that possessing those values is rewarded.

After carrying out his research in Japan, Inglehart (1990, p. 153) came to the conclusion that "peace and prosperity, in the long run, encourage both Japanese and Western publics to give heightened emphasis to non-material goals and those publics do not necessarily turn to the same non-material goals." Culture may therefore play a part in determining what is valued by a particular culture.

Following up on Inglehart's (1990) studies, Ger and Belk (1996) conducted a study in twelve countries using qualitative data on student samples, and found no consistent pattern in materialism among consumers from affluent countries and less affluent countries. Romanians were found to be the most materialistic, followed by the USA, New Zealand, Ukraine, Germany, and Turkey. These findings contradicted Inglehart's (1990) theory that materialism decreases with economic development; instead, the conclusion from these studies was that materialism is neither unique to the West nor related to affluence (Ger & Belk, 1996).

2.6.3 Materialism and Generation Y

One of the objectives of this research was to explore whether materialism, which is often associated with Generation Y, is related with changes in youths' attitudes towards work. Because work is the normal means by which one can acquire material possessions, young people who place a high value on material objects should have higher work centrality (Twenge & Kessler, 2013). Research suggests, however, that caution should be taken when dealing with the issue of materialism in the younger generations. Some studies have found that increasing materialism among youths might be accompanied by a reduction in work centrality (e.g., Highhouse, *et al.*, 2010; Smola & Sutton, 2002; Twenge, *et al.*, 2010). Another possible explanation could be that entitlement, which is the perception that one deserves things without necessarily working for them, may have increased (Twenge & Kessler, 2013).

Research suggests that narcissism, another trait that is related to the entitlement mentality, may have increased among the younger generations (e.g., Stinson, Dawson, Goldstein, and Chou, 2008; Twenge & Foster, 2010). Narcissistic individuals have an exaggerated sense of self and often believe that attaining wealth is not related to hard work, but that material possessions are due to them just because of who they are (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). The impression created by these findings is that on the whole, there is a generational shift in expectations and reality, such that instead of materialism and work ethic complementing each other, the two may not be related (Twenge & Kessler, 2013).

Research indicates the importance of conducting research on materialism among the youth because materialism is often associated with a variety of problems (Twenge & Kasser, 2013). Literature in this area suggests a negative correlation between materialism and wellbeing (e.g., Belk, 1983; Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002; Kasser & Ryan, 1993; Richins & Dawson, 1992). Muncy and Eastman (1998) argued that materialism has a negative effect on quality of life. Individuals who rate materialistic values highly have been found to have lower levels of personal life satisfaction, as well as higher levels of depression (Hurst *et al.*, 2014; Hurst *et al.*, 2002a). Twenge, Campbell, & Gentile (2011) also reported negative associations between materialistic values and personal wellbeing among different generations.

Most definitions of materialism indicate that the primary pursuit of a materialistic lifestyle is to find happiness and satisfaction from one's possessions (Fournier & Richins, 1991). The evidence, however, shows that one cannot truly find happiness and satisfaction from possessions alone (Ahivia 2002). Materialistic individuals have been found to not engage in cooperative behaviours and to be more likely to exhibit prejudicial attitudes (e.g., Duriez, Vansteenkiste, Soenens, & De Witte, 2007; Vohs, Mead, & Goode, 2006). Individuals who value material things are perceived as caught in a vicious cycle of acquiring material objects in search of happiness, and yet not finding happiness (Mick, 1996; Richins & Dawson, 1992). Other researchers though, view material goods as a means by which individuals cope with insecurity and self-worth (Chang & Arkin, 2002; Kasser, 2002 a). Kassiola (1990), however, described materialism as the negative outcome of industrialism.

2.6.4 Positive aspects of materialism

Not all researchers condemn materialism. For example, Kilbourne *et al.* (2005) stated from a social perspective that it is possible to find positive aspects of materialism. Csikszentmihalyi and Rochberg-Halton (1981) proposed a distinction between what they call instrumental and terminal materialism. Instrumental materialism entails the use of material objects as symbols to strengthen interpersonal relationships. Terminal materialism, however, occurs when the desire for more possessions becomes the ultimate objective and consumption becomes an end and not a means to anything.

Some researchers are of the view that 'terminal' materialism may not even be possible (e.g., Fournier & Richins, 1991). The argument presented by these researchers is that the desire for possessions is rarely an end in itself, but is "a means of satisfying needs such as desires for prestige, self-assertiveness, and prominence" (Foumier & Richins, 1991, p. 405). Yankelovich (1982) noteed that most American adults hold materialistic attitudes, and that material objects are a necessity in modem society. Holt (1995) also suggested that materialism may serve a motivational role, providing individuals with a means of creating a legacy for themselves. Burroughs and Rindfleisch (1997) suggested further that materialism may play a positive role in assisting young adults to cope with the stress associated with family circumstances such as parental divorce. The young adult can, for example, focus on amassing material possession in order to cope with insecurity. Some researchers have argued that it is the capitalist economic organisation that engenders negative aspects of materialism (e.g., Fromm, 1976; Galbraith, 1972). Chang and Arkin (2002) argued, however, that not every person living in capitalist societies ends up being materialistic because cultural norms of a society do not affect individuals in the same manner.

2.6.5 Possible antecedents of materialism

Researchers have offered a number of possible antecedents of materialism from both a sociological and psychological perspective. Daun (1983) pointed out that some theories have stated that materialism is a need for control rather than a need for meaning. The argument presented by theorists who subscribe to the above thinking is that in the modern world, the state has a lot of power and control over its citizens. Another argument is that mass media provides people with information overload, which results in people experiencing loss of control of their lives; material possessions then offer a form of compensatory freedom and control (Kasser, Ryan, Couchman, & Sheldon, 2004*).*

Ger and Belk's (1996) study supported Duan's (1983) theory when they found that Romanians viewed material possessions as empowering and self-enhancing expressions of control and freedom. Perceptions of normlessness have also been considered as antecedents of materialism (Daun, 1983; Ross & Mirowsky, 1987; Seeman, 1991). When society is perceived as lacking norms and guidelines for behaviour, people turn to material objects as guides. Ger and Belk (1996) argued that materialism has dramatically increased in countries where sudden changes in society have taken place, resulting in social mobility and/or migration and confusion in social norms.

Chang and Arkin (2002) argued that materialism may be viewed as a coping mechanism, where people who perceive themselves as normless turn to material possessions.

The above contradictory findings indicate that materialism is still not a well understood concept (Kilbourne *et al.*, 2005). However, one consistent finding in materialism studies has been that materialism is negatively associated with concepts such as happiness, wellbeing, and life satisfaction (Belk, 1985; Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002; Richins & Dawson, 1992). From the above, it can be seen that materialism is an underdeveloped and complex phenomenon that still requires further research in a variety of settings for it to be better understood. Further adding to the complexity of understanding materialism and thus the need to understand it better, is that materialism operates at both individual and social levels, and can be both positive and negative (Kilbourne, Grunhagen, Foley, 2005).

2.6 6 Materialism in South Africa

In South Africa, some attention has been drawn to the fact that South Africans' propensity for consumption and indebtedness is very high (Jacobs & Smit, 2011). Monetary authorities, economists, and the media have been very critical of this type of consumptive behaviour. One of the main concerns is the South African Reserve Bank's measurement that the ratio of indebtedness as a portion of household disposable income rose by 44 per cent between 1994 and 2008 (Jacobs & Smit, 2011, p. 1). In a study to determine whether materialism explains indebtedness among low-income consumers in South Africa, Jacobs and Smit (2011) found that those above 50 years were less materialistic than the 25-34 age groups. The conclusion reached was that South Africans have moderately high levels of materialism. Another finding by Jacobs and Smit (2011) was that low-income consumers showed relatively high materialism levels. The present study therefore aims to extend literature as it relates to materialism in the South African context.

2.6.7 Summary

The above section identified areas that have been engaged in research on materialism: sociology, economics, consumer psychology, and marketing. Different definitions of materialism were given by different scholars.

The common thread in all the definitions was that materialism is about the relationship between the individual and possessions, and that materialistic individuals' self-worth is enhanced in some way by possessions. Two perspectives on materialism were discussed: the socialisation perspective and the psychological perspective. An observation made in most studies was that materialism appeared to be increasing among youths in both affluent and less affluent countries. Most studies viewed materialism negatively, although some (though few) did view materialism positively. The entitlement mentality is discussed next.

2.7 ENTITLEMENT MENTALITY

"Don't go around saying the world owes you a living. The world owes you nothing. It was here first."
- Mark Twain

The concept of entitlement has gained a lot of attention in the mass media. In his seminal work on capitalist culture, Bell (1976) identified an attitude of entitlement as the central, emerging dimension of the consciousness of the working population. According to Bell (1976), the revolution of rising expectations in Western society transformed into a revolution of rising entitlements. Such entitlement may be a demand for access to basic minimum income from government, or the demand for life-time employment (Bell, 1976).

Unemployment among young workers is arguably the most serious challenge facing South Africa today. 30-50 per cent unemployment rates among inner-city youth have persisted in the past few decades, even during periods of economic expansion, and have not decreased with policies aimed at reducing unemployment (Statistics South Africa, 2015). The 2008 global crisis affected South Africa just as it did other countries across the globe. As would be expected, young people and other vulnerable groups were among the worst-hit victims of the crisis. From 2008-2015 in South Africa, unemployment rates among the youth have increased (Statistics South Africa, 2015). The frustration of not finding employment led to what has been termed the "discouraged worker hypothesis", where people exit the labour market altogether, discouraged by not finding employment (Statistics South Africa, 2015, p. 9).

As a result of the global recession, the unemployment rates among the youth in South Africa rose from 32.7 per cent in 2008 to 36.1 per cent in 2011, and remained between 35 and 37 per cent in subsequent years (Statistics South Africa, 2015, p. 6) Such a scenario portends a potentially volatile future for any country, as these young people may well have nothing to lose and enough reason to engage in protests in coming years (Bloom, 2012). The world over, the youth have proved to be powerful agents of change. When their skills and ambitions in different areas such as work lie idle, society can expect a revolution of some sort, which will profoundly shape society for years to come (Bloom, 2012).

2.7.1 Entitlement and radicalism

Commenting on the American situation in 1978, which was similar to the current one in South Africa, Derber (1978) stated that there is a need to consider the importance of questions concerning the response of young workers to both unemployment and under-employment, particularly in a labour force marked by rising levels of education. Derber (1978) further argued that if there are many young people who are unable to find work commensurate with their education and aspirations, or unable to find any jobs at all, a potentially large pool of discontented, youthful, unemployed people could be created. Of particular interest to Derber (1978) was whether their discontent is likely to surface in political forms; Derber (1978) asked, for example, whether these potential workers would be inclined toward radical interpretations of their problems. Derber (1978) also contemplated whether there is any likelihood of a new wave of collective protest rooted in the chronic and growing youthful labour surplus in society. According to Derber, (1978), this situation may cause the emergence of a culture of entitlement within the younger generation of workers, suggesting a new potential for radicalism among the unemployed or those employed in jobs that do not challenge their skills or interests.

As has been seen in recent protest movements in North Africa and other parts of the world, the youth have been at the forefront of driving these movements. These protests have taken place in both developing and developed countries (Bloom, 2012). The youth are powerful stakeholders in future political, social, and economic systems. They are likely to insist on economic systems that support their aspirations, meet their need for a decent standard of living, and offer them hope for the future. Failure to satisfy the needs of the youth for economic engagement could promote frustration and conflict (Bloom, 2012).

Recently, South Africa witnessed protests from university students demanding free education. Such action by the youth may be a manifestation of this entitlement mentality. Bell's (1976) analysis suggests a fundamental change in the origins of the entitlement belief. Most important is the development of entitlement beliefs no longer based on personal accomplishment, but on an emerging culture of entitlement (Derber, 1978).

Sennett (1973) argued that educational achievement has been the primary source of entitlement sentiment in all areas of American life, and that job entitlement feelings are normally associated with the educated. South African youth are more educated than previous generations; therefore, if Sennett's theory is correct, Generation Y in South Africa is expected to have a higher sense of entitlement because they are the most educated generation in South Africa (Martins & Martins, 2012).

According to Deber (1978), highly entitled workers are more likely to be receptive to radical ideas, which is related to changes in who workers blame for unemployment. Classic studies by Bakke (1940) and Kornhauser (1965) supported the idea that traditional patterns of acceptance of deprivation by American workers resulted in the worker blaming him/herself. Deber (1978) proposed however that the highly entitled worker is more likely to blame the larger society or the government because the sense of entitlement is likely to engender the feeling that society is to blame for not ensuring and enforcing what is now regarded as a right.

Figure 3 shows that as society becomes more prosperous and better educated, it develops higher expectations from its institutions. Through the mass media, television, movies, and the internet, people receive a lot of information that in turn raises their awareness. Carroll and Buchholtz (2015) stated that the revolution of rising expectations is a perception that each successive generation should have a higher standard of living than that of its predecessor; therefore, from the revolution of rising expectations is the emergence of the entitlement mentality. Awareness gives rise to the rights movement, and related to the rights movement is a growing number of people who view themselves as having been victimised by society.

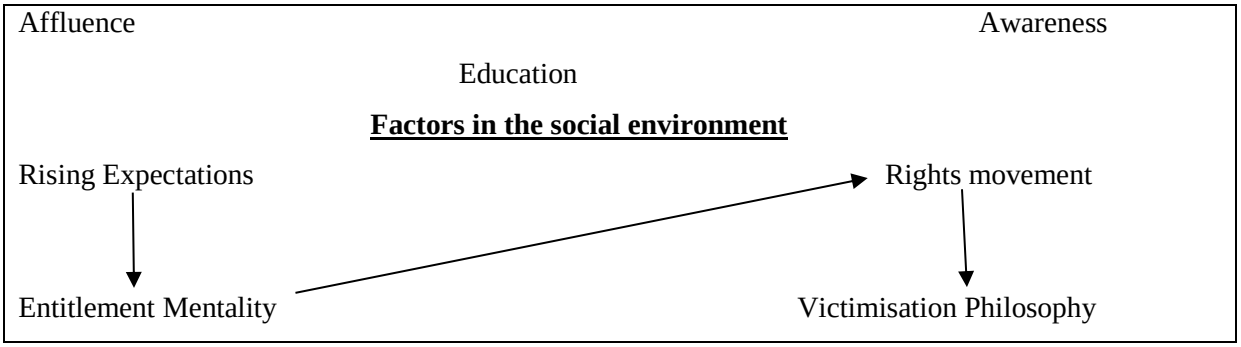


Figure 2: Development of the entitlement mentality

Adapted from Carroll and Buchholtz (2015, p. 12)

Bell (1976) suggested that the entitlement belief may have profound political significance, giving rise to the political demands of organised labour. Deber's (1978) analysis suggested that the new sense of rights implies a potentially more militant political posture among young workers coming into the labour force. This has been witnessed in South Africa, where trade unions wield a lot of power. Given the political background of South Africa, where discriminatory workplace practices are still perceived to exist and because of research findings that suggest an increase in entitlement among young employees, further research in this area is required in South Africa.

2.7.2 Entitlement and narcissism

Entitlement has also been linked to narcissism, which is described as "the expectation of special privileges over others and special exemptions from normal social demands" (Raskin & Terry, 1988, p. 890). Psychological entitlement has been defined as an enduring belief that one should receive special treatment regardless of whether one deserves it or not (Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002; Snow, Kern, & Curlette, 2001). Harvey and Martinko (2009) defined psychological entitlement as "a stable tendency toward inflated self-perceptions and unjustifiable expectations regarding praise, rewards and other positive outcomes." The narcissistic individual feels entitled to special treatment and privileges because of their 'superiority' over others (Greenberger *et al.*, 2008). Boyd and Helms (2005) argued that some degree of psychological entitlement is common to most people (for instance, people feeling entitled to at least a basic education and health), but the difference is the level of entitlement shown (Campbell *et al.*, 2004; Derber, 1978; Snow, Kern, & Curlette, 2001). Those high on entitlement have a pervasive sense that they deserve more and are entitled to more than others (Campbell *et al.*, 2004).

Generalised entitlement, which is another component of narcissism, is not just an expectation that one *will* obtain a certain outcome, but that one *ought* to obtain a certain outcome (Raskin & Terry, 1988; Campbell *et al.*, 2004).

Narcissistic individuals have an exaggerated self-concept (Campbell, Rudich, & Sedikides, 2002). Research links narcissism to a wide range of negative personality traits, including distrustfulness (e.g., Raskin & Terry, 1988) and Machiavellianism (e.g., McHoskey, 1995). Individuals displaying high levels of entitlement are often seen by others as hostile or deceitful (Raskin & Terry, 1988). Extant literature suggests that narcissism and generalised entitlement are increasing among young workers (e.g., Twenge, 2007; Twenge & Campbell, 2009; Twenge, *et al.*, 2008), although there are some arguments against that hypothesis (e.g., Donnellan, Trzesniewski, & Robins, 2009; Trzesniewski & Donnellan, 2010).

Some individuals in society may prefer being treated as special or unique in social settings, and as such expect special privileges (Snow *et al.*, 2001). Literature associates high levels of psychological entitlement with negative outcomes. Unethical behaviour has been found to have a relationship with entitlement perceptions (Hamilton, 2003), and frustration with one's life is also one of the outcomes associated with entitlement perceptions (Robinson, 2007). Major (1994) argued that individuals with a high sense of entitlement get angry rather than disappointed when they do not get the outcome that they expected. Entitlement has also been found to be positively associated with hostility, dominance, aggression, and greed (e.g., Campbell, *et al.*, 2004; Raskin & Terry, 1988). Research has also indicated that entitled individuals do not like being criticised (e.g., Campbell *et al.*, 2004; Meltz, 2007). In the employment setting, this negative reaction may lead to employee turnover or poor performance. Research suggests that entitlement is increasing among the younger generations (e.g., Berman, 2007; Fisk, 2010), which may explain the widely held perception that young workers have a high staff turnover. Some researchers have argued that entitlement leads to low job satisfaction and affects the psychological contract by promoting unmet expectations (Naumann *et al.*, 2002).

2.7.3 Workplace entitlement

Workplace entitlement has been defined as the expected compensation resulting from participating in the employment relationship, regardless of performance (Naumann *et al.*, 2002).

Workplace entitlement does not balance employee obligations with employer obligations. Highly entitled employees expect to be rewarded without having to reciprocate through achieving high levels of performance.

2.7.4 Academic entitlement

Academic institutions are not immune to the label of entitlement either (Greenberger *et al.*, 2008), and have given rise to what is known as academic entitlement. This is an expectation by students that they should receive higher grades, often independent of performance (Kopp, Zinn, Finney, & Jurich, 2011). Academic entitlement has been viewed as a serious problem in education (e.g., Dubovsky, 1986; Twenge, 2009), as some students have been known to pester their lecturers for an increase in their marks for moderate work. Students with academic entitlement also expect teachers and lecturers to accommodate their idiosyncratic needs and preferences (Greenberger *et al.*, 2008).

One explanation for academic entitlement is that it is these students' parents who put pressure on their children by having very high expectations for them, as well as making social comparisons to exert pressure on their children (Greenberger *et al.*, 2008). Such parenting practices may create achievement anxiety in children, and these children then focus on grades at the expense of hard work and the satisfaction associated with learning (Greenberger *et al.*, 2008). Generation Y have been raised at a time when parenting philosophies have changed over time. While previous generations knew that 'children must be seen and not heard' or that something must be done because the parents says so, such parenting styles would be viewed negatively in today's world. Generation Y and their parents therefore have a very close relationship compared with previous generations (Erickson, 2009; Patalano, 2008). In trying to bolster the confidence of their children, parents heap praise on their children early in life, which has resulted in what some view as confidence, but others consider false self-confidence and a sense of entitlement (Erickson, 2009). In addition, Lancaster & Stillman (2010) explained that Generation Y regard themselves as special, and when they enter the job market, they expect a lot in the form of perks and promotions.

Zemojtel-Piotrowska *et al.* (2013) argued that a fundamental issue in the conceptualisation of entitlement is whether the concept denotes passivity or activity. Studies that have been carried out on entitlement have not made it clear whether entitlement is an active self-promoting concept (e.g., Twenge & Campbell, 2009) or a passive expectation (e.g., Lewicka, 2002). Another conceptual problem identified by researchers is whether entitlement is detrimental (e.g., Lessard, Greenberger, Chen, & Farruggia, 2011; Raskin & Terry, 1988) or positive (e.g., Campbell, Rudich, & Sedikides, 2002; Morf, Horvath, & Torchetti, 2011). Such contradictory findings only point to a gap in research with regard to entitlement and its conceptualisation.

In an effort to unpack this phenomenon, Zemojtel-Piotrowska *et al.* (2013) proposed three dimensions of entitlement: active, passive, and revenge entitlement. Active entitlement is the belief that one deserves the best of everything. It is related to higher self-esteem and self-enhancement values. Passive entitlement, however, is expressed in the belief that public institutions have to support those in need; it is related to lower self-esteem. Finally, revenge entitlement is expressed in the belief that one has a right to seek revenge after being wronged.

2.7.5 Generation Y and entitlement

According to Twenge and Foster (2008), a lot of managers and organisations are concerned about the escalation of entitlement in today's world. This escalation has been linked to the entrance of Generation Y employees into the workforce. Generation Y have been described as having an inflated self-esteem; recent studies have shown that younger workers have a high self-esteem compared to previous generations (Twenge & Campbell, 2001). Using a meta-analysis involving data taken between the years 1968 and 1995, Twenge and Campbell (2001) found that self-esteem has risen substantially over the years, with average respondents in the mid-1990s having a higher self-esteem score than 73 per cent of their late 1960s peers. One explanation on rising levels of entitlement among youths has linked entitlement and narcissistic attitudes to increasing levels of self-esteem among youths (Twenge, 2006). In the workplace, Generation Y are expected to display this sense of entitlement through the demands that they make (Karefalk, Petterssen, & Zhu, 2007).

Generation Y are considered to be more entitled than other generations with regards to their employment expectations (Twenge, 2006). Some managers believe that Generation Y employees are not willing to sacrifice or work as hard as older generations to obtain a promotion (Twenge & Foster, 2008). However, studies conducted by Na'Desh (2008) and Alexander and Sysko (2012) indicated that Generation Y are willing to put in a lot of hard work, but also expect immediate rewards and praise.

The entitlement mentality has been researched in other fields of study that include the legal, philosophy, political science, marketing, and anthropology. According to Naumann *et al*. (2002), the common thread underlying perspectives on entitlement is that individuals' entitlements are based on being human. Table 4 below provides definitions of an entitlement mentality in the fields of study mentioned above.

Table 4: Entitlement in other fields

FIELD OF STUDY	AUTHOR(S)
Legal	Something owed by law that cannot be taken away without due process (Black's Law Dictionary, 1990).
Philosophy	What individuals expect in their functioning in life. Certain inalienable rights (Nozick's, 1974).
Political Science	The emerging right to democratic governance (Franck, 1992).
Marketing	Customers' comparisons between what they expected and what they received (Kristensen, Martensen, & Gronholdt, 1999).
Anthropology	Various cultures view themselves as being entitled to special rights (Carroll, 1994).
Management Sciences	Relatively stable belief that one should receive desirable treatment with little consideration of actual deservingness (Naumann, *et al*., 2002).

Adapted from Neumann *et al.* (2002)

2.7.6 THEORETICAL MODEL

Curwin and Slater (2008) defined a model as a representation of real objects or situations; they describe the benefits of model construction as:

- The necessity of having a good understanding of the object or situation.
- The recognition of all relevant variables.
- The understanding of relationships.

- The ability to undertake analysis.

Based on the literature review for this study, a model of the important variables was constructed. This model is presented in Figure 1. Hypothesis 1 is represented in the figure as H1, Hypothesis 2 as H2, and so on until Hypothesis 9, which is represented as H9. In this phase of the research, a theoretical framework was developed, which was tested quantitatively. Four analyses were undertaken:

1. The potential influence of demographic factors on work centrality, materialism, work values, and an entitlement mentality;
2. The potential influence of work centrality and work values on an entitlement mentality;
3. The potential influence of material values on an entitlement mentality; and
4. The potential influence of material values on the relationship between demographic factors, work values, work centrality, and an entitlement mentality.

Because it is not possible to ascribe causality through quantitative testing; the potential influence of variables on one another will be tested.

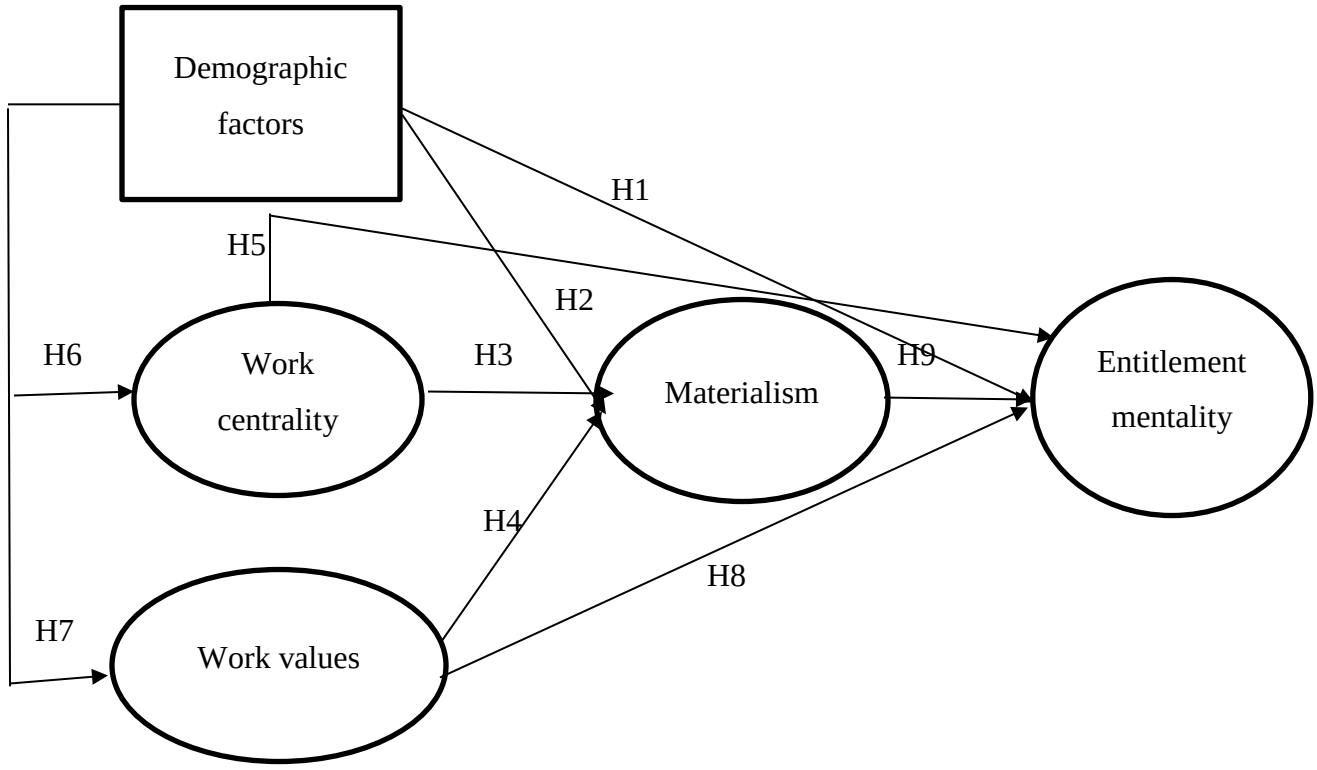


Figure 3: Hypothesised model

H1: There is a significant association between demographic factors and an entitlement mentality

H2: There is a significant association between demographic factors and work centrality

H3: There is a significant association between demographic factors and work values

H4: There is a significant association between demographic factors and materialism

H5: There is a significant association between work centrality and materialism

H6: There is a significant association between work centrality and an entitlement mentality

H7: There is a significant association between work values and materialism

H8: There is a significant association between work values and an entitlement mentality

H9: There is a significant association between materialism and an entitlement mentality

H10a: Materialism mediates the relationship between demographic factors and an entitlement mentality

H10b: Materialism mediates the relationship between work centrality and an entitlement mentality

H10c: Materialism mediates the relationship between work values and an entitlement mentality

2.8 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

In Chapter 2, the literature associated with generational cohort theory and general values was first reviewed. The broad context of general values was introduced, typologies of values were discussed, and definitions were given in relation to the literature. Literature associated with general values was reviewed, particularly in relation to the work of Rokeach (1973) and Dose (1977). Literature associated with each of the following variables was then reviewed: (i) materialistic values; (ii) work values; (iii) work centrality; (iv) the entitlement mentality; and (v) the employment expectations of Generation Y.

The first part of this section discussed the origins of entitlement, followed by a discussion of possible causes of entitlement, with specific reference to young people. The following types of entitlement were defined and discussed: psychological, generalised, and academic. In keeping with the objectives of the study, a discussion on the types of entitlement was followed by a discussion of Generation Y and entitlement. The final part of this section highlighted the different fields of study where the term entitlement is often used and the meanings attached to it. Based on the literature review conducted above, a theoretical model and hypotheses were developed. Research methodology is discussed next in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous section reviewed literature that relates demographic factors, entitlement mentality, materialistic values, work ethics, and work centrality to career expectations. The objective of this research is to develop and test a model relating these bodies of literature to Generation Y's career expectations, as represented by tertiary students. Based on this analysis, it is expected that a holistic perspective of the relationship between demographic factors and the career expectations of the youngest generation will be produced. Based on the literature reviewed in the previous chapter, some precedents guide this research. This chapter therefore builds upon and extends the previous chapter, by focusing on the research methods adopted for this study. In this chapter, the quantitative method of research that was applied to examine the relationships is discussed. The purpose of the quantitative study was to provide insight into the attitudes, behaviours, and career expectations of Generation Y, and to also provide a theoretical model that could also be empirically tested. It is therefore hoped that this study will provide a holistic analysis of generation Y's attitudes towards work prior to entering the workplace.

In this chapter, a discussion is given on how the research fits within existing research paradigms. Next, the quantitative research design, scope of the study, population and sample, and methodology are introduced and discussed. Thereafter, issues relating to the data collection process, the sampling process, the sample size calculation, the sampling protocol, reliability, and validity are outlined. The hypotheses are then considered, and the scale measures and statistical methods used to test each hypothesis are also discussed. This chapter concludes with a discussion of ethical issues and the limitations associated with the research.

3.2. PLACEMENT OF THE RESEARCH WITHIN RESEARCH PARADIGMS

The aim of this section is to examine the main philosophical perspectives that underpin the methodological designs of this research, and to also place it within existing research paradigms. It is generally accepted that research starts with a research problem. In addition to the different areas of interest from which researchers can choose a research problem, there are distinct paradigms that exist within the same area of interest. Kuhn (1962) explained the areas of interest by defining a paradigm in two ways:

- As representing a particular way of thinking that is common to a group of scientists dealing with issues peculiar to their field; and
- As representing the norms, values, and methods common to a particular field.

According to Wagner, Kawulich, and Garner (2012), a paradigm is informed by the following three components: ontology, epistemology, and axiology. The assumptions that underpin any research relate to epistemology, which are the assumptions about the grounds of knowledge itself, and ontology, which are the assumptions about the nature of the problem under investigation (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Bailey (1982) defined a paradigm as a point of view of the social world, and argued that paradigms differ in terms of assumptions and values. Esterby-Smith, Thorpe, and Lowe (2002) stated that as such, all research is generally guided by the researcher's assumptions, beliefs, values, and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied.

Burrell and Morgan (1979) proposed four paradigms: radical humanist, radical structuralist, interpretive, and functionalist. Burrell and Morgan (1979) argued that the above four paradigms examine the social world from different viewpoints. They further defined a paradigm in terms of the convergence of perspectives that form a common thread that can be identified in the work of a group of theorists, such that their work can be regarded as identical in approaching social theory. This definition, however, does not imply that the theorists are in complete agreement in terms of thought, but that even within the same paradigm, theorists will be involved in a lot of debate about their different viewpoints. Burrel and Morgan (1979) suggested that each paradigm contains assumptions that can be viewed as objective, subjective and interpretivist.

Positivism, which is normally associated with quantitative research, is a paradigm that studies social reality using the application of methods from the natural sciences (Bryman & Bell, 2012). Scientific methods are therefore viewed as the only method to establish the truth. The main idea of positivism is that the social world exists externally and that the researcher should attempt to measure its properties by using objective methods rather than subjective methods, such as sensation or intuition (Easterly-Smith *et al.*, 2002). The subjectivist assumption views an organisation as socially constructed by people, and therefore it can only be understood from the lens of those who are directly affected by its activities (Bryman, Hirschsohn, Du Toit, Masenge, Van Aardt, & Wagner, 2014). The subjectivist perspective therefore focuses on what people think and feel individually and collectively.

Interpretivism, (also known as Post-positivism), is a term given to a contrasting epistemology to that of positivism (Bryman *et al*., 2014).

According to Clark (2005), ontology relates to the nature of reality. From a positivist perspective, reality is objective and separate from the researcher, whereas from a subjectivist perspective, reality depends on the point of view of the researcher. Clark (2005) also viewed epistemology as the relationship between the researcher and the researched. From a quantitative perspective, research must be value free and unbiased, and from a qualitative point of view, the researcher interacts with the researched. Clark (2005) also viewed axiology as expressing the role of values in research. The quantitative view of axiology is that research must be formal, based on an impersonal voice that uses accepted quantitative words and phrases. The qualitative view of axiology is that research is value–laden, and that the values of the researcher cannot be separated from the process.

The placement of the research in relation to paradigms in the literature is undertaken to justify the methods used in the study, which were derived from seminal research precedents. The research approach that was used in this study is the quantitative approach, which falls into the group of theoretical perspectives associated with positivism (Bak, 2004). The purpose of knowledge, according positivists, is to describe, analyse, and predict, and to allow for the control of, and improvement of, phenomena and processes (Bak, 2004). Bryman *et al.* (2014) stated that positivism involves the following principles:

1. Only phenomenon that can be observed by the senses can genuinely be verified as objects and sources of knowledge.
2. The purpose of theory is to generate hypotheses that can be tested, so that the validity of propositions can be assessed.
3. Knowledge is arrived at through gathering facts that provide the basis for universal propositions.
4. Science must be conducted in a way that is value free (objective).

The chosen paradigm of any study is likely to be informed by the following: how the researcher views the world, the researcher's training and experience, the researcher's psychological attributes, and the nature of the study (Clark, 2005). The choice of the quantitative (positivist) method for this study was influenced by the purpose of the study, which was to identify and explain the relationships between selected dependent and independent variables and Generation Y's entitlement mentality.

In this study, a two-stage, single method, called the cross-sectional survey, was employed. In order to analyse the data, two statistical techniques were used: descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. The quantitative design is discussed below.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGNS

Bryman and Bell (2011) identified five types of research designs, namely: experimental design; cross-sectional design; longitudinal design; case study design; and comparative design. Field experiments are rare in business and management research because of issues associated with the requisite level of control when dealing with organisational behaviour. Many studies in business and management research use the cross-sectional design, which entails the collection of data at a single point in time in order to collect quantifiable data in connection with two or more variables. As opposed to cross-sectional designs, in longitudinal studies, a sample is surveyed and is then further surveyed again on at least one more occasion. Because of time constraints, this design is also rarely used in business and management research. The case study design is a very popular research design in business and management research. It entails a detailed and thorough analysis of a single case, for example one organisation, single location, a person or a single event. As opposed to a case study, a comparative design entails the studying of two or more contrasting cases. It emphasises on comparisons, implying that social phenomenon can be better understood when they are compared in relation to two or more contrasting cases. The advantages of using any of these research designs is beyond the scope of this study. However, this study employed the cross-sectional design which is a very popular design in business and management research, especially in quantitative studies as was the case in this study. A cross-sectional study was earlier defined by Bailey (1982) as one that studies a broad sampling of persons with different characteristics at a certain point in time. Cooper and Schindler (2006) argued that cross-sectional studies offer the following advantages to the researcher: cross sectional studies are cheaper, save time, and generally yield a high response rate. The main advantage cited by Bailey (1982) is that the data from cross-sectional studies is reliable, since it is not affected by time lag. Wyse (2012) stated that some of the main advantages of using surveys are that they are easier to administer, they are flexible, efficient, and cheap, they can collect data from a large number of people, and they can provide accurate information.

According to Massey and Tourangeau (2013) since the 1960s, cross-sectional surveys and longitudinal surveys have risen in use to become the most important source of data about social and economic conditions in the United States. However, surveys are social interactions, and, like all interactions between people, they are embedded within social structures and guided by shared cultural understandings (Massey & Tourangeau, 2013). Given that survey interactions are always embedded within social structures and guided by shared understandings, they are necessarily influenced by broader changes in social structure and values. Notwithstanding that some social changes have improved the climate for survey research (increased individual openness and declining number of taboo subjects), other social changes have made surveys more difficult (stressful life styles). Furthermore, although some technological changes have made the job of the survey researcher easier (online questionnaires, rapid data processing, cheap data storage), other technological trends have made the researcher's job more difficult. In general, the net effect of recent social and technological changes in developed societies has been to undermine the ability of researchers to conduct surveys, as evidenced by declining response rates (Massey & Tourangeau, 2013). Response rates are likely to continue to fall and survey costs are likely to continue to rise.

3.3.1. QUANTITATIVE DESIGN

According to Curwin and Slater (2008), the quantitative approach is about using numbers to help define, describe, and resolve a wide range of problems. Curwin and Slater (2008) further stated that numbers can be used at three levels to help researchers solve problems:

- To describe a wide variety of situations, particularly when large quantities of data are involved.
- To allow the use of theory.
- To help develop models of real problems and use these models to look for improved solutions.

When data analysis is conducted, Schmitt and Drasgow (2002, p. 4) stated that "more sophisticated tools should never be used when a simple mean, standard deviation, frequency table, correlation, regression analysis, or plot of the data is sufficient to answer a research question". Schmitt & Drasgow (2002, p. 4) further argued that such simple techniques often need to be supplemented "with more complex multivariate, nonlinear procedures", in order to gain a more complete understanding of human behaviour, which is fundamentally complex in nature. This research follows this perspective.

Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004) stated that the traditional quantitative approach generally focuses on deduction, hypothesis testing, and prediction, and uses standardised data collection methods and statistical analysis. Data in this study was collected using group-administered questionnaires in a cross-sectional survey using scales derived from previous research (Creswell, 2005; McMillan, 2000). A rating method was used, which requires respondents to score a pre-determined set of items on a five-point Likert scale. Rating allows the respondents to assess each item in isolation, which lessens the cognitive burden on respondents (Lyons, 2003). The above-mentioned processes followed research precedent; the instrument used was adapted from previous research, and the language was developed to be as simple as possible (see Appendix D & E for copies of instruments used in this research). Confidentiality was guaranteed as respondents did not write their names; this also helped to minimise bias from respondents.

The use of group-administered questionnaires requires that a group of respondents be brought into one venue and then asked to complete the survey individually, on the spot (Trochim, 2006b). Group-administered questionnaires offer the following advantages:

- They can easily be used to gather data from a large group of respondents.
- They help save costs associated with posted questionnaires.
- There is normally a high response rate.
- Clarification on unclear items can be given immediately.

The disadvantages identified with this method are the following:

- They are limited to situations where a large number of people can be brought together.
- The sample may not be representative.
- Confidentiality may be compromised if individuals think their hand-writing may be recognised.
- It takes time to capture the data by hand.
- The researcher is not able to probe for more detailed information.

Curwin and Slater (2008) warned that after the selection of the data collection method, it is still necessary to ensure that the data collected is appropriate, adequate, and without bias. To minimise some of the disadvantage mentioned above, a two-stage proportionate sampling method was used. This way, representativity was ensured. Because the scale used was a Likert scale where respondents can either cross or tick in the appropriate box, the issue of recognisable hand-writing was eliminated.

The instrument had core survey items on five five-point Likert type scales, and captured the following variables: demographic factors, materialistic values, work values, work centrality and entitlement mentality. These variables were identified after a thorough review of relevant literature. The questionnaire was developed from previous literature (Kanungo, 1982; Lyons, 2003; Richins & Dawson, 1992; Lessard *et al*., 2011) and refined through consultation with academics experienced in scale development. The questionnaire was further pre-tested using a sample 50 students. Scale response categories were altered after testing for reliability (Cronbach's alpha) and validity (Exploratory Factor Analysis). The final version of the questionnaire was evaluated in terms of instructions, ease of use, clarity, item wording and response formats, and was judged to possess face and context validity (Hair, 2006, p. 147).

3.4 SAMPLING THEORY AND PROCESS

The sampling frame from which the research respondents were drawn consisted of tertiary students studying in Johannesburg, South Africa; these students included those registered at a private tertiary college with a total enrolment of 6,033 students, as well as undergraduate students registered in the School of Economics and Business Sciences at a public university, with a total student population of more than 5000. The private college is considered to be the biggest private (non-university) college in the Gauteng region of South Africa in terms of student population. It offers a wide range of courses, from certificate courses to degree courses in three faculties; Business, Information technology and Humanities. The public university is also considered to be one of the biggest in South Africa. The population from which the empirical sample was drawn included all registered students who were between the ages of 18 and 32; this was based on the delineation of members of Generation Y having been born between 1982 and 1999 (Smola & Sutton, 2002). Although these years include respondents who could be less than 18 years, such respondents were excluded from the study on ethical grounds. Although all respondents were tertiary students, this was not considered to be inappropriate because the main dependant variable of the study was the entitlement mentality of Generation Y who, by birth years, are members of Generation Y. Since it was difficult to get the sampling frame (class registers) for undergraduate university students, convenience sampling was used for the university students. This study therefore, employed a quasi-probability method because probability sampling was used only on students at the private college as it was possible to get a sampling frame from the college and not from the university.

According to Cooper and Schindler (2006), the use of probability samples results in the generalisation of findings to the population of interest.

3.4.1 Types of probability samples

Wagner *et al.* (2012) stated that probability sampling is generally selected to ensure that all potential participants have an equal chance of selection. As a result, the chance of representation is higher than in non-probability sampling. Curwin and Slater (2008) further stated that the essential characteristic of probability sampling is that a procedure is devised such that each person is given a known chance of inclusion. The researcher does not influence the actual identification and selection of individuals. As already noted, using random samples ensures representativity; this means selecting a sample from the whole population in such a way that all members of the population have an equal chance of being selected (Wagner *et al.*, 2012).

Bias is defined by Leedy (1982, p. 161) as "any influence, condition, or set of conditions, which singly, or together, cause distortion of the data from those which may have been obtained under the conditions of pure chance; furthermore, any influence which may have disturbed the randomness by which the choice of a sample population has been selected". A sample may be drawn from a population using a number of methods, such as simple random sampling and stratified sampling. These two methods are presented below.

3.4.2 Simple random sampling

Random does not mean haphazard selection. Instead, from a research design perspective, it means that each member of the population has an equal chance of participating. Simple random sampling is a basic technique often used if the population is small and homogeneous. The first stage of simple random sampling entails the accurate construction of the sampling frame, and then ensuring that elements are selected without showing any bias. A biased sample is one in which some outside influence may have disturbed the randomness of the sample selection (Bryman *et al.*, 2014). The most important stage here is the construction of the sampling frame. If some elements are listed more than once, they have a greater probability of selection, whereas those that are omitted have no chance of selection.

Simple random sampling ensures that all elements of the population have an equal chance of selection. This method was followed in selecting the sample at the private college in this study.

3.4.3 Stratified sampling

A population may consist of clear strata, each of which may be different, but the units within the stratum are fairly homogeneous (Leedy, 1982). If there are distinct groups or strata within the population that can be identified before sample selection takes place, it would make sense to use this additional knowledge to ensure that each group is represented in the final sample by using stratification (Curwin & Slater, 2008).

Wagner *et al.* (2012) argued that stratified sampling is suitable for use when various but clearly recognisable and non-overlapping sub-populations exist. In the case of a college, students may be stratified in terms of the programmes that they are studying and their year of study. It is possible to do random sampling in such cases by first dividing the sampling frame into the strata and then doing simple random sampling within each one of these stratums. This was the method followed in the present study. The methods for collecting data are considered below.

3.5 Data collection process

Data can be quantitative or qualitative (Struwig & Stead, 2004). There are a number of methods that can be employed to collect data, which include observation, interviews, or using personal surveys or questionnaires (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). The method a researcher chooses to collect data depends on the type of information that the researcher is trying to collect. The present study adopted the survey method, which is suitable for gathering data from a large group of people within a short period of time. Surveys may use questionnaires or interviews; the present study collected data using a questionnaire.

A questionnaire may be defined as an instrument for collecting data that is beyond the physical reach of the observer (Leedy, 1982). This method of data collection is normally employed, but not limited to cross-sectional studies. Questionnaires were distributed in classes identified during the sampling process and retrieved directly after completion.

Wyse (2012) stated that some of the main advantages of using surveys are that they are easier to administer, they are flexible, efficient, and cheap, they can collect data from a large number of people, and they can provide accurate information. Wyse (2012) also notes some of the disadvantages of surveys, which include that respondents may provide inaccurate information, respondents may have forgotten some answers, and they may submit incomplete questionnaires. Although the above disadvantages of a survey have been noted, the method is still very popular with researchers.

In order to protect respondents, consent forms were used and respondents were asked to sign the consent form after reading it. In order to guarantee the respondents' anonymity and confidentiality, respondents were asked not to enter their names on the questionnaire forms. Although cover letters and consent forms were attached to the survey instrument, they were separated after completion of the questionnaire, in order to guarantee anonymity. To ensure that the data for this study was collected anonymously, the demographic data on each questionnaire only included a request for age, gender, and year of study. Some kind of generalisability was ensured through the use of steps adapted from Ross's (2005) recommendations for research that involves educational institutions. Because only the private college was able to make class registers available to the researcher, these steps were carried out at the private college, and not at the university:

Step 1a: List the basic characteristics of the sample design: students aged between 18 and 33 years.
1b: Identify the desired target population: all students attending the private college.
1c: Identify the stratification variables: programmes offered by the private college.
1d: Sampling stages: First Stage: programmes selected within strata using probability proportional to size. Second Stage: students selected within classes by using simple random sampling.
1e: Minimum cluster size: fixed cluster of 20 students per class.

Step 2a: Obtain class register(s) of attendance
These registers are obtained for all students in the defined target population
2b: Place a sequential number beside the name of each student in the register
For example, consider a class with a total of 50 students. Commence by placing the number '1' beside the first student on the register, then place the number '2' beside the second student on the register, and so. Finally, place the number '48' beside the last student on the register.

2c: Locate the appropriate set of selection numbers

In Appendix F, sets of "random number tables" have been listed for a variety of class sizes. For example, if a class has 50, the appropriate set of selection numbers is listed under the 'R50' heading. Similarly, if a class has 90 students, then the appropriate set of selection numbers is listed under the 'R90' heading.

2d: Use the appropriate set of random numbers

After locating the appropriate set of random numbers, use the first random number to locate the student with the same sequential number on the register. Next, use the second random number to locate the student with the same sequential number on the register. Continue with this process until the complete sample of students has been selected.

Using the above recommended procedure, a total of 1,000 questionnaires were distributed at the private college in Stage One, (14 % of the total student population) and 421 usable questionnaires were returned which represented a 42% response rate. A total of 280 questionnaires were distributed at the public university using convenience sampling and 102 usable questionnaires were returned, which represented a 36 % response rate. Baruch (1999) conducted a study to explore what could and should be a reasonable response rate in academic studies using one hundred and forty-one papers which included 175 different studies. The average response rate ranged from 36 % to 55.6 %. The response rates for this study were therefore considered to be adequate. In Stage Two, 700 questionnaires were distributed at the private college using the same steps as in Stage One and 250 usable questionnaires were returned (36% response rate) and 150 questionnaires were distributed at the university and 67 usable questionnaires were returned (41 % response rate). Stage One therefore, had a combined total of 523 responses and Stage Two had 317 responses. The total respondents for both stages were 840.

3.6 THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT USED IN THE STUDY

The measuring instrument used in the study measured the five variables that were the focus of this study. Because no single study has focused on these five variables, different instruments were adapted, in order to come up with a single instrument measuring the five variables. The section below describes the different sections of the instrument as they relate to each of the five variables (for an example of the instrument used, see Appendix D and E).

3.6.1 Work centrality

This variable was measured using a six-item scale adapted from Kanungo (1982) with Cronbach's alpha score of .75. The Work Involvement Questionnaire was developed using a sample of 703 undergraduate- and graduate-level students, and therefore was considered appropriate for the study. Participants were asked to respond using a five-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Participants' scores for each subscale were the average of the items, with higher scores indicating higher levels of the corresponding construct.

3.6.2Work values

This variable was measured using items from the Work Value Survey Scale developed by Lyons (2003). The items in the measure were developed after a thorough review of established work value measures. The original scale had 31 items addressing five key dimensions of work values: intrinsic work values, extrinsic work values, prestige work values, altruistic work values, and social work values. The scale had Cronbach's alpha score of .72. The present study aimed to examine intrinsic and extrinsic work values, since most researchers agreed on the universality of these subscales. The intrinsic work values subscale had six items and the extrinsic work values had three items. Respondents were asked to indicate the value that they placed on each item, by rating its importance from 1 (*not important at all*) to 5 (*very much important).*

3.6.3 Materialism scale

Richins and Dawson's (1992) Materialism Scale, as adapted by Twenge and Kessler (2013), was used with Cronbach's alpha of .73. For this scale, (with five items) respondents were asked to rate how important it is, for example, "to have lots of money", on a 1 (*not important*) to 4 (*extremely important*) scale.

3.6.4 Entitlement mentality scale

The scale used for this variable was developed by Lessard *et al.* (2011). The questionnaire was made up of two subscales that assessed distinct variants of entitlement.

First, there was the five-item Non-Exploitive Entitlement subscale, which assessed beliefs of deservedness that do not impinge upon the rights of others; e.g., *"I deserve to be treated with respect by everyone"* and *"I am entitled to get into the career that I want."* The second subscale, which is known as the Exploitive Entitlement subscale, assessed beliefs of special privilege that are possessed at the expense of others; e.g., *"I shouldn't have to work as hard as others to get what I deserve"* and *"Because of the things I have been through personally, others should cut me a break in life."* Participants were asked to respond using a five-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

3.6.5 Demographic factors

The questions for this section of questionnaire related to gender, age, and year of study.

3.7 SAMPLE SIZE CALCULATION

Curwin and Slater (2008) have observed that the size of a required sample will depend on the following factors:

- The accuracy required.
- The variability of the population.
- The detail required in analysis.

A number of formulae have been proposed by a number of researchers, some of which are rather complicated. Yamane (1967) provided a simplified formula to calculate sample sizes. This formula was used to calculate the sample size in this study. The formula that was used to estimate the minimum acceptable sample size:

$n = N/1+N\,(e)^2$

Where:

• n = sample size

• N = population size

• e =level of precision

Therefore, in order to attain a certain level of precision, the minimum acceptable sample size was taken to be:

$n = 10\ 000/1+10\ 000(.05)^2 = 385$.

3.8 CONFIDENCE LEVELS FOR STATISTICAL TESTING

The significance level of five per cent, or $\alpha = 0.05$ was used as the point where the probability of making a Type I error or rejecting a true null hypothesis was considered equal to the probability of making a Type II error or rejecting a false null hypothesis (Edwards, 1984).

3.9 DATA ANALYSIS

In the following sections, the processes applied for the quantitative analysis of data collected for this research are discussed.

3.9.1 Descriptive statistics

In research, data that is essentially quantitative in nature is analysed by means of appropriate statistical tools. Durrheim (1999) stated that descriptive analysis aims to describe the data by investigating the distribution of scores on each variable, and by determining whether the scores on different variables are related to each other. Descriptive statistics merely provide a description of the sample data, without attempting to make any inferences (Bailey, 1982). Descriptive statistics involves the use of measures of central tendency, variation, frequencies, and dispersions of dependent and independent variables. At this point, the researcher just wants to have a feel for the data (Sekaran, 2003).

3.9.2 Inferential statistics

The purpose of most research is to determine whether relationships between variables exist in the real world, in the population in general, and not only in their sample. Inferential statistics are used to draw conclusions about populations on the basis of data obtained from samples (Durrheim, 1999).

Leedy (1982) has stated that the purpose of statistical analysis is to probe data using statistics so that the researcher may infer certain meanings that lie hidden within the data, or to discern potential areas that may warrant further investigation. Inferential statistics, as opposed to descriptive statistics, allow the researcher to present the data in a manner that facilitates the identification of important patterns, which makes the data analysis more meaningful (Welman, Kruger, & Mitchell, 2011). Inferential statistics involves the use of inferences, estimation, predictions, and hypothesis testing (Leedy, 1982).

In quantitative research, the ultimate goal is to gain information of some kind about the population. In reality, however, researchers only have information about the sample from which the population is drawn and not the population itself. Therefore, accurate inferences need to be made, based on the sample data. This study is concerned with testing hypotheses that a relationship between two or more variables is significantly different from zero. If the relationship between two variables is zero, then there is no relationship, and a condition of statistical independence is said to exist (Bailey, 1982). By testing that the relationship is significantly different from zero, it can be assumed that there really is a relationship between the two variables in the population, and that the relationship found in the sample is not just an anomaly or the result of a sampling error. Although the results could never prove that a relationship exists beyond any reasonable doubt, the statistical theory of probability can allow for proof within a specified margin of error, otherwise known as confidence levels (Curwin & Slater, 2008). However, the relationship is not necessarily a causal one.

This study utilised structural equation modelling to test the hypotheses developed in chapter 1.There are three popular statistical packages for doing SEM. These are LISREL**,** AMOS, and EQS. The first two are distributed by SPSS. Most researchers in the social sciences use LISREL in articles about structural equation modeling. However, AMOS (Analysis of MOment Structures) is a more recent package which, because of its user-friendly graphical interface, has become popular as an easier way of specifying structural models. This study therefore used AMOS for its simplicity. A thorough discussion of the advantages of SEM over other tests such as regression analysis is provided in chapter 4. Exploratory factor analysis was used to test the validity of the instrument used. The goal of exploratory factor analysis is to select those items that are most related to the construct being studied. The purpose of factor analysis is to identify the fewest possible constructs needed to reproduce the original data (Gorsuch, 1997, p. 533). Cronbach's alpha was used to test reliability of the instrument.

3.9.3 Distribution of data

In an ideal world, the data collected would be distributed symmetrically around the centre of all scores. This is known as normal distribution. The normal distribution is relevant to many of the inferential tests carried out to test the hypotheses. Field (2011, p. 168) gave the following as important aspects to consider when fitting models to data and assessing them:

- **Parametric estimates**

The mean is a parameter and it is it can be biased by extreme scores. Therefore estimates of parameters are affected by non-normal distribution

- **Confidence intervals**

The standard normal distribution is used to compute the confidence interval around a parameter estimate. Using values of the standard normal distribution makes sense only if the parameter estimate came from data that is normally distributed.

- **Hypothesis testing**

Testing a hypothesis about a model and therefore the parameter estimate within it assumes that the parameter estimates have a normal distribution. This is because most parametric tests assume that the data is normally distributed and if the parameter estimate is normally distributed, then the test statistics and p values are likely to be accurate.

- **Errors**

Any model fit will include some errors and these errors (residuals or deviance) can be calculated. If the residuals are normally distributed in the population, then using the method of least squares which is used in SEM, will produce better estimates than other methods.

3.10 Data screening

Because SEM is a correlational research method, it does not work well with data that have missing entries, outliers, and non-normal data. SEM is also affected by sample size. Schumacker and Lomax (2004) argued that data screening is a very important step in SEM. Although most researchers advise that in terms of sample size, the bigger the better, there is no agreement on what constitutes a big sample. Hoyle (1995) recommended, a minimum sample size of 100 when using SEM. Jung (2013, p. 76) stated that the use of small sample sizes in SEM research have tended not to produce "good-quality solutions" Kline (2005) defined small samples as those with less than 100 observations. The sample size for Stage Two of this study was 317, which is above the recommended sample sizes.

SEM is also sensitive to large samples, as large sample sizes affect Chi Square results (Hoyle, 1995). Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) stated that with sample sizes of 400, SEM becomes too sensitive; as a result, almost all goodness of fit indices indicate a poor fit. Siddiqui, (2013, p. 285) further stated that the Chi square is sensitive to sample size, as the sample size increases, (above 200), the Chi square test statistic has a tendency to indicate a significant probability level. A sample size of 317 was therefore considered to be relatively safe.

The researcher also has the task of dealing with missing data. There are a number of options available when dealing with missing data; these include 'listwise deletion', which deletes all subjects with missing data, and 'pairwise deletion', which deletes all subjects with missing data only on the variables being analysed (Field, 2015). These methods can however result in a dramatic reduction of sample size. At this stage of analysis, the data for this study had no missing values, as questionnaires with missing values were rejected earlier during data the cleaning stage, thereby sparing the researcher the burden of deciding which method to adopt and justify.

Tabachnik and Fidel (2007) argued that the skewness and kurtosis values normally associated with samples of over 100 respondents can result in the incorrect rejection in the null hypothesis of no significant difference from normality when only minor deviations from normality are evident. In order to deal with outliers and the non-normality of data bootstrapping was performed and skewness, kurtosis, and box plots were also used to identify possible outliers and check for the normality of data.

West *et al.* (1995) recommended that remedial action be taken if the distribution begins to depart substantially from normality; the cut-off recommended is skewness = 2 and kurtosis = 7. An examination of skewness and kurtosis tests carried out on the measures indicated that they were all within the recommended values.

Box plots were also examined for outliers, as recommended by Hoaglin, Iglewicz, and Tukey (1986). No action was taken because the identified outliers only had '0' as identifiers and not '*', which indicates extreme values. Cohen and Cohen (1983) also recommend that if the outliers are few and not very extreme, they should be left alone. Based on the recommendations above, the data used in this study can be taken to be close to normal. However, as already noted in spite of the above tests, bootstrapping using 1,000 iterations was implemented for all appropriate analyses to correct for any anomalies within the data. Below is further analysis of the measures used in Stage two.

3.11 DISCRIMINANT VALIDITY

In their widely cited article, Fornell and Larcker (1981) argued that discriminant validity is established if a latent variable accounts for more variance in its indicator than it shares with other constructs in the same model. For this requirement to happen, each construct's average variance (AVE) must be compared with its squared correlations with other constructs in the model. The establishment of a discriminant validity is to ensure that the measurement scale used in the research and the conclusions reached are correct. Table 49 shows the results of the discriminant validity tests carried out on the measurement scale used in the study. All the variables demonstrate discriminant validity from each other.

Table 5: Discriminant validity

Construct	**EVA**	**CR**
Exploitative entitlement mentality	.78	.91
Work centrality	.74	.92
Extrinsic work values	.71	.90
Materialism	.79	.92
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality	.76	.90

The above section examined the reliability and validity of the measures used in Stage two of the study. Stage one was used to validate the scale items; those items that were identified as not valid or reliable were dropped in Stage two. After the removal of the items identified as not valid or reliable, the measures were considered to be both valid and reliable enough to conduct SEM.

3.12 VALIDITY

Bryman *et al.* (2014) stated that validity is concerned with the integrity of the conclusions that are generated from a piece of research. Selltiz, Jahoda, Morton, and Cook (1959, p. 168) stated earlier in their seminal work that:

> *"Certain basic questions must be asked about any measuring instrument: What does it measure? Are the data it provides relevant to the characteristics in which one is interested? To what extent do the differences in scores represent true differences in the characteristic we are trying to measure; to what extent do they reflect also the influence of other factors? The validity of a measuring instrument may be defined as the extent to which differences in scores on it reflect true differences among individuals on the characteristic that we seek to measure, rather than constant or random errors."*

Bailley (1982) stated that most definitions of validity have two parts:

(1) The measuring instrument is actually measuring the concept it purports to measure; and
(2) The concept is being measured accurately.

Validity is therefore concerned with the effectiveness of the instrument. Leedy (1982) argued that literature identifies six types of validity:

1. Face validity, which deals with whether the instrument is measuring what it purports to measure;
2. Criterion validity, which compares the performance of the instrument against a pre-determined set of criteria;
3. Content validity, which measures the accuracy with which an instrument measures the factors under study;

4. Construct validity, which is interested in the degree to which the construct itself is actually measured;
5. Internal validity, which seeks to ascertain that the changes in the dependent variable are a result of the influence of the independent variable rather than the manner in which the research was carried out; and
6. External validity, which is concerned with whether the findings may be generalised.

To address the concerns raised above on instrument validity, the research instruments used in this study were adapted from precedent. How can one establish confidence in the 'truth' of the findings of a particular inquiry in a different context? To some extent, truth value will be addressed in this research through the maintenance of tight linkages between the quantitative data and the analysis of this data.

3.13 RELIABILITY

Reliability refers to the consistency of the results of the study, and the extent to which the data collection techniques yield consistent findings (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008). Wagner *et al.* (2012) argued that it may not be possible to create an instrument that will consistently yield the same results every time that it is used. This is because people's responses to the same question may be influenced by their mood, health, the accuracy of their memory, and general conditions around them at the time. Robson (2002) identifies four threats to reliability: subject or participant error, subject or participant bias, observer error, and observer bias. Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2002) argued that most researchers get anxious that their research may not stand up to outside scrutiny, since most research can be attacked on methodological grounds. To minimise this anxiety, researchers often employ the following checks (Wagner *et al*., 2012):

1. Inter-rater reliability: this involves the use of more than one observer to rate a particular phenomenon;
2. Test-retest reliability: this is used to assess the consistency of data collected using the same instrument at different times;
3. Parallel forms of reliability: this is used to assess how consistently the same group will respond to two different measures that measure the same concept; and
4. Internal consistency reliability: attempts to assess whether individual measures within the same instrument measure the same concept consistently.

One question that is often asked is whether the findings of an inquiry conducted in one context may be consistently repeated if the inquiry were replicated with the same subjects in the same context. Consistency in this study was strengthened through the use of respondents from different faculties and years of study over two stages.

3.14 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The process of studying for a PhD at the University of the Witwatersrand involves appearing before a number of committees to ensure that ethical considerations are adhered to. After the initial panel has approved the proposal, the process of applying for approval from the Ethics Committee commences. The student has to complete an application form that interrogates the process to ensure anonymity and confidentiality. The information gathering process must not be threatening in any way to respondents. This is ensured through the process of informing respondents that they have a choice to either participate or decline to do so, see for example the sample participation request letter in Appendix A.

Another consideration is the non-use of personal questions, except for demographic questions, which must not lead to the identification of the participants. The topic chosen for the study did not involve human experimentation, and the confidentiality provided to the respondents ensured that there was little risk for harm to participants in the study. Permission was sought and granted by the host college; however, the college requested to remain anonymous. As a requirement, the research was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of the Witwatersrand. The approval of the ethics committee is to ensure that the study does not create an environment that might result in physical or emotional harm to participants. To safeguard the interests of the respondents, consent forms were signed by respondents prior to participation; see for example the consent form for participation in Appendix B. A cover letter explaining that anonymity will be maintained and that the information will not be disclosed to anyone outside the research process was also sent with the questionnaire to each participant (see Appendix A). Participants were assured that they can withdraw from participating at any stage of the research process without any prejudice whatsoever.

3.15 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter introduced and discussed the methodology applied in this research. The different research paradigms were identified and discussed, culminating in the location of the study in relation to different paradigms. The research design, the study population, and the sampling process were considered. Statistical tools such as descriptive and inferential statistics were outlined. The sample size calculation was then discussed. The process used to develop the scales of measurement was also explained. Finally, the chapter concluded with a discussion on reliability and validity.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 STAGE ONE: DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the results of statistical tests carried out in Stage One of this study. The goals of Stage One were three-fold. The first goal was to expand knowledge on the relevance of research linking Generation Y with materialism and the entitlement mentality in South Africa. The second goal was to test the validity and reliability of the scale and to select the final items to be used in Stage Two (Hinkin, Tracey & Enz, 1997). The third goal was to examine the construct validity of the entitlement scale by correlating it with materialism measures. The expectation was that the entitlement scale will correlate positively with all of the materialism measures. The broader purpose of the stage was to confirm the consistent findings in literature, which suggest that Generation Y are materialistic and have a high sense of entitlement (Twenge, 2006; Twenge & Campbell, 2009; Twenge & Kasser, 2013). After the presentation of the description of the scales used in Stage One, a descriptive analysis of the results will follow. An analysis of measures of materialism and the entitlement mentality using SPSS was conducted to explore missing and any inaccuracies within the data (data cleaning) and items found with entry errors were discarded.

4.1.1 Sample

During Stage One of this study, a total of 1,280 questionnaires were distributed at the two educational institutions that gave permission for the study to be carried conducted. A total of 523 usable questionnaires were returned by respondents, which represents a 41 per cent response rate. Descriptive statistics of the sample's demographic profile are provided below. Table 5 and Figure 4 show the gender distribution of the sample. A total of 53 per cent of the respondents were female and 46 per cent were male and 0.8 per cent preferred not to state their gender. Based on the gender distribution of the national population of South Africa, (52% female and 48% male; Statistics South Africa, 2013), this sample was considered to be a fair representation of South Africa's general population.

Table 6: Descriptive statistics for gender

Gender

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Male	243	46.5	46.5	46.5
	Female	276	52.8	52.8	99.2
	Prefer not to say	4	.8	.8	100.0
	Total	523	100.0	100.0	

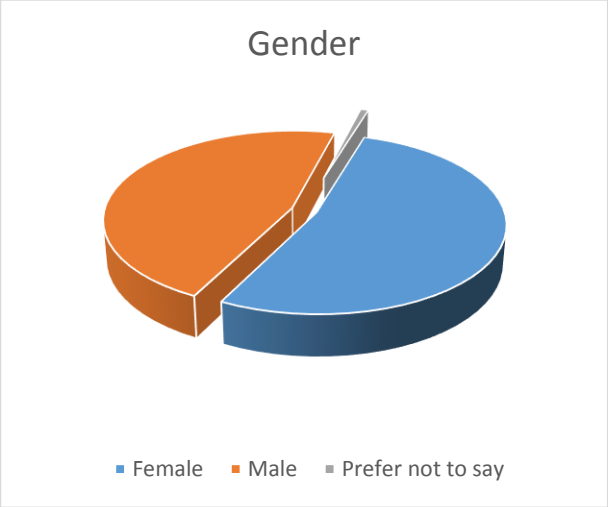


Figure 4: Gender distribution

Table 6 and Figure 5 show the age range of the respondents. The minimum age was 18 and the maximum age was 26. This is in keeping with literature, which describes Generation Y as having been born between 1982 and 2000 (Wong *et al.*, 2008). A total of 51 per cent of the respondents were between the ages of 20 and 21, with a mean age of 20.45. Considering that the respondents were undergraduate students, this age range was considered to be representative of Generation Y students who are still attending tertiary education.

Table 7: Descriptive statistics for age

Age

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	18	48	9.2	9.2	9.2
	19	96	18.4	18.4	27.5
	20	130	24.9	24.9	52.4
	21	139	26.6	26.6	79.0
	22	70	13.4	13.4	92.4
	23	21	4.0	4.0	96.4
	24	12	2.3	2.3	98.7
	25	6	1.1	1.1	99.8
	26	1	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	523	100.0	100.0	

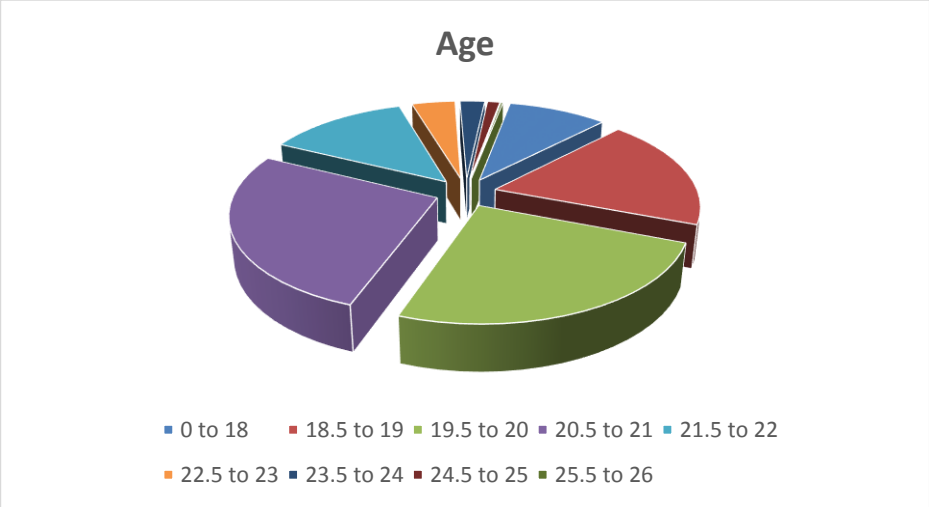


Figure 5: Age distribution

Table 7 and Figure 6 show the descriptive statistics for race. As can be observed, most respondents were from one race. Based on the low response rate of the other races, it was decided that the variable 'race' be eliminated from the study, as this low response rate meant that their number would not be useful when further analysis was carried out. Below are the results of the reliability and validity analysis of the measures of materialism and entitlement.

Materialism was measured using a two-dimension scale adapted by Twenge and Kessler (2013) from Richins and Dawson's (1992) materialism scale (material goods and money). Entitlement was also measured using the two-dimension scale developed by Lessard *et al.* (2011).

Table 8: Descriptive statistics for race

Race

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Black	491	93.9	93.9	93.9
	White	5	1.0	1.0	94.8
	Indian	11	2.1	2.1	96.9
	Coloured	16	3.1	3.1	100.0
	Total	523	100.0	100.0	

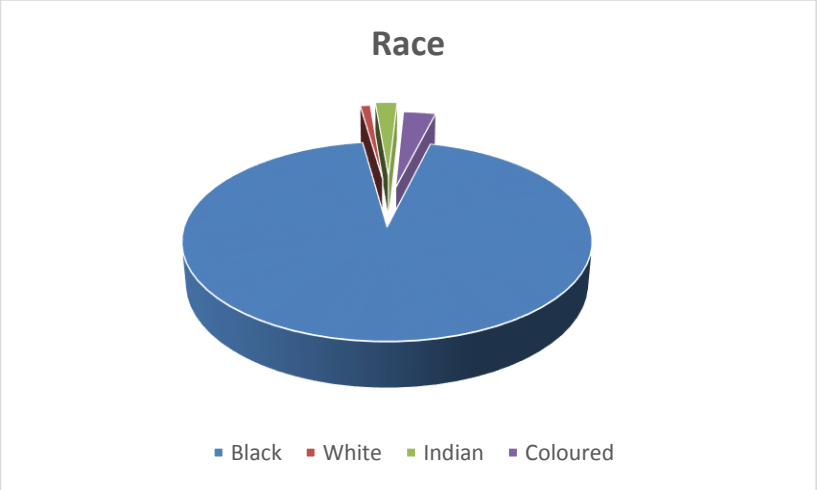


Figure 6: Race distribution

4.1.2 Reliability analysis

A scale validation test was carried out on the two constructs under study using principal component analysis. Although the literature varies on how much variance should be explained before the number of factors is considered to be sufficient, a majority of the studies suggest that 75 to 90 per cent of the variance should be accounted for (Garson, 2010; Pett, Lackey, & Sullivan, 2003).

However, some studies indicate that if as little as 50 per cent of the variance is explained, this is acceptable (Beavers, Lounsbury, Richards, Huck, Skolits, & Esquivel, 2013). Dion (2016) recommended minimum of 60 per cent total variance explained for SEM to be performed. Since the SEM is the main test for hypotheses testing, Dion's recommendation was adopted. The next section therefore presents tables showing total variance explained, KMO and Cronbach's alpha as tests for reliability and validity of the scales used in this study.

4.1.2.1 *Materialism*

Table 9 shows that the total variance explained by three items in the materialism scale is 67.001 per cent, which is above the recommended 60 per cent total variance explained. The Kaizer-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure was used to verify the sampling adequacy for the analysis with KMO = 0.662 (which is also above the recommended value of 0.6) (Kaizer, 1974). Bartlett's (1954) test of sphericity (X^2 = 396.992; $p<0.001$) indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for a PCA. Cronbach's alpha was found to be adequate at .73

Table 9: Material goods total variance explained

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.010	67.001	67.001	2.010	67.001	67.001
2	.609	20.312	87.314			
3	.381	12.686	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.662
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	396.992
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.753	3

Table 10 shows the results of principal component analysis for the money dimension of materialism. Three items accounted for 65.816 per cent of the total variance explained. The Kaizer-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure was also used to verify the sampling adequacy for the analysis with KMO = 0.688 (which is also above the recommended value of 0.6). Bartlett's test of sphericity (X^2 = 341.627; p<0.001) also met the minimum requirements for a PCA. Scale reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha and the results were .72.

Table 10: Money total variance explained

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.974	65.816	65.816	1.974	65.816	65.816
2	.530	17.679	83.495			
3	.495	16.505	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.688
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	341.627
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.722	3

4.1.2.2 *Entitlement mentality*

The entitlement scale was analysed for reliability and validity, and the results are shown below. Entitlement mentality was measured using a two-dimensioned scale. The first dimension measured exploitative entitlement mentality and the second measured non-exploitative mentality. Table 11 below shows the total variance explained for the 3 items. The total variance explained 54.196 per cent, which lower than the recommended limit of 60 limit.

The Kaizer-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure was also used to verify the sampling adequacy for the analysis with KMO = 0.620 (which is also above the recommended value of 0.6). Bartlett's test of sphericity (X^2 = 142.524; p<0.001). Cronbach's alpha was .62, also below the acceptable limits of .70.

Table 11: Exploitative entitlement 2 total variance explained

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.626	54.196	54.196	1.626	54.196	54.196
2	.753	25.116	79.312			
3	.621	20.688	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.620
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	142.524
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.62	3

Davies (1964) recommended Cronbach's alpha levels below .5 for groups of over 50, .5 for groups of 25-50 and above .75 for predicting individuals. Nunnally (1967) initially recommended .50 to .60 for the early stages of research, .80 for basic research tools, and .90 as the "minimally tolerable estimate" for clinical purposes, but later increased the starting level to .70. According to Schmitt, (1996), there is no sacred level of acceptable or unacceptable level of alpha as in n some cases, measures with low levels of alpha may still be quite useful. However the most studies recommend .7 as the acceptable limit. The above results suggest a

Table 12 shows total variance explained for the non-exploitative entitlement scale 62.535 per cent, which is above the recommended 60 per cent total variance explained.

The Kaizer-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure was also used to verify the sampling adequacy for the analysis with KMO = 0.753 (which is also above the recommended value of 0.6). Bartlett's test of sphericity (X^2 = 678.286; p<0.001). Cronbach's alpha was .79, above the acceptable limits of .70.

Table 12: Non-exploitative entitlement total variance explained

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.501	62.535	62.535	2.501	62.535	62.535
2	.696	17.405	79.940			
3	.473	11.835	91.775			
4	.329	8.225	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.753
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	678.286
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.797	4

4.1.3 Normality analysis

To correct for any anomalies within the data, bootstrapping using 1,000 iterations was implemented for all appropriate analyses from this point onward. Box plots and histograms were also used to test for normality of data.

4.1.3.1 *Materialism*

A box plot and histogram were developed for the materialism scale. As explained earlier, the materialism scale had two dimensions: money and material goods. Box plots and histograms were developed for both dimensions. This was done to check the normalcy of distribution and possible presence of outliers. Outliers or influential data points can be defined as data values that are extreme or atypical on the independent (*X* variables) variables, the dependent (*Y* variables) variables, or both variables. These extreme or atypical values can occur as a result of observation errors, data entry errors, instrument errors based on layout or instructions, or actual extreme values from self-reported data (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). These types of values can have a deleterious effect on estimates of parameters. The key determination to be made is how representative of the population they are, and this is often a judgment call.

The histogram in Figure 7 suggests that the data is almost normal, and the box plot in Figure 8 also shows no possible outliers. Table 13 also shows the descriptive statistics, which include skewness and kurtosis for material goods. West, Finch, and Curran (1995) recommend that remedial action be taken if the distribution begins to depart substantially from normality; the cut-off recommended is skewness = 2 and kurtosis = 7. The results suggest that skewness and kurtosis are both within the acceptable limits suggested by West *et al.* (1995).

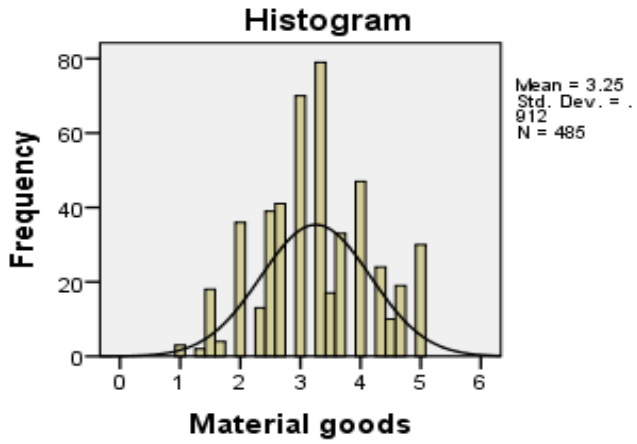


Figure 7: Histogram for material goods

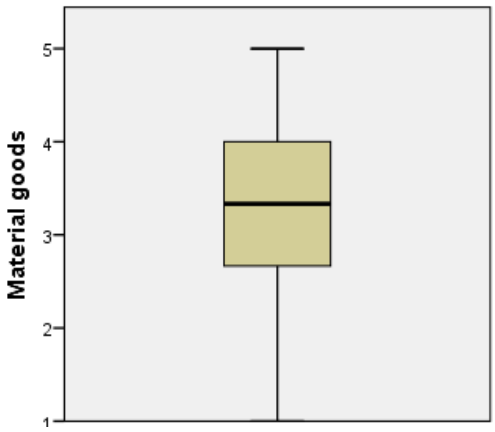


Figure 8: Box plot for material goods

Table 13: Descriptive statistics for material goods

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Material goods	523	3.23	.897	.805	.037	.107	-.417	.213
Valid N (listwise)	523							

Figures 9 and 10 show the box plot and histogram for the money measure. The histogram shows positive skewness and the box plot also shows the presence of possible outliers.

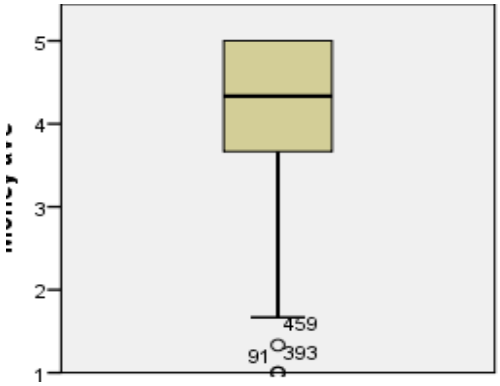


Figure 9: Box plot for money measure

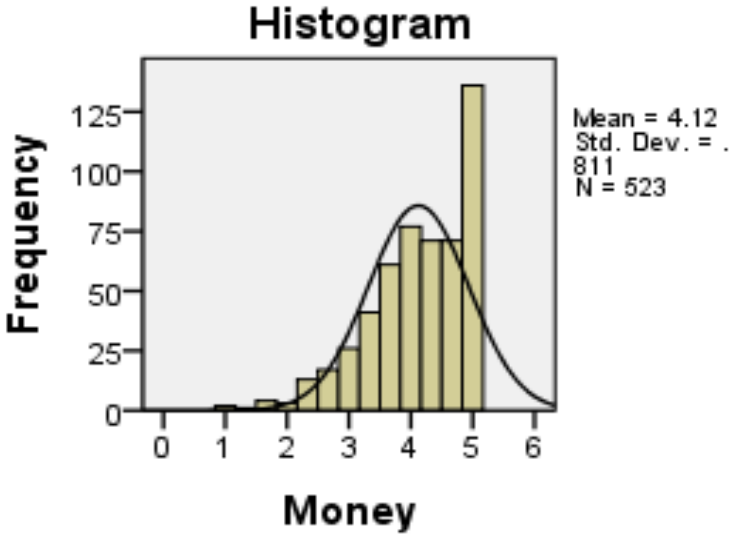


Figure 10: Histogram for money

Since Stage one is descriptive and no inferential tests will be carried out, no further action was necessary at this stage more so because bootstrapping was also performed, as it is considered robust in data analysis. Table 14 below shows the skewness and kurtosis for the money measure. The values are within acceptable limits, as suggested by West *et al.* (1995).

Table 14: Descriptive statistics for money

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Money	523	1	5	4.12	.811	-.929	.107	.629	.213
Valid N (listwise)	523								

4.1.3.2 *Entitlement mentality*

Figures 11 and 12 present the histogram and box plot for the exploitative entitlement measure. The histogram suggests a slight positive skewness, and the box plot does not indicate the presence of outliers. Table 15 also shows the skewness and kurtosis for the exploitative measure, which are also within acceptable limits.

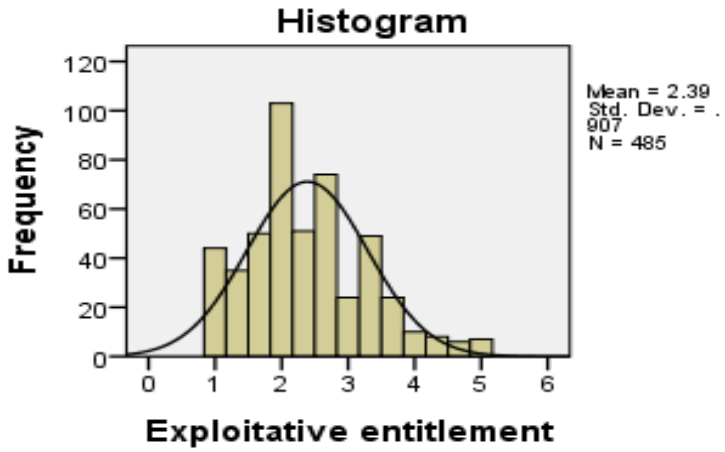


Figure 11: Histogram for exploitative entitlement scale

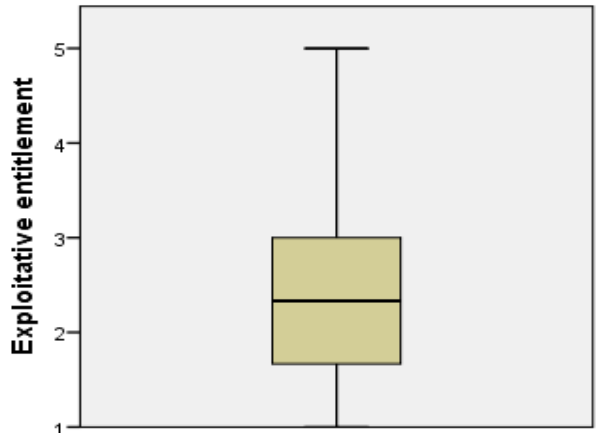


Figure 12: Box plot for the exploitative entitlement scale

Table 15: Descriptive statistics for exploitative entitlement

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Exploitative entitlement	523	1	5	2.67	.715	.292	.107	.335	.213
Valid N (listwise)	523								

Figures 13 and 14 show the histogram and box plot for the non-exploitative entitlement measure. From the histogram, it is evident that the distribution is non-normal and negatively skewed. The box plot also shows the presence of possible outliers. However, the skewness and kurtosis ranges are within acceptable limits according to West *et al.* (1995).

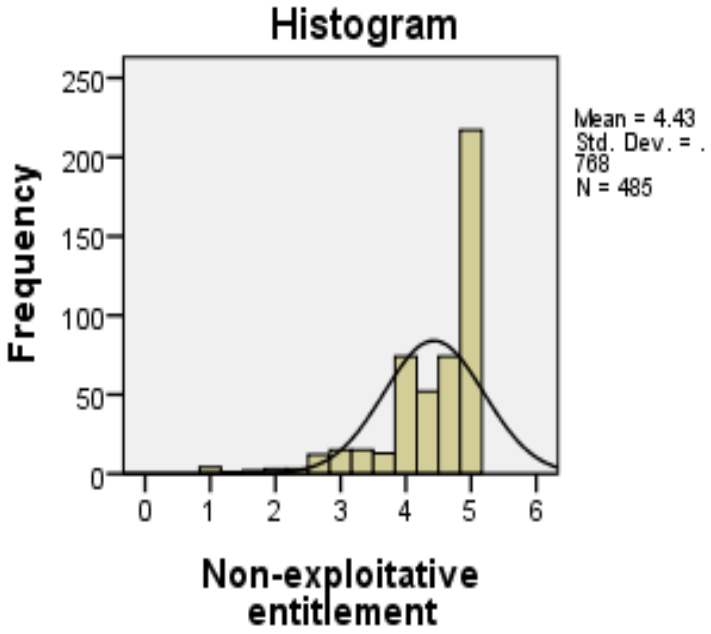


Figure 13: Histogram for the non-exploitative entitlement scale

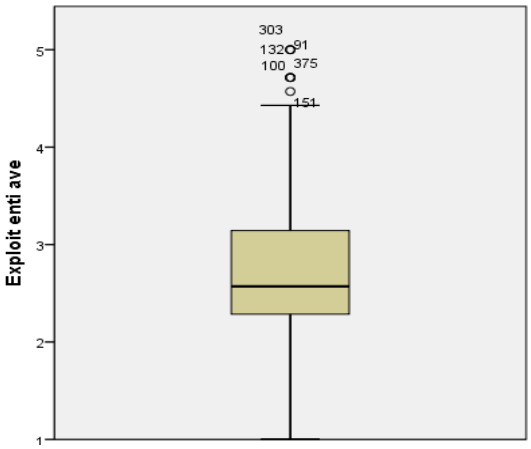


Figure 14: Box plot for exploitative entitlement

Table 16: Descriptive statistics for non-exploitative entitlement

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Non exploitative entitlement	523	1	5	4.38	.678	.460	-1.835	.107	4.663	.213
Valid N (listwise)	523									

The above section dealt with the analysis for checking normality of the data distribution in Stage One. Although most of the data distribution was found to be non-normal, skewness and kurtosis ranges were found to be within the acceptable limits suggested by West *et al.*, (1995). Below is a further descriptive analysis of the two measures.

4.1.4 Descriptive statistics for measures Stage One.

4.1.4.1 *Materialism*

Table 17 shows the descriptive statistics for the materialism scale that measured material goods in Stage One. Materialism 1 was a question that asked respondents to indicate how important they considered owning a house. The mean for this item was 4.76, with a standard deviation of .641. Such a mean and standard deviation indicate a high level of agreement among respondents that owning a house is important.

Table 17: Descriptive statistics for material goods

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Material goods 1	523	4	1	5	4.76	.640
Material goods 2	523	4	1	5	2.96	1.150
Material goods 3	523	4	1	5	2.68	1.239
Material goods 4	523	4	1	5	3.12	1.244
Valid N (listwise)	523					

A small standard deviation (relative to the value of the mean) indicates that the data points are close to the mean (Field, 2015). However, the means for Materialism 2, 3, and 4 had standard deviations that indicated a lack of agreement on the importance of owning a recreational vehicle, owning a vacation house, and owning a new car every three years. Such lack of agreement may mean that the above material objects are considered to be luxury items that are only valued by people who may have satisfied the lower-order needs as described by Maslow (1954).

Table 18 shows the second dimension of the materialism scale, which measured the importance placed on money. The descriptive statistics show that the means for Money 1, 2, and 3 range from 3.91 to 4.48, with standard deviations also ranging from .761 to 1.195. This suggests that respondents place a high value on money, and the level of agreement among respondents could be described as fairly high. Considering that money is the single factor that can satisfy lower order needs, these results seem to make sense. One can therefore conclude that based on these results, owning a house and having money are valued by respondents.

Table 18: Descriptive statistics for money

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Money 1	523	4	1	5	3.91	1.032
Money 2	523	4	1	5	3.98	1.195
Money 3	523	4	1	5	4.48	.761
Valid N (listwise)	523					

4.1.4.2 *Entitlement mentality*

The entitlement mentality was measured using a scale developed by Lessard *et al.* (2011). As mentioned before, the scale had two dimensions of entitlement mentality: exploitative and non-exploitative.

Table 19 presents the descriptive results for the exploitative entitlement mentality in Stage One. The exploitative entitlement scale had seven items. Exploitative entitlement 1 asked respondents to indicate their level of agreement with the following statement: *"I deserve more success in my life than other who have had it easy".”* The means for the seven items ranged from 2.05 to 3.76, and the standard deviations were also closely clustered, ranging from 1.139 to 1.260. These standard deviations suggest a high level of agreement among respondents. The results suggest that the respondents have a relatively low sense of exploitative entitlement.

Table 19: Descriptive statistics for exploitative entitlement mentality

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Exploitative entitlement 1	523	4	1	5	3.76	1.206	1.453
Exploitative entitlement 2	523	4	1	5	3.15	1.260	1.587
Exploitative entitlement 3	523	4	1	5	2.33	1.226	1.502
Exploitative entitlement 4	523	4	1	5	2.33	1.231	1.516
Exploitative entitlement 5	523	4	1	5	2.52	1.260	1.587
Exploitative entitlement 6	523	4	1	5	2.52	1.245	1.549
Exploitative entitlement 7	523	4	1	5	2.05	1.139	1.296
Valid N (listwise)	523						

Table 20 shows the results of the scale dimension measuring a non-exploitative entitlement mentality. Non-exploitative entitlement was measured using five scale items. Non-exploitative entitlement 1 asked respondents to indicate their level of agreement with the following statement: "I deserve to be treated with respect by everyone." The means for the five items ranged for 4.30 to 4.48, and the standard deviations were all below 1. This suggests a very high level of agreement among respondents. Based on those means, it can be concluded that the respondents showed a very high sense of non-exploitative entitlement. Compared to the results presented in Table 22, these results suggest that Generation Y have a high sense of non-exploitative entitlement. These results and their implications will be discussed in detail in Chapter Five.

Table 20: Descriptive statistics for non-exploitative entitlement

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Non-exploitative entitlement 1	523	4	1	5	4.30	.880	.775
Non-exploitative entitlement 2	523	4	1	5	4.34	.902	.814
Non-exploitative entitlement 3	523	4	1	5	4.48	.793	.629
Non-exploitative entitlement 4	523	4	1	5	4.46	.886	.786
Non-exploitative entitlement 5	523	4	1	5	4.35	.968	.937
Valid N (listwise)	523						

4.1.5 Frequency distribution

Table 21 represents respondents' attitudes towards material objects as measured by the materialism scale. What is evident is that most respondents (93%:84+9) want to own a house. This may be considered to be a basic need in terms of Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. Changing cars and owning a vacation house, however, had very low percentages: 23 per cent and 27 per cent, respectively. These items could be deemed luxuries, depending on where they are in terms of Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. Having a job that pays lots of money had the second highest percentage of respondents agreeing with the statement (88%). Based on these results, the two most important items in the scale are owning a house and having a job that pays a lot of money.

Table 21: Frequency distribution for materialism

	Frequency of response (%)				
Scale items	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Owning a house	84.3	9.8	3.8	1.7	0.4
Owning a car every 2-3 years	14.7	13.2	32.1	33.3	6.7
Owning a recreational vehicle	13.0	10.7	23.7	36.5	16.1
Owning a vacation house	17.6	21.2	26.2	25.2	9.8
Having lots of money	36.3	28.9	25.6	7.5	1.7
Having more money than parents	47.4	21.8	17.6	8.2	5.0
Having a job that pays lots of money	61.6	27.7	8.4	1.9	0.4

Entitlement mentality was measured using a scale that distinguished between exploitative entitlement mentality and non-exploitative entitlement mentality. Table 22 provides the frequency distribution for the exploitative mentality section of the scale. 69 per cent (32+37) of the respondents indicated that they feel more deserving than most people who have had it easy in life. The other scale items, however, had low percentages, which ranged from 16 to 47 per cent. Generation Y appears to have a low exploitative entitlement mentality. The results will be related to literature in the discussion chapter.

Table 22: Frequency distribution for exploitative entitlement

	Frequency of responses (%)				
Scale items	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I deserve more success than those who have had it easy	32.1	37.9	8.0	17.4	4.6
I am due more in life than other people	16.6	31.0	9.9	35.6	6.9
I don't have to work as hard as others	9.4	12.6	3.1	51.8	23.1
I shouldn't have to work harder than others	8.4	14.5	3.4	48.8	24.9
Others should cut me a break in life	8.6	19.9	7.6	42.8	21.0
As a frequent customer, I must be given first preference	7.8	21.8	4.0	46.8	19.5
If I am in a hurry, people should let me move ahead in a line	4.6	12.0	3.6	43.2	36.5

Table 23 provides the frequency distribution for the non-exploitative entitlement mentality. Interestingly, the respondents indicated very high entitlement mentality, with 92 per cent (48+42) of the respondents indicating that they are entitled to the career that they want. The minimum percentage for this scale was 87 per cent, which indicated that respondents felt that they were entitled to the best things in life.

Table 23: Frequency distribution for non-exploitative entitlement

	Frequency of responses (%)				
Scale items	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I deserve to be treated with respect by everyone	48.4	42.1	2.9	5.0	1.7
I expect respect even from the famous	52.4	37.7	3.6	4.0	2.3
I deserve the best things in life	59.7	33.8	2.3	2.9	1.3
I am entitled to the career I want	63.7	27.2	2.7	5.0	1.5
I am entitled to the best things in life	57.6	30.6	3.3	6.5	0

4.1.6 Comparison between men and women

One of the aims of the study was to examine the influence of demographic factors on materialism and entitlement mentality among Generation Y. Gender was considered to be one dimension of demographic factors that was important. A comparison between males and females was therefore considered appropriate in analysing the data. Table 24 shows the means for both men and women on material objects.

Table 24: Independent sample t- tests for material goods group statistics

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Material goods 1	1	243	4.79	.602	.039
	2	276	4.73	.673	.041
Material goods 2	1	243	3.05	1.179	.076
	2	276	2.88	1.125	.068
Material goods 3	1	243	2.83	1.293	.083
	2	276	2.56	1.182	.071
Material goods 4	1	243	3.10	1.267	.081
	2	276	3.13	1.222	.074

The results in Table 25 below shows the results of the Independent t-tests carried out of the materialism scale measuring material objects. There was a significant difference in scores for material goods 3 for males (M=2.83, SD=0.60) and for females (*M*=2.56, *SD*=0.67), t (50) =.218, *p*=.015. Because only 1 out of 4 items showed significant results, it may not be possible to conclude that there is a significant difference between genders in terms of attitudes towards material objects.

Table 25: Independent samples test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Material goods 1	Equal variances assumed	4.619	.032	1.170	517	.242	.066	.056	-.045	.177
	Equal variances not assumed			1.179	516.870	.239	.066	.056	-.044	.176
Material goods 2	Equal variances assumed	1.319	.251	1.746	517	.081	.177	.101	-.022	.375
	Equal variances not assumed			1.741	501.723	.082	.177	.101	-.023	.376
Material goods 3	Equal variances assumed	2.291	.131	2.444	517	.015	.266	.109	.052	.479
	Equal variances not assumed			2.430	493.746	.015	.266	.109	.051	.480
Material goods 4	Equal variances assumed	.126	.723	-.219	517	.827	-.024	.109	-.239	.191
	Equal variances not assumed			-.218	503.506	.827	-.024	.110	-.239	.191

Further t-test were carried out on other materialism items focusing on money attitudes. The results of the independent sample t-test are shown in table 26 and 27. The first two items were found to be statistically significant. Item 1 for males, (*M*=4.08, *SD*=1.00) for females (*M*=3.75, *SD*=1.03), *t* (51) =3.61, p=.000. Item 2 for males, (*M*=4.20, *SD*=1.12) for females (M=3.80, *SD*=1.22), *t* (51) =3.88, *p*=.000. The results seem to suggest that males are more money oriented than females.

Table 26: Independent sample t- tests for money group statistics

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Money 1	1	243	4.08	1.007	.065
	2	276	3.75	1.036	.062
Money 2	1	243	4.20	1.125	.072
	2	276	3.80	1.225	.074
Money 3	1	243	4.51	.741	.048
	2	276	4.46	.778	.047

Table 26 above presents the means and standard deviations for the item money, split between the genders. What is apparent is that the means for males are consistently higher for all the three items. As shown above not all the differences were significant. This finding is likely to be related to the socialisation of males and will be discussed in relation to literature in the discussion chapter.

Table 27: Independent samples test

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Money 1	Equal variances assumed	1.962	.162	3.608	517	.000	.325	.090	.148	.501
	Equal variances not assumed			3.614	511.944	.000	.325	.090	.148	.501
Money 2	Equal variances assumed	6.552	.011	3.860	517	.000	.400	.104	.197	.604
	Equal variances not assumed			3.880	516.052	.000	.400	.103	.198	.603
Money 3	Equal variances assumed	.569	.451	.688	517	.492	.046	.067	-.085	.178
	Equal variances not assumed			.690	513.866	.491	.046	.067	-.085	.177

Table 28 and 29 present a comparison of answers relating to the exploitative entitlement mentality. Of the seven questions, only one (Item 6) was found to be statistically significant between the males and females (M=2.65, SD=1.30), (M=2.45, SD=1.18), $t(49)=2.26$, p=.024 although an examination of table 30 shows that the means for males were higher than for females even for those items that were not statistically significant. From the results, it is therefore not possible to conclude that there is a difference between genders in terms of exploitative entitlement mentality.

Table 28: Sample t- tests for exploitative entitlement group statistics

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Exploitative entitlement 1	1	243	3.82	1.143	.073
	2	276	3.70	1.266	.076
Exploitative entitlement 2	1	243	3.26	1.254	.080
	2	276	3.05	1.259	.076
Exploitative entitlement 3	1	243	2.37	1.254	.080
	2	276	2.29	1.196	.072
Exploitative entitlement 4	1	243	2.38	1.294	.083
	2	276	2.29	1.180	.071
Exploitative entitlement 5	1	243	2.48	1.261	.081
	2	276	2.54	1.245	.075
Exploitative entitlement 6	1	243	2.65	1.300	.083
	2	276	2.40	1.185	.071
Exploitative entitlement 7	1	243	2.09	1.197	.077
	2	276	2.02	1.090	.066

Table 28 above presents the means and standard deviations for exploitative entitlement mentality. Although table 27 above indicated that the differences in means between the genders were generally not statistically significant, all the means for male respondents are higher than the means for female respondents. This finding will be further discussed in the discussion chapter in relation to literature.

Table 29: Independent samples test

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Exploitative entitlement 1	Equal variances assumed	8.198	.004	1.159	517	.247	.123	.106	-.086	.332
	Equal variances not assumed			1.166	516.663	.244	.123	.106	-.084	.331
Exploitative entitlement 2	Equal variances assumed	.026	.873	1.853	517	.064	.205	.111	-.012	.422
	Equal variances not assumed			1.854	509.230	.064	.205	.111	-.012	.422
Exploitative entitlement 3	Equal variances assumed	2.212	.138	.714	517	.475	.077	.108	-.135	.288
	Equal variances not assumed			.712	501.623	.477	.077	.108	-.135	.289
Exploitative entitlement 4	Equal variances assumed	5.505	.019	.784	517	.434	.085	.109	-.128	.299
	Equal variances not assumed			.779	493.450	.436	.085	.109	-.130	.300
Exploitative entitlement 5	Equal variances assumed	.023	.880	-.600	517	.549	-.066	.110	-.283	.150
	Equal variances not assumed			-.600	507.074	.549	-.066	.110	-.283	.151
Exploitative entitlement 6	Equal variances assumed	12.116	.001	2.273	517	.023	.248	.109	.034	.462
	Equal variances not assumed			2.260	493.256	.024	.248	.110	.032	.464
Exploitative entitlement 7	Equal variances assumed	4.942	.027	.762	517	.446	.077	.100	-.121	.274
	Equal variances not assumed			.758	493.101	.449	.077	.101	-.122	.275

Table 30 and 31 show the results of the independent t-test for non-exploitative entitlement mentality. The results indicate a significant difference in means between males and females only on item 3, out of 7 items, (*M*=4.40, *SD*=.877), (*M*=4.54, *SD*=.710), *t* (47) =-199, *p*=.047. Based on the results it is not possible to conclude that males and females differ in non-exploitative entitlement although an examination of table 32 shows that females had higher means than males (which were largely not significant).

Table 30: Independent sample t- test for non-exploitative entitlement group statistics

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Non exploitative entitlement 1	1	243	4.23	.950	.061
	2	276	4.37	.814	.049
Non exploitative entitlement 2	1	243	4.28	.917	.059
	2	276	4.38	.893	.054
Non exploitative entitlement 3	1	243	4.40	.877	.056
	2	276	4.54	.710	.043
Non exploitative entitlement 4	1	243	4.41	.933	.060
	2	276	4.51	.846	.051
Non exploitative entitlement 5	1	243	4.27	1.048	.067
	2	276	4.42	.893	.054

Table 32 shows the means between genders for non-exploitative entitlement mentality. What is noticeable are the constantly high means for female respondents than male respondents. Although not all the mean differences are significant, from the findings, it is possible that women have higher non-exploitative entitlement than men. Further discussion of this finding is found in the discussion chapter.

Table 31: Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Non-exploitative entitlement 1	Equal variances assumed	1.267	.261	-1.849	517	.065	-.143	.077	-.295	.009
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.831	479.599	.068	-.143	.078	-.297	.010
Non-exploitative entitlement 2	Equal variances assumed	.137	.712	-1.213	517	.226	-.096	.080	-.253	.060
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.211	504.957	.226	-.096	.080	-.253	.060
Non-exploitative entitlement 3	Equal variances assumed	4.968	.026	-2.017	517	.044	-.141	.070	-.278	-.004
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.991	465.311	.047	-.141	.071	-.280	-.002
Non-exploitative entitlement 4	Equal variances assumed	1.436	.231	-1.325	517	.186	-.103	.078	-.257	.050
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.316	492.275	.189	-.103	.079	-.258	.051
Non-exploitative entitlement 5	Equal variances assumed	2.403	.122	-1.751	517	.080	-.149	.085	-.317	.018
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.734	478.256	.084	-.149	.086	-.318	.020

4.1.7 Summary

The above section provided the descriptive results of this research's first stage. The descriptive statistics for the population sample were provided first. Next, the descriptive results for the materialism scale and entitlement scale were presented. The testing for normality of data distribution was also considered in this section. The final section provided a comparison of the means and standard deviations of the responses from men and women on the two measures of materialism and entitlement mentality. Analysis of Stage two of this research is offered in the next section.

4.2 STAGE TWO

This stage is divided into three sections. The first section is concerned with the descriptive results of the study and the validity and reliability of the measurement scales. The second section deals with the cleaning of the data, checking for missing values, normality testing, and a discussion of sample size. The third section provides the structural equation modelling (SEM). The main purpose of this third section is to test the model that was developed for the study using SEM. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) recommend a two-step structural equation procedure, which starts with the measurement model, followed by the structural model. This is the approach followed in this study. Below are the descriptive statistics for Stage two.

4.2.1 Descriptive statistics for Stage Two

For Stage Two, 800 questionnaires were distributed in the two educational institutions and a total of 325 questionnaires were returned, indicating a 39 per cent response rate. Eight of these were partially filled in and were therefore discarded, leaving 317 completed and usable questionnaires. Below is a descriptive analysis of Stage Two, beginning with a description of the sample. Table 32 presents the sample distribution in terms of gender. Out of a total of 317 respondents, 120 of them were male (38%) and 197 were female (62%). Figure 15 shows a pie chart representing the gender distribution of the respondents.

Table 32: Descriptive statistics for gender Stage two

Gender

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Male	120	37.9	37.9	37.9
	Female	197	62.1	62.1	100.0
	Total	317	100.0	100.0	

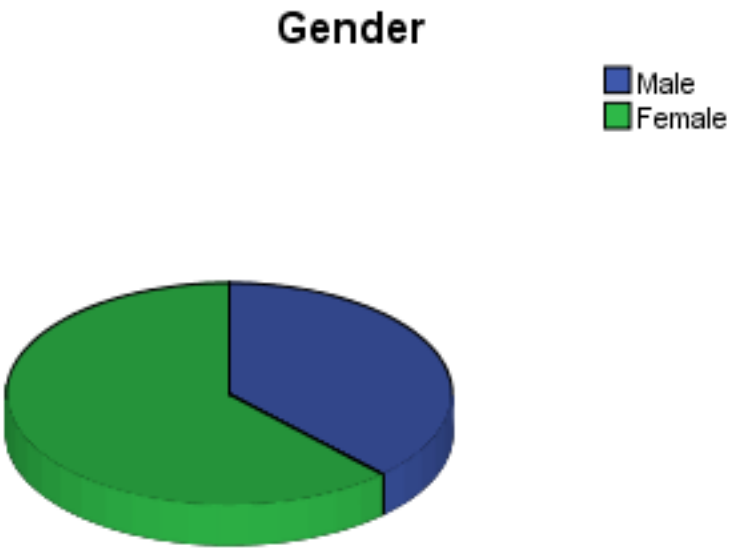


Figure 15: Gender distribution for Stage two

Table 33 presents the age distribution for Stage two. The minimum age was 18 and the maximum was 26. The 20 to 21 age groups dominated the age distribution, which is in keeping with the age ranges associated with undergraduate students attending tertiary education.

Table 33: Descriptive statistics for age Stage two

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	18	6	1.9	1.9	1.9
	19	40	12.6	12.6	14.5
	20	85	26.8	26.8	41.3
	21	89	28.1	28.1	69.4
	22	49	15.5	15.5	84.9
	23	30	9.5	9.5	94.3
	24	8	2.5	2.5	96.8
	25	4	1.3	1.3	98.1
	26	6	1.9	1.9	100.0
	Total	317	100.0	100.0	

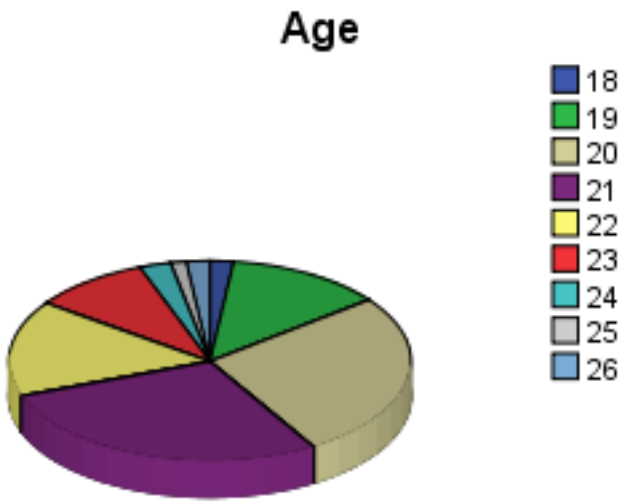


Figure 16: Age distribution for Stage two

Table 34 shows the year of study of the participants. 18 per cent of the respondents were in their first year of study, 43 per cent of the respondents were in their second year of study, and 37 per cent were in their third year of study.

Table 34: Descriptive statistics for year of study Stage two

Year of study

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	First year	59	18.6	18.6	18.6
	Second year	139	43.8	43.8	62.5
	Third year	119	37.5	37.5	100.0
	Total	317	100.0	100.0	

Figure 17 shows a pie chart of the above distribution. As can be clearly seen on the pie chart, respondents in their second year of study constituted the majority of the students when compared to first and third years.

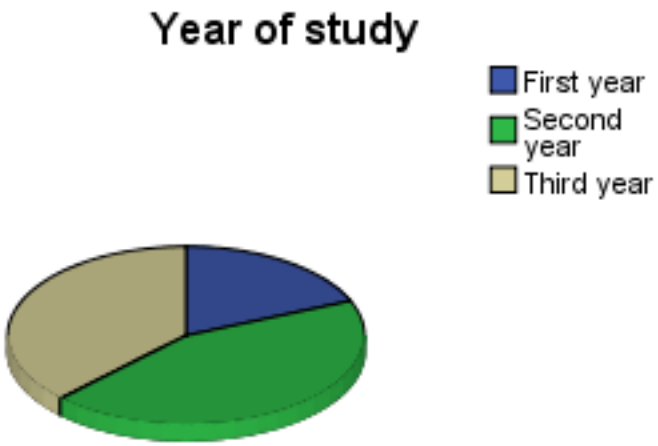


Figure 17: Year of study

4.2.3 Testing for normality of data

4.2.3.1 *Work values*

The work values measure had two dimensions that were consistently identified in extant literature: intrinsic and extrinsic. Table 35 shows the descriptive statistics for the intrinsic dimension.

Four items were used to measure intrinsic work values. A quick examination of the means shows that there was a high level of agreement among respondents. The skewness and kurtosis values were all within the limits recommended by West *et al.* (1995).

Table 35: Descriptive statistics for intrinsic work values

Statistics

		Intrinsic work values 1	Intrinsic work values 2	Intrinsic work values 3	Intrinsic work values 4
N	Valid	317	317	317	317
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		4.67	4.59	4.24	4.25
Median		5.00	5.00	4.00	4.00
Std. Deviation		.557	.500	.742	.754
Variance		.310	.250	.550	.569
Skewness		-1.597	-.431	-1.166	-1.167
Std. Error of Skewness		.137	.137	.137	.137
Kurtosis		2.203	-1.626	2.456	2.238
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.273	.273	.273	.273
Minimum		2	3	1	1
Maximum		5	5	5	5

Figures 18 and 19 show the histogram and box plots for the intrinsic work values measure. Although the data does not appear to be normal and also shows possible outliers, no action was taken as skewness and kurtosis were within acceptable limits. Bootstrapping was also considered to be adequate in taking care of any anomalies within the data.

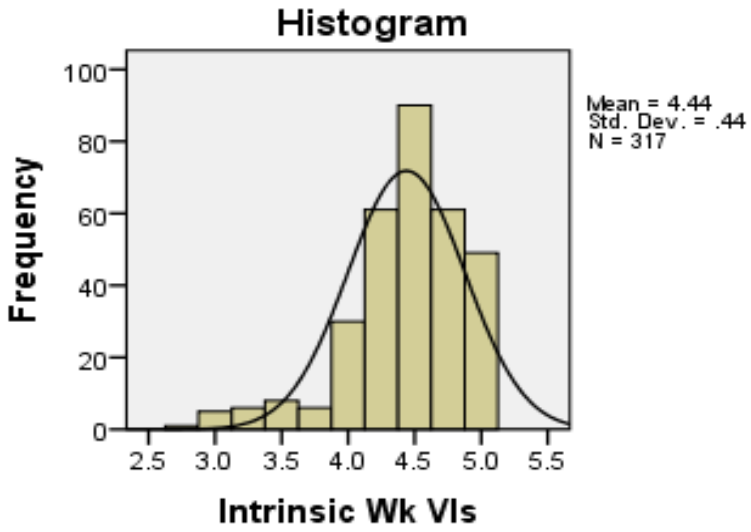


Figure 18: Histogram for intrinsic work values

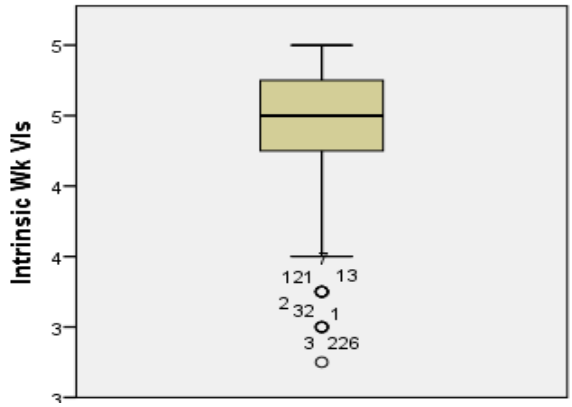


Figure 19: Box plot for intrinsic work values

Table 36 presents the descriptive statistics for the extrinsic work values measure. Once again, the means and standard deviations indicate a high level of agreement among respondents. The respondents have high expectations of extrinsic work values with a minimum mean of 4.50. The skewness and kurtosis values were also within acceptable limits. The histogram in Figure 20 and box plot in Figure 21 show the graphic view of the measure. The distribution was slightly negatively skewed, and the histogram showed the existence of possible outliers.

Table 36: Descriptive statistics for extrinsic work values

Statistics

		Extrinsic work values 1	Extrinsic work values 2	Extrinsic work values 3
N	Valid	317	317	317
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		4.60	4.50	4.65
Median		5.00	5.00	5.00
Std. Deviation		.590	.609	.563
Variance		.348	.371	.317
Skewness		-1.661	-.821	-1.468
Std. Error of Skewness		.137	.137	.137
Kurtosis		4.588	-.313	1.771
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.273	.273	.273
Minimum		1	3	2
Maximum		5	5	5

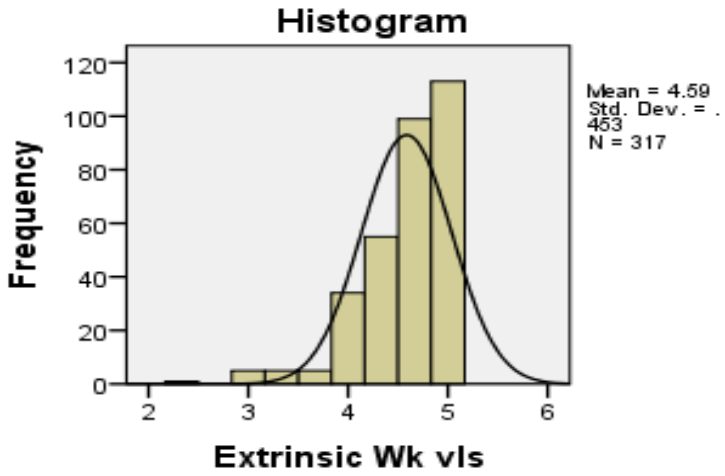


Figure 20: Histogram for extrinsic work values

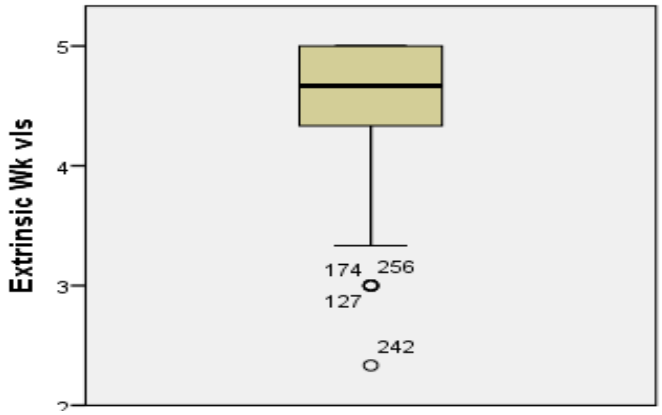


Figure 21: Box plot for extrinsic work values

4.2.3.2 *Materialism*

Table 37 presents the descriptive statistics for the materialism scale. A look at the means for the five items indicates a fairly high level of agreement among respondents, with the means ranging from 3.68 to 4.41. Materialism 4, which asked respondents to indicate how important it is to own a new car every two to three years, had the lowest mean. The histogram in Figure 22 and box plot in Figure 23 also showed that the distribution was negatively skewed and that there is a possible presence of outliers. However the skewness and kurtosis were both within acceptable limits (West *et al.*, 1995).

Table 37: Descriptive statistics for materialism

Statistics

		Materialism 1	Materialism 2	Materialism 3	Materialism 4	Materialism 5
N	Valid	317	317	317	317	317
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		4.04	4.41	3.85	3.68	3.81
Median		4.00	5.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
Std. Deviation		.859	.929	1.089	1.080	1.029
Variance		.739	.863	1.186	1.167	1.059
Skewness		-.537	-1.261	-.746	-.627	-.683
Std. Error of Skewness		.137	.137	.137	.137	.137
Kurtosis		-.485	.187	-.352	-.555	-.439
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.273	.273	.273	.273	.273
Minimum		2	2	1	1	1
Maximum		5	5	5	5	5

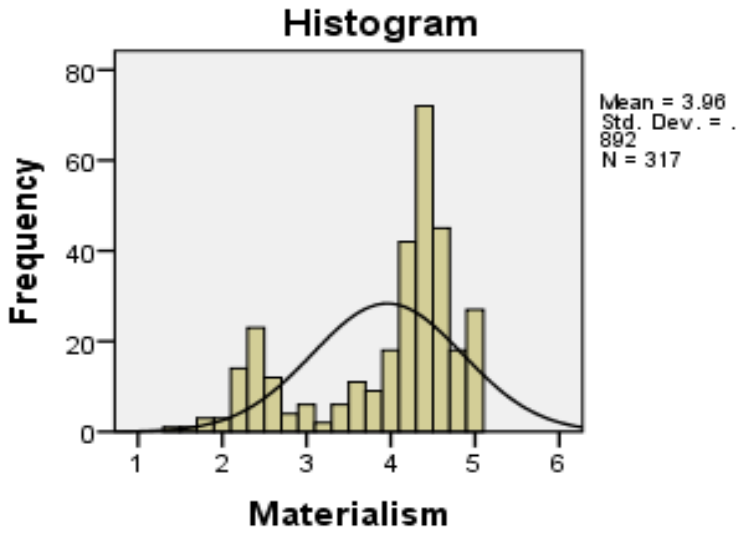


Figure 22: Histogram for materialism

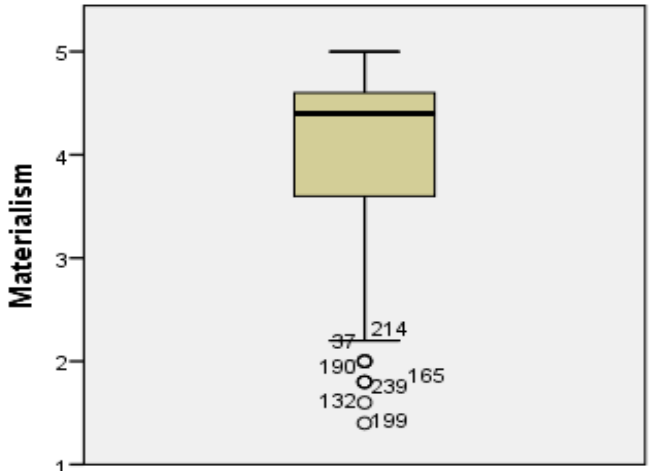


Figure 23: Box plot for materialism

4.2.3.3 *Work centrality*

The descriptive statistics for work centrality among the respondents is shown in Table 38. An examination of the mean shows a fairly high level of agreement among the respondents. Unlike the other measures whose average means are above 4, work centrality has a mean range of 2.74 to 3.21, which is the lowest so far. This is an interesting finding, which will be discussed in relation to literature in Chapter Five. An examination of the histogram in Figure 24 and box plot in Figure 25 indicates that the data distribution is almost normal, with no possible outliers present.

Table 38: Descriptive statistics for work centrality

Statistics

		Work centrality 1	Work centrality 2	Work centrality 3	Work centrality 4
N	Valid	317	317	317	317
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.21	3.10	2.74	2.92
Median		3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
Std. Deviation		1.015	1.020	1.080	1.033
Variance		1.030	1.040	1.166	1.067
Skewness		-.093	.156	.326	.159
Std. Error of Skewness		.137	.137	.137	.137
Kurtosis		-.110	-.589	-.686	-.557
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.273	.273	.273	.273
Minimum		1	1	1	1
Maximum		5	5	5	5

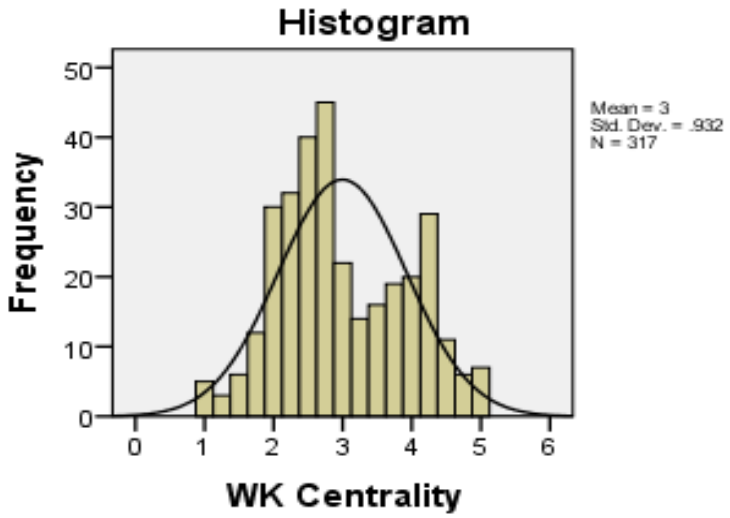


Figure 24: Histogram for work centrality

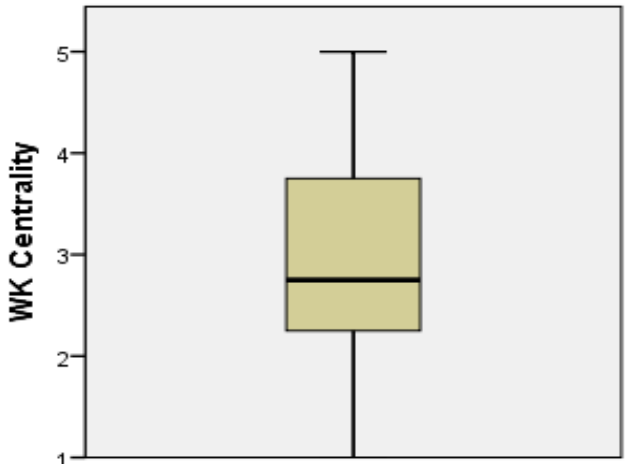


Figure 25: Box plot for work centrality

4.2.3.4 *Entitlement mentality*

Table 39 presents the descriptive results of the exploitative entitlement mentality measure. In Stage One, the entitlement mentality scale had seven items; four of these items were dropped after component analysis indicated that they loaded on three components. Three items remained, and below are the results for the exploitative entitlement mentality scale with three items. All the means were below 3. Just as in Stage One, the respondents showed a high level of agreement on this scale, suggesting that they have a low exploitative entitlement mentality. The histogram in Figure 26 and box plot in Figure 27 indicate positive skewness and the possible existence of outliers. Based on the fact that bootstrapping was performed on all tests, as well as West *et al.'s* (1995) recommendation, no further action was deemed necessary to deal with the problem of outliers.

Table 39: Descriptive statistics for exploitative entitlement

Statistics

		Exploitative entitlement 1	Exploitative entitlement 2	Exploitative entitlement 3
N	Valid	317	317	317
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		2.38	2.27	2.06
Median		2.00	2.00	2.00
Std. Deviation		1.063	.989	1.004
Variance		1.130	.978	1.009
Skewness		.551	.908	1.156
Std. Error of Skewness		.137	.137	.137
Kurtosis		-.118	.681	1.167
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.273	.273	.273
Minimum		1	1	1
Maximum		5	5	5

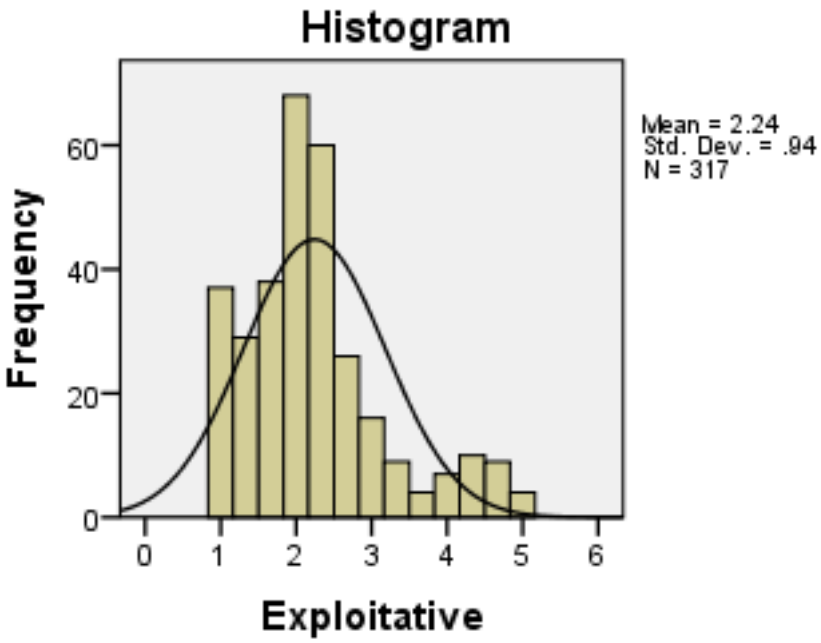


Figure 26: Histogram for exploitative entitlement

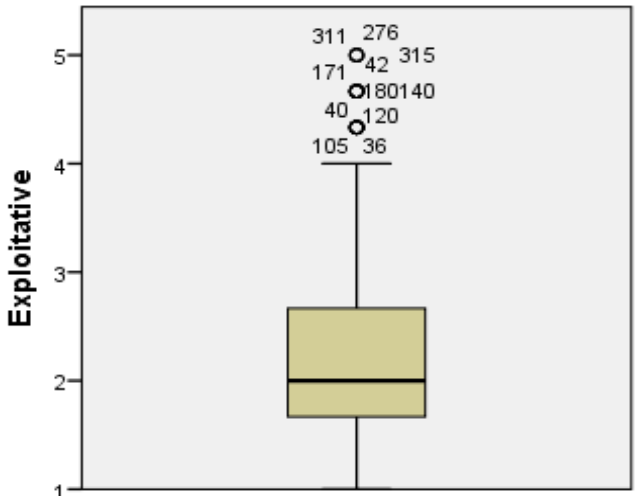


Figure 27: Box plot for exploitative entitlement

Table 40 presents the descriptive statistics for the non-exploitative entitlement measure. The means for all the three items are almost identical, with two items having a mean of 4.41 and 1 item having a mean of 4.40. This indicates a high level of agreement among the respondents. In the previous measure for exploitative entitlement, agreement was high, which indicates low exploitative entitlement. In this case, however, agreement is also high, but indicating a high non-exploitative entitlement mentality. The histogram in Figure 28 and box plot in Figure 29 suggests that the data is non-normal, with the possible existence of outliers.

Table 40: Descriptive statistics for non-exploitative entitlement

Statistics

		Non exploitative 1	Non exploitative 2	Non exploitative 3
N	Valid	317	317	317
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		4.41	4.40	4.41
Median		5.00	5.00	5.00
Std. Deviation		.781	.788	.801
Variance		.610	.621	.641
Skewness		-1.513	-1.552	-1.574
Std. Error of Skewness		.137	.137	.137
Kurtosis		2.638	2.997	2.923
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.273	.273	.273
Minimum		1	1	1
Maximum		5	5	5

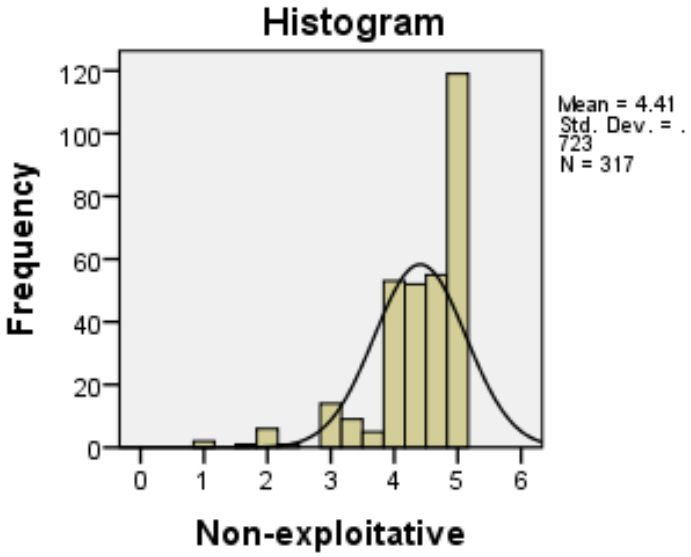


Figure 28: Histogram for non-exploitative entitlement

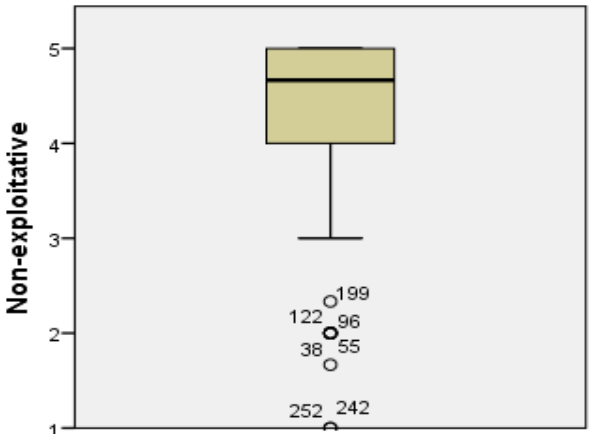


Figure 29: Box plot for non-exploitative entitlement

4.3. Reliability and validity for Stage two

4.3.1 *Work values*

Principal component analysis was performed to determine the validity of the work values measure. The work values measure was divided into two dimensions, intrinsic and extrinsic work values, with seven items in total. The two dimensions were tested separately: Table 41 shows the results for intrinsic work values. The total variance explained was below the recommended 60 per cent limit for intrinsic work values. The Kaizer-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure was also used to verify the sampling adequacy for the analysis with KMO = 0.529 (which is also below the recommended value of 0.6). Bartlett's test of sphericity (X^2 = 171.755; p<0.001). Cronbach's alpha was also low at .62. The results indicate a potential problem when further analysis using SEM is conducted.

Table 41: Intrinsic work values total variance explained

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.728	57.598	57.598	1.728	57.598	57.598
2	.900	29.991	87.589			
3	.372	12.411	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.529
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	171.755
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.629	3

Table 42 below presents the total variance explained, KMO and Cronbach's alpha score for extrinsic work values. The total variance explained by the three items is 62.556 and the Kaizer-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure for verifying the sampling adequacy for the analysis with KMO = 0.625. Bartlett's test of sphericity (X^2 = 145.527; p<0.001). Cronbach's alpha was adequate at.70.

Table 42: Extrinsic work values total variance explained

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.877	62.556	62.556	1.877	62.556	62.556
2	.743	24.775	87.332			
3	.380	12.668	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.625
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	145.527
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.70	3

4.3.2 *Materialism*

The materialism scale had five items, which accounted for 79.784 per cent of the total variance explained in table 43; this met the minimum recommended threshold. The Kaizer-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure was also used to verify the sampling adequacy for the analysis with KMO = 0.888 (which is also above the recommended value of 0.6). Bartlett's test of sphericity (X^2 = 1348.523; p<0.001). Cronbach's alpha was .79, above the acceptable limit of .70.

Table 43: Materialism total variance explained

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.989	79.784	79.784	3.989	79.784	79.784
2	.363	7.259	87.043			
3	.283	5.659	92.702			
4	.197	3.946	96.648			
5	.168	3.352	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.888
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1348.523
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.94	5

4.3.3 *Work centrality*

Table 44 presents the work centrality scale which had four items, accounting for 80.751 per cent of the total variance explained; this was well above the recommended limit. A Cronbach's alpha of .92 was also well above the criteria recommended.

The Kaizer-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure to verify the sampling adequacy for the analysis KMO = 0.838 was also above the recommended limit. Bartlett's test of sphericity (X^2 = 943.833; p<0.001).

Table 44: Work centrality total variance explained

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.230	80.751	80.751	3.230	80.751	80.751
2	.348	8.692	89.442			
3	.235	5.881	95.323			
4	.187	4.677	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.838
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	943.833
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.92	4

4.3.4 *Entitlement mentality*

Entitlement mentality, as explained earlier, was divided into the exploitative entitlement and the non-exploitative entitlement. Exploitative entitlement had seven items for Stage One, but the scale was modified in Stage Two as principal component analysis had revealed that four items were loading on two other components, thereby reducing the total variance explained. Table 45 shows that the remaining three items accounted for 85.281 per cent of total variance explained. The Kaizer-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure was also used to verify the sampling adequacy for the analysis with KMO = 0.750. Bartlett's test of sphericity (X^2 = 666.764; p<0.001). Cronbach's alpha was also adequate at .91.

Table 45: Exploitative entitlement total variance explained

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.558	85.281	85.281	2.558	85.281	85.281
2	.265	8.827	94.108			
3	.177	5.892	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.750
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	666.764
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.91	3

Non-exploitative entitlement mentality items were also reduced to three after scale validation in Stage One. Table 46 indicates that the remaining three items accounted for 83.778 per cent of the total variance explained. Cronbach's alpha was also high at .90. The Kaizer-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure was also used to verify the sampling adequacy for the analysis with KMO = 0.749. Bartlett's test of sphericity (X^2 = 605.342; $p<0.001$).

Table 46: Non-exploitative entitlement total variance explained

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.513	83.778	83.778	2.513	83.778	83.778
2	.279	9.301	93.079			
3	.208	6.921	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.749
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	605.342
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.90	3

The section above presented the reliability and validity of the scale used in Stage One. Scale items tested above were derived from literature and tested in the context of two colleges within Johannesburg. The results suggest that most of the scale items met the minimum requirements for SEM to be conducted.

4.4 USING THE INDEPENDENT T-TEST TO COMPARE MEANS FOR MALE AND FEMALE RESPONDENTS IN STAGE TWO.

Tables 47 and 48 present the results of the independent t-test carried out to compare means for males and females on the intrinsic work values scale. There were significant differences in 3 out of 4 (1, 3, 4) items in the scale; for males (*M*=4.58, *SD*=.575), for females (*M*=4.73, *SD*=.538), t (24) =-2.40, p=.107. Item 3 (*M*=4.12, *SD*=.881) and (*M*=4.31, *SD*=.633), *t* (19) =-2.15, *p*=.033. Item 4 (*M*=4.11, *SD*=.818), and (*M*=4.34, *SD*=.701), *t* (22) =-2.58, *p*=.011. These results suggest that females have higher intrinsic work values than males.

Table 47: Independent t-test intrinsic work values

Group Statistics

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Intrinsic work values 1	1	120	4.58	.575	.052
	2	197	4.73	.538	.038
Intrinsic work values 2	1	120	4.53	.518	.047
	2	197	4.62	.486	.035
Intrinsic work values 3	1	120	4.12	.881	.080
	2	197	4.31	.633	.045
Intrinsic work values 4	1	120	4.11	.818	.075
	2	197	4.34	.701	.050

Table 47 above presents a comparison of the means between genders for Stage Two. An examination of the means reveals that females have higher means than males. This finding is supports earlier research findings which have suggested that women have higher work ethics than men. These results will be further discussed in the discussion chapter.

Table 48: Independent t-test intrinsic work values

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Intrinsic work values 1	Equal variances assumed	9.578	.002	-2.439	315	.015	-.156	.064	-.282	-.030
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.400	238.632	.017	-.156	.065	-.284	-.028
Intrinsic work values 2	Equal variances assumed	8.348	.004	-1.723	315	.086	-.099	.058	-.213	.014
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.696	238.921	.091	-.099	.059	-.215	.016
Intrinsic work values 3	Equal variances assumed	1.013	.315	-2.322	315	.021	-.198	.085	-.366	-.030
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.148	193.919	.033	-.198	.092	-.380	-.016
Intrinsic work values 4	Equal variances assumed	.210	.647	-2.679	315	.008	-.232	.087	-.402	-.062
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.581	222.220	.011	-.232	.090	-.409	-.055

Further tests were carried out to compare means between males and females on the extrinsic work values scale. Table 49 and 50 present independent t-test results which show significant differences in 2 out of 3 items. Males (*M*=4.50, *SD*=.674), females (*M*=4.66, *SD*=.524), *t* (21) =2.29, *p*=.015 and (*M*=4.52, *SD*=.608), (*M*=4.73, *SD*=.519) *t* (22) =3.21, *p*=.002. Table 52 shows that females have higher means than males suggesting that females have higher extrinsic work values than males

Table 49: Independent t-test extrinsic work values

Group Statistics

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Extrinsic work values 1	Male	120	4.50	.674	.061
	Female	197	4.66	.524	.037
Extrinsic work values 2	Male	120	4.46	.620	.057
	Female	197	4.53	.602	.043
Extrinsic work values 3	Male	120	4.52	.608	.055
	Female	197	4.73	.519	.037

What is noticeable in table 49 are the consistently higher means for female respondents in terms of extrinsic work values. This is a surprising finding as it contradicts research findings elsewhere, which suggest that males value extrinsic rewards more than females. A look at table 51 which compares means for males and females on the materialism scale shows that males have higher means than females, suggesting that males are more materialistic than females. If females have higher extrinsic work values, but are less materialistic than males, there appears to be a contradiction since materialism and extrinsic work values should logically be related. These findings will be discussed later on in relation to literature.

Table 50: Independent t-test extrinsic work values

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Extrinsic work values 1	Equal variances assumed	9.357	.002	-2.434	315	.015	-.165	.068	-.298	-.032
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.293	206.010	.023	-.165	.072	-.307	-.023
Extrinsic work values 2	Equal variances assumed	.449	.503	-1.059	315	.291	-.075	.071	-.213	.064
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.051	245.626	.294	-.075	.071	-.215	.065
Extrinsic work values 3	Equal variances assumed	15.826	.000	-3.340	315	.001	-.214	.064	-.341	-.088
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.214	221.535	.002	-.214	.067	-.346	-.083

An independent t-test was also carried out to compare means between males and females on the materialism scale. Tables 51 and 52 present the results of the t-test for the equality of means for the materialism scale. The materialism scale had 5 items and significant differences were found in 3 out of 5 items: item 3, males (M=4.08, SD=1.02) females (M=3.71, SD=1.11), t (27) =2.98, p=.003. Item 4 (M=3.90, SD=1.04) and (M=3.55, SD=1.09), t (26) =2.87, p=.004. An examination of the means in table 54 shows that males have higher means than females. These results suggest that males are more materialistic than females. A discussion of these results will be carried out in chapter 5.

Table 51: Independent t-tests materialism

Group Statistics

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Materialism 1	Male	120	4.15	.827	.075
	Female	197	3.98	.875	.062
Materialism 2	Male	120	4.53	.809	.074
	Female	197	4.34	.990	.071
Materialism 3	Male	120	4.08	1.022	.093
	Female	197	3.71	1.108	.079
Materialism 4	Male	120	3.90	1.040	.095
	Female	197	3.55	1.085	.077
Materialism 5	Male	120	3.97	1.004	.092
	Female	197	3.72	1.035	.074

Table 51 shows that males have higher means for the materialism scale than females. This may be related to the socialisation of the genders in the African context where males are seen as providers (Mkhize, 2004). For males to be providers, they need material objects.

Table 52: Independent t-tests, materialism

Independent sample test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Materialism 1	Equal variances assumed	.013	.910	1.717	315	.087	.170	.099	-.025	.366
	Equal variances not assumed			1.740	262.526	.083	.170	.098	-.022	.363
Materialism 2	Equal variances assumed	11.287	.001	1.724	315	.086	.185	.107	-.026	.396
	Equal variances not assumed			1.810	289.083	.071	.185	.102	-.016	.386
Materialism 3	Equal variances assumed	3.925	.048	2.924	315	.004	.364	.125	.119	.610
	Equal variances not assumed			2.981	267.161	.003	.364	.122	.124	.605
Materialism 4	Equal variances assumed	2.594	.108	2.843	315	.005	.352	.124	.108	.595
	Equal variances not assumed			2.873	259.728	.004	.352	.122	.111	.593
Materialism 5	Equal variances assumed	3.063	.081	2.117	315	.035	.251	.119	.018	.484
	Equal variances not assumed			2.133	257.563	.034	.251	.118	.019	.483

Tables 53 and 54 present the results for the independence sample test for the differences in work centrality between men and women. The means indicate a moderate-to-low rating of the importance of work for both genders, and the significance tests also show no significant difference for all items. This is an interesting finding, which deserves more discussion in Chapter Five. Considering that descriptive statistics carried out in Stage One suggested that the respondents have high materialism, one would expect their work centrality to be high as money is generally the means of acquiring material possessions and work is the normal way to get money.

Table 53: Independent t-tests centrality group statistics

Group Statistics

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Work centrality 1	Male	120	3.28	1.039	.095
	Female	197	3.17	1.000	.071
Work centrality 2	Male	120	3.06	1.056	.096
	Female	197	3.13	1.000	.071
Work centrality 3	Male	120	2.74	1.096	.100
	Female	197	2.75	1.072	.076
Work centrality 4	Male	120	2.93	1.010	.092
	Female	197	2.91	1.049	.075

A comparison of the means between genders does not reveal any pattern as other comparisons have done. There was no significant difference in any of the work centrality items. What can be gleaned from the results of the tests is that both genders have moderate to low work centrality. Research evidence has suggested a steady decline in work centrality among younger workers (Somola & Sutton, 2002).

Table 54: Independent t-test- work centrality

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Work centrality 1	Equal variances assumed	1.446	.230	.942	315	.347	.111	.118	-.121	.342
	Equal variances not assumed			.934	244.152	.351	.111	.119	-.123	.344
Work centrality 2	Equal variances assumed	.733	.393	-.580	315	.562	-.069	.118	-.301	.164
	Equal variances not assumed			-.572	240.871	.568	-.069	.120	-.305	.167
Work centrality 3	Equal variances assumed	.399	.528	-.036	315	.971	-.005	.125	-.251	.242
	Equal variances not assumed			-.036	247.147	.971	-.005	.126	-.252	.243
Work centrality 4	Equal variances assumed	.006	.938	.164	315	.870	.020	.120	-.216	.255
	Equal variances not assumed			.165	258.772	.869	.020	.119	-.214	.253

Table 55 presents the means for the male and female respondents on the exploitative entitlement scale. When examining the means, one notices that they are on the low side for both genders, although males have slightly higher means than females. This is consistent with Stage One, which found that the respondents had a low exploitative entitlement mentality. Table 56 shows no significant difference in means between males and females. The results of the first stage of this study are therefore validated by this finding, and one can conclude that based on these results, Generation Y has low exploitative entitlement mentality.

Table 55: Independent t-test- exploitative entitlement Stage two group statistics

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Exploitative entitlement 1	Male	120	2.53	1.061	.097
	Female	197	2.30	1.058	.075
Exploitative entitlement 2	Male	120	2.41	1.065	.097
	Female	197	2.19	.933	.066
Exploitative entitlement 3	Male	120	2.18	1.034	.094
	Female	197	1.99	.982	.070

As in Stage One, males have higher means for exploitative entitlement than females although the differences are not significant. Research evidence will be presented in the discussion chapter that suggests that males are more selfish than females, thereby somewhat validating the present findings.

Table 56: Independent t-test- exploitative entitlement

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Exploitative entitlement 1	Equal variances assumed	.606	.437	1.839	315	.067	.226	.123	-.016	.467
	Equal variances not assumed			1.838	250.919	.067	.226	.123	-.016	.467
Exploitative entitlement 2	Equal variances assumed	5.198	.023	1.889	315	.060	.215	.114	-.009	.440
	Equal variances not assumed			1.829	226.267	.069	.215	.118	-.017	.448
Exploitative entitlement 1	Equal variances assumed	3.545	.061	1.552	315	.122	.180	.116	-.048	.408
	Equal variances not assumed			1.532	241.355	.127	.180	.118	-.051	.412

Tables 57 and 58 present the results for the t-test for equality of means between males and females on the non-exploitative entitlement scale. There were significant differences in scores for all items in the non-exploitative entitlement scale: item 1, males (*M*=4.24, *SD*=.870), females (*M*=4.52, *SD*=.704) *t* (21), *p*=.002. Item 2 (*M*=4.21, *SD*=.934), females (*M*=4.52, *SD*=.659) *t* (19) =-3.23, *p*=.001. Item 3, males (*M*=4.25, *SD*=.928), females (*M*=4.50, *SD*=.697), *t* (20) =-2.57, *p*=.011. This is somewhat different from the results of Stage One. Here, females have higher non-exploitative entitlement than males.

Table 57: Independent t-test- non-exploitative entitlement Stage two group statistics

Group Statistics

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Non-Exploitative entitlement 1	Male	120	4.24	.870	.079
	Female	197	4.52	.704	.050
Non-Exploitative entitlement 2	Male	120	4.21	.934	.085
	Female	197	4.52	.659	.047
Non-Exploitative entitlement 3	Male	120	4.25	.928	.085
	Female	197	4.50	.697	.050

Table 57 shows that females have higher means for non-exploitative entitlement than males. This may be linked to research findings suggesting that females are fairer than men (e.g. (Andreoni, &Vesterlund, 2001). Non-exploitative entitlement is premised on deserving rather than at the expense of others. Such an interpretation would suggest that women are fairer than men.

Table 58: Independent t-test- non-exploitative entitlement

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Exploitative entitlement 1	Equal variances assumed	1.962	.162	-3.093	315	.002	-.276	.089	-.452	-.100
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.940	212.464	.004	-.276	.094	-.461	-.091
Exploitative entitlement 2	Equal variances assumed	6.949	.009	-3.507	315	.001	-.315	.090	-.491	-.138
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.231	191.463	.001	-.315	.097	-.506	-.123
Exploitative entitlement 3	Equal variances assumed	4.447	.036	-2.752	315	.006	-.253	.092	-.433	-.072
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.571	200.473	.011	-.253	.098	-.446	-.059

The above section examined the differences in means between men and women on all the variables under study. Some differences were noted and further discussion on these differences will be conducted in Chapter Five. When the results for Stage One are compared to the results for Stage Two, more differences between males and females were noted in Stage Two than in Stage One. Because Stage One was used as part of the scale validation process, all discussion relating to differences between males and females will relate to Stage Two. The section below reports the results for the SEM tests carried out to test the hypotheses.

4.5 ANALYSIS OF DATA USING STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING (SEM)

The model developed in the the introduction chapter of this research suggested associations between the five variables focused on in this study. While regression analysis may have allowed the researcher to identify the relationships, it has many disadvantages compared to SEM.

According to Dion (2016, p 365), SEM has the following advantages over regression:

- SEM estimates *all* coefficients in the model simultaneously; therefore one is able to assess the significance and strength of a particular relationship in the context of the complete model (Smith, 2004).
- In many models, an independent variable in one relationship becomes a dependent model in other relationships. Regression cannot handle this very well and requires the use of hierarchical regression
- Multi-colinearity is a problem in multiple regression, but in SEM, multi-collinearity can be modelled and thus assessed. When using SEM, the relationships between predictor variables can be modelled; this yields a more valid predictor-dependent coefficient. The accounted for variance in the dependent may improve because indirect predictor dependent relationships are also captured.
- When using latent variables in SEM, measurement error is eliminated, and thus more valid coefficients are obtained. This is because variance in the observed scores is = common variance + unique variance + error variance, but only common variance is retained in the latent variable.

Kelloway (1998) further stated that the main reason for adopting SEM in inferential statistics analysis is its ability to frame and answer complex questions about data. SEM also enables the researcher to specify structural relationships among latent variables (Kelloway, 1998). The main disadvantage associated with SEM is its complexity when compared with other multivariate techniques. In addition, it cannot test the directionality of relationships, although (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Kelloway, 1998). Based on the above disadvantages of regression analysis compared to the advantages of SEM, using SEM was justified for this study.

The research model for this study was grounded in theory that postulated that Generation Y's work values are largely extrinsic (Twenge *et al.*, 2010), that they have a high sense of entitlement (Twenge, 2006), that they are materialistic (Abramson & Inglehart, 1992), and that they have low work centrality (Fist, 2010). Field (2000) suggested that there are two components within a model: the *measurement model* and the *structural model*. The measurement model is basically the part of the general model in which latent variables are prescribed, as we determine which measured variables are indicators of a latent variable (or factor). The structural model is the part of the model in which we define the relationship between latent variables and other measured variables that are not indicators of some other latent variable. These two parts of the model are combined to make a whole model that comprehensively describes the relationships between variables that are free of measurement error (i.e., latent variables). According to Hoyle (1995), SEM provides a comprehensive statistical means for testing hypotheses concerning relationships between and among latent variables.

In Chapter One, a theoretical model depicting the relationships was developed to be tested in Chapter Five. The model that was developed for testing is presented in Figure 30.

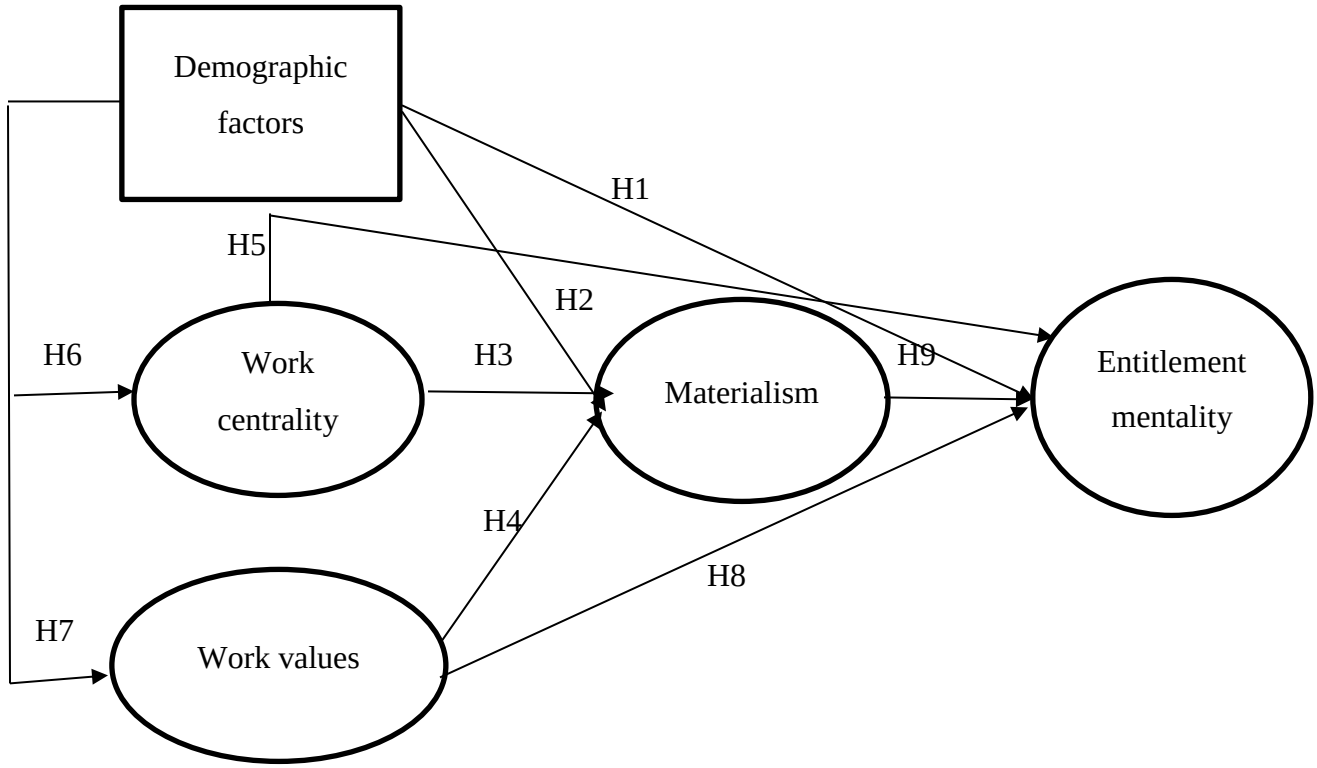


Figure 30: Theoretical model developed in Chapter 1

Figure 30 shows the path diagram that was developed in Chapter One. A path diagram depicts a diagrammatic representation of the relationships in the model. Based on the model, the boxes and arrows can then be used to present hypotheses. Such relationships must be based on theory (Hoyle, 1995). Using Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) recommendations, the first step was to construct a measurement model. This is principal confirmatory analysis, whose purpose is to test the reliability and factor structure of the research measures' variables. Using Amos software, latent variables (work values, materialism, work centrality, and entitlement mentality) were entered into the model.

SEM requires that fit indices be identified during the construction of the measurement model. Absolute fit indices determine how well a model fits the sample data (McDonald & Ho, 2000). They show which model has the most superior fit. The following are some of the recommended indices: Chi-square test, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), degrees of freedom (DF), P value, the goodness-of-fit statistic (GFI) and the adjusted goodness-of-fit statistic (AGFI), the normed-fit index (NFI), and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) (McDonald & Ho, 2000). A description of these indices as suggested by Hooper *et al.* (2008) and their recommended cut-off points are given in Table 62. After entering the latent variables and the fit indices described above, the output depicted in Figure 31 indicated that the model was not a good fit.

Table 59: Fit indices

Fit index	Acceptable threshold	Description
Chi-Square χ	Low chi-square relative to the degrees of freedom with an insignificant p value ($p > 0.05$)	
GFI	Values greater than 0.95	Scaled between 0 and 1, with higher values indicating better model fit.
AGFI	Values greater than 0.95	Adjust the GFI based on the number of parameters in the model. Values can fall outside the 0-1.0 range
NFI	Values greater than 0.95	Assesses fit relative to baseline model, which assumes no covariance between the observed variables. Has a tendency to overestimate fit in small samples
TLI	Values greater than 0.95	Non-normed values can fall outside the 0-1 range. Favours parsimony.
RMSEA	Values less than 0.07	Values less than 0.03 represent excellent fit

EXTR = Work values, WC = Work centrality, Mat = Materialism, NEXPLA = Non-exploitative entitlement mentality, and EXPL = Exploitative entitlement mentality.

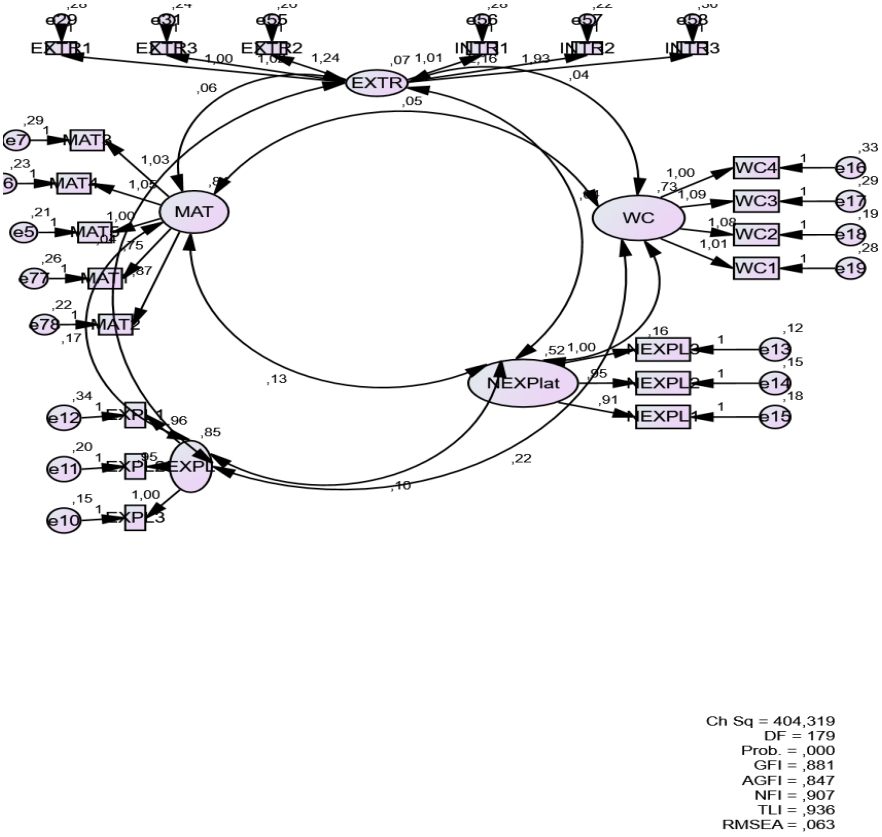


Figure 31: Measurement model 1

Figure 31 above presents the measurement model before modification. Most of the fit indices shown above, especially the Chi-square versus the degrees of freedom ratio, P value, GFI, AGFI, and RMSEA, indicated a poor fit between the data and the model. Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen (2008) argued that given the complexity of SEM, it is common to find that the fit of the proposed model is poor; in such cases, modifications can be made locally (items with low multiple R^2, less than 2.0 should be removed as they indicate high levels of error). A discriminant validity test, recommended by Bagozzi, Yi, and Philips (1991), can also be used to determine whether the constructs are significantly different. Based on the recommendations of Hooper *et al*., (2008), and also informed by literature, it was decided that the model be modified to improve the model fit. Dion (2016, p. 28) suggested the following when modifying a model:

"*In using a modification index, one should examine the par change index that tells you what the approximate value of the estimated parameter will be. In modifying the model, one should add one new parameter at a time. Correlating error terms to achieve better fit is not valid unless you have a very good reason to do so. Any modifications made must be justified in terms of theory."*

A quick check of the modification indices indicated that intrinsic work values and the first two items in the materialism scale were responsible for causing the poor fit. Based on the fact that intrinsic work values had lower validity and reliability scores in Stage One, all the three items were removed, together with the first two items of the materialism scale. An examination of the first two items of the materialism scale showed that they cross-loaded with the extrinsic work values because they both related to money. The first model was therefore modified by removing the items mentioned above. The modified model results are shown in Figure 32. This is a much better model, with all fit indices indicating that it is a good fit. The Chi-square value = 75,466, Degrees of Freedom = 80, P value= .623, GFI = 968, AGFI = 953, NFI = 973, TLI = 1.002, and RMSEA = .000.

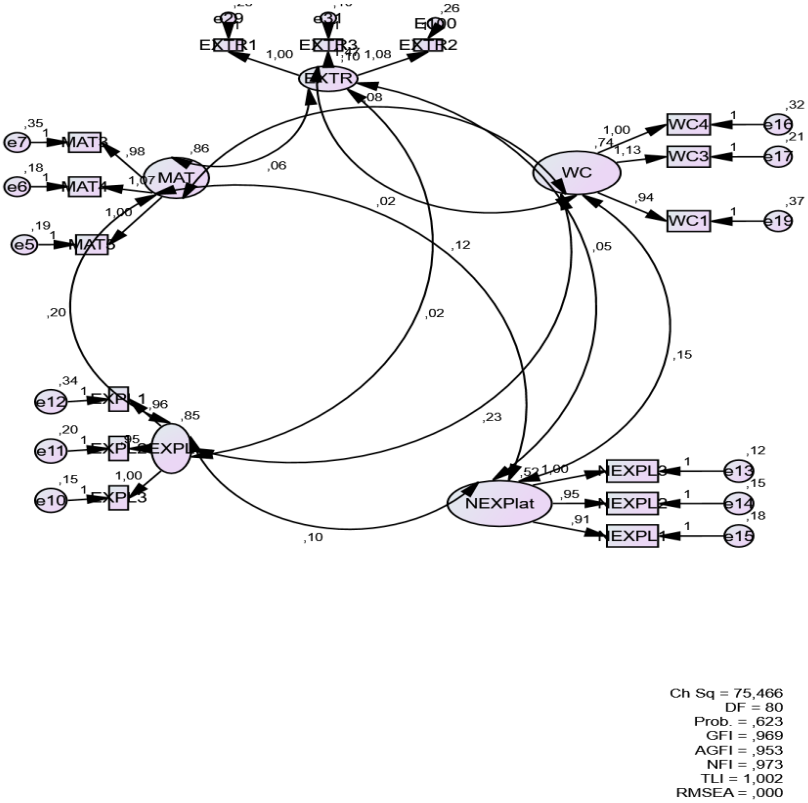


Figure 32: Modified measurement model

Table 60 shows co-variances between variables for the measurement model. For example, the covariance between the non-exploitative entitlement mentality and extrinsic work values is estimated to be .051. The co-variances between most variables are significant at the .05 level of significance, except for materialism and work centrality, exploitative entitlement mentality, and extrinsic work values, and between work centrality and extrinsic work values. A discussion of the meaning of this will be done in the discussion chapter (Chapter Five).

Table 60: Co-variances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Non-exploitative entitlement	<-->	Extrinsic work values	.051	.017	2.972	.003
Non-exploitative entitlement	<-->	Work centrality	.153	.040	3.800	***
Materialism	<-->	Exploitative entitlement	.203	.054	3.765	***
Exploitative entitlement	<-->	Non exploitative entitlement	.100	.041	2.408	.016
Exploitative entitlement	<-->	Work centrality	.231	.052	4.454	***
Materialism	<-->	Work centrality	.080	.050	1.611	.107
Materialism	<-->	Extrinsic work values	.059	.021	2.738	.006
Materialism	<-->	Non exploitative entitlement	.124	.042	2.951	.003
Exploitative entitlement	<-->	Extrinsic work values	.022	.020	1.104	.270
Work centrality	<-->	Extrinsic work values	.024	.019	1.276	.202

Table 61 shows the correlations between the variables in the model. For example, the correlation between non-exploitative entitlement mentality and extrinsic work values is estimated to be .224, which is significant at the .05 per cent level of significance.

Table 61: Correlations: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate
Non-exploitative entitlement	<-->	Extrinsic work values	.224
Non-exploitative entitlement	<-->	Work centrality	.246
Materialism	<-->	Exploitative entitlement	.236
Exploitative entitlement	<-->	Non-exploitative entitlement	.150
Exploitative entitlement	<-->	Work centrality	.290
Materialism	<-->	Work centrality	.100
Materialism	<-->	Extrinsic work values	.201
Materialism	<-->	Non-exploitative entitlement	.185
Exploitative entitlement	<-->	Extrinsic work values	.076
Work centrality	<-->	Extrinsic work values	.089

After creating a measurement that indicates a good fit between the model and the data, the next stage is the construction of the structural equation model that tests the hypotheses in the model. Figure 33 presents the structural equation model used to test the hypotheses. Demographic factors (measured variables) were entered together with the latent variables (work values, work centrality, materialism and entitlement mentality).

Wkvls = Work values, NEXPL = Non-exploitative entitlement, WC = Work centrality, Mat = Materialism, EXP = Exploitative entitlement.

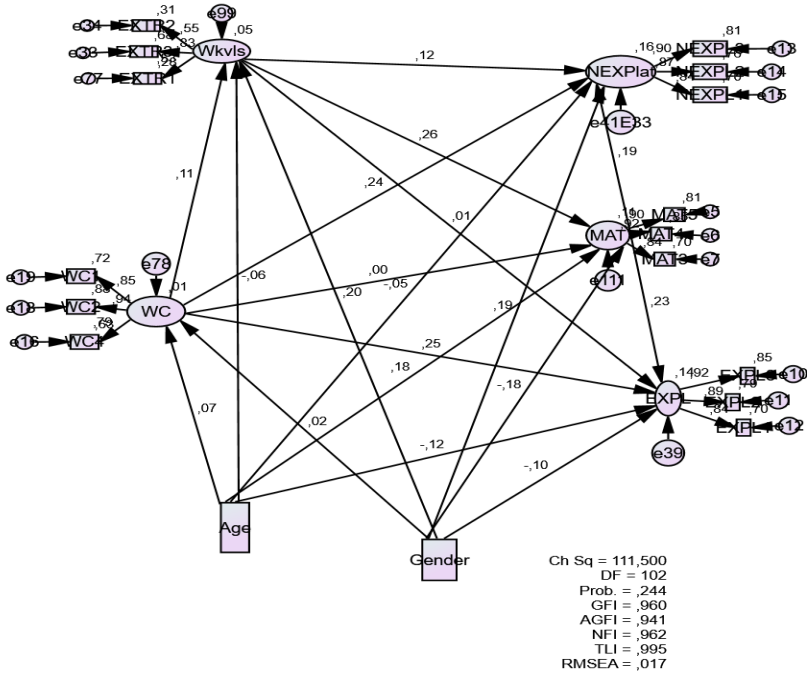


Figure 33: Structural model

Figure 33 presents the path analysis and fit indices for the structural equation model developed in the study. The fit indices suggest a good fit as they are all within acceptable limits recommended by Hooper *et al.* (2008) in table 59.

4.6 Model fit indices

As discussed above, Figure 33 shows the final structural model. A seven-factor model was hypothesised to be confirmed in the measurement portion of the model. The main outcome variable was the entitlement mentality, which had two dimensions: exploitative entitlement and non-exploitative entitlement. These two dimensions were separated in order to check the direct and indirect effects of the independent variables on them.

The fit indices for the structural model are shown as follows: the Chi-square = 111.500, Degrees of freedom = 102, P value = .244, GFI = .960 AGFI =.941, NFI = .962, TLI = .995, and RMSEA = .017. These results suggest that the hypothesised model is a good fit, as all fit indices were at acceptable levels.

4.6.1 Path coefficients

Figure 33 above showed the results of the structural model based on 317 undergraduate students enrolled in a public university and a private college in Johannesburg, South Africa. The maximum likelihood estimation was chosen because the data met the minimum requirements for normality of distribution. Figure 33 presented the standardised path coefficients for the final model. Most of the path coefficients are significant at least at the $p < .05$ level of significance, except for the following paths coefficients: age and work centrality, gender and work centrality, work centrality and work values, age and work values, and age and the exploitative entitlement. The paths were derived from the hypotheses of the model, which are discussed in the sections below. Of importance at this point is that the theoretical model explains 16 per cent of the non-exploitative entitlement and 13 per cent of the exploitative entitlement, which are the dependent variables in the model.

The theoretical model also predicted indirect effects, which relate to variables being mediated by other variables. Materialism was predicted to be the mediator in the relationships. Figure 33 above indicated that exploitative entitlement and non-exploitative entitlement received indirect effects from work values, gender, and that age. The mediator was materialism. The predictors of materialism explained 11 per cent of materialism. Although all the R^2 values were low, they were all significant. Reisinger (1997) attempted to identify various influences on the coefficient of the determination R^2 and found a significant relationship between R^2 and data type, the data collection method, the number of repressors in the study, and the sample size. However, in social sciences, R^2 is often low and there is no single acceptable range for R^2 because it gives information on 'goodness of fit' and not goodness of prediction (Reisinger, 1997).

Table 62 represents the unstadardised regression weights, which indicate the influence of one variable on another and how much change is possible if the dependent variable changes. Statistically significant P values are at the .05 level of significance.

Table 62: Maximum likelihood estimates

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Work centrality	<---	Age	.036	.031	1.174	.241
Work centrality	<---	Gender	.034	.099	.342	.732
Work values	<---	Work centrality	.061	.038	1.611	.107
Work values	<---	Age	-.019	.019	-.982	.326
Work values	<---	Gender	.190	.061	3.095	.002
Materialism	<---	Age	.106	.033	3.192	.001
Materialism	<---	Work values	.498	.141	3.532	***
Materialism	<---	Gender	-.338	.109	-3.106	.002
Materialism	<---	Work centrality	.004	.066	.061	.951
Non-exploitative entitlement	<---	Work centrality	.207	.052	3.994	***
Exploitative entitlement	<---	Work centrality	.287	.066	4.316	***
Non-exploitative entitlement	<---	Materialism	.153	.049	3.124	.002
Exploitative entitlement	<---	Materialism	.238	.061	3.939	***
Exploitative entitlement	<---	Age	-.074	.034	-2.195	.028
Non-exploitative entitlement	<---	Gender	.283	.086	3.290	,001
Non-exploitative entitlement	<---	Work values	.178	.108	1.647	.100
Exploitative entitlement	<---	Gender	-.183	.106	-1.722	.085
Non-exploitative entitlement	<---	Age	-.025	.026	-.953	.341
Exploitative entitlement	<---	Work values	.027	.137	.199	.842
Materialism 3	<---	Materialism	1.000			
Exploitative entitlement 3	<---	Exploitative entitlement mentality	1.000			
Exploitative entitlement 2	<---	Exploitative entitlement mentality	.950	.042	22.674	***
Exploitative entitlement 1	<---	Exploitative entitlement mentality	.962	.047	20.522	***
Non-exploitative entitlement 3	<---	Non-exploitative entitlement	1.000			
Non-exploitative entitlement 2	<---	Non-exploitative entitlement	.956	.047	20.350	***
Non-exploitative entitlement 1	<---	Non-exploitative entitlement	.909	.047	19.234	***
Work centrality 4	<---	Work centrality	1.000			
Work centrality 2	<---	Work centrality	1.170	.065	17.898	***
Work centrality 1	<---	Work centrality	1.053	.062	16.884	***
Materialism 4	<---	Materialism	1.090	.052	20.761	***
Materialism 5	<---	Materialism	1.016	.050	20.311	***
Extrinsic work values 3	<---	Work values	1.000			
Extrinsic work values 2	<---	Work values	.720	.111	6.501	***
Extrinsic work values 1	<---	Work values	.667	.104	6.389	***

The unstandardised coefficients and associated test statistics appear in Table 62 above. Each unstandardised regression coefficient represents the amount of change in the dependent or mediating variable for each one unit change in the variable predicting it. For example, when age goes up by 1, work centrality goes up by 0.036. There is evidence from literature that suggests that older workers have higher work centrality than younger workers. Table 62 also displays the unstandardised estimate, its standard error (SE), and the estimate divided by the standard error (critical ratio = CR). The probability value associated with the null hypothesis that the test is zero is displayed under the P column. Although Table 62 shows unstandardised regression weights, the P values are also relevant to the standardised coefficients.

Most of the regression coefficients in this model are significantly different from zero beyond the .05 level, except for age and work centrality, gender and work centrality, work centrality and work values, age and work values, and age and exploitative entitlement. Standardised estimates allow you to evaluate the relative contributions of each predictor variable to each outcome variable and are reflected in the path coefficient in Figure 33 and Table 63. The significant coefficients suggest a relationship between the measured variables.

Table 63 presents the path coefficients, which show by how many standard deviations one variable goes up when the independent variable goes up by 1. For example, when the age goes up by 1 standard deviation, work centrality goes up by 0.69 standard deviations. These path coefficients' associated P values are shown in Figure 62.

Table 63: Standardized regression weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate
Work centrality	<---	Age	.069
Work centrality	<---	Gender	.020
Work values	<---	Work centrality	,106
Work values	<---	Age	-.063
Work values	<---	Gender	.198
Materialism	<---	Age	.181
Materialism	<---	Gender	-.181
Materialism	<---	Work centrality	.004
Materialism	<---	Work values	.255
Non-exploitative entitlement	<---	Work centrality	.236
Exploitative entitlement	<---	Work centrality	.252
Non-exploitative entitlement	<---	Materialism	.193
Exploitative entitlement	<---	Materialism	.230
Exploitative entitlement	<---	Age	-.122
Non-exploitative entitlement	<---	Gender	.190
Non-exploitative entitlement	<---	Work values	.116
Exploitative entitlement	<---	Gender	-.099
Non-exploitative entitlement	<---	Age	-.054
Exploitative entitlement	<---	Work values	,014
Materialism 3	<---	Materialism	.838
Exploitative entitlement 3	<---	Exploitative entitlement	.922
Exploitative entitlement 2	<---	Exploitative entitlement	.890
Exploitative entitlement 1	<---	Exploitative entitlement	.838
Non-exploitative entitlement 3	<---	Non-exploitative entitlement	.900
Non-exploitative entitlement 2	<---	Non-exploitative entitlement	.873
Non-exploitative entitlement 1	<---	Non-exploitative entitlement	.838
Work centrality 4	<---	Work centrality	.793
Work centrality 2	<---	Work centrality	.939
Work centrality 1	<---	Work centrality	.849
Materialism 4	<---	Materialism	.921
Materialism 5	<---	Materialism	.902
Extrinsic work values 3	<---	Work values	.827
Extrinsic work values 2	<---	Work values	.553
Extrinsic work values 1	<---	Work values	.529

Table 64 presents the percentage accounted for by the predictors of the dependant variable. It is estimated that the predictors of materialism explain 10.8 per cent of its variance. In other words, the error variance of materialism is approximately 89.2 per cent of the variance of materialism itself. The predictors of non-exploitative entitlement in the model explain 16.1 per cent of non-exploitative entitlement and 12.8 per cent of exploitative entitlement. These are very low R^2 scores, but they are all significant at the .05 level of significance. The hypothesised model presented in Figure 33 suggested that the relationship between the dependent variable (entitlement mentality) and the independent variables (demographic factors, work centrality, and work values) was mediated by materialism. Tables 65, 66, and 67, which are presented in Section 4.8.3 below, show the total effect, the direct effects, and the indirect effects in the model (presented in Figure 33).

Table 64: Squared multiple correlations: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate
Work centrality	.005
Work values	.055
Materialism	.108
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality	.161
Exploitative entitlement mentality	.128
Extrinsic work values 1	.279
Extrinsic work values 2	.305
Extrinsic work values 3	.686
Work centrality 1	.722
Work centrality 2	.880
Work centrality 4	.629
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality 1	.704
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality 2	.763
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality 3	.810
Exploitative entitlement mentality 1	.701
Exploitative entitlement mentality 2	.791
Exploitative entitlement mentality 3	.850
Materialism 3	,702
Materialism 4	.849
Materialism 5	.812

4.6.2 Total effect, direct effect, and indirect effect

In this subsection, Tables 65, 66, and 67 are presented. Table 65 shows that the standardised total (direct and indirect) effect of gender on non-exploitative entitlement is .203. That is, due to both the direct (unmediated) and indirect (mediated) effects of gender on non-exploitative entitlement, when gender goes up by 1 standard deviation, non-exploitative entitlement mentality goes up by 0.203 standard deviations.

Table 66 shows the direct effect of each column variable on each row variable. The standardised direct (unmediated) effect of gender on work values is .198, that is, due to the direct (unmediated) effect of gender on work values, when gender goes up by 1 standard deviation, work values goes up by 0.198 standard deviations. This is in addition to any indirect (mediated) effect that gender may have on work values.

Table 67 presents the indirect effect of each column variable on each row variable after standardising all variables. The standardised indirect (mediated) effect of gender on materialism is .051, that is, due to the indirect (mediated) effect of gender on materialism, when gender goes up by 1 standard deviation, materialism goes up by 0.051 standard deviations. This is in addition to any direct (unmediated) effect that gender may have on materialism.

Table 65: Standardised total effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Gender	Age	Work centrality	Work values	Materialism	Non-exploit	Exploit
Work centrality	.017	.067	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Work values	.200	-.058	.107	.000	.000	.000	.000
Materialism	-.132	.165	.027	.256	.000	.000	.000
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality	.203	.039	.249	.170	.182	.000	.000
Exploitative entitlement mentality	-.028	-.049	.258	.063	.248	.000	.000
Extrinsic work values 1	.106	-.030	.057	.528	.000	.000	.000
Extrinsic work values 2	.110	-.032	.059	.552	.000	.000	.000
Extrinsic work values 3	.165	-.048	.089	.828	.000	.000	.000
Work centrality 1	.015	.057	.850	.000	.000	.000	.000
Work centrality 2	.016	.063	.938	.000	.000	,000	.000
Work centrality 4	.014	.053	.793	.000	.000	.000	.000
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality 1	.170	.032	.209	.142	.153	.839	.000
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality 2	.177	.034	.218	.148	.159	.873	.000
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality 3	.182	.035	.224	.153	.164	.900	.000
Exploitative entitlement mentality 1	-.024	-.041	.216	,053	.207	.000	.838
Exploitative entitlement mentality 2	-.025	-.043	.230	.056	.220	.000	.889
Exploitative entitlement mentality 3	-.026	-.045	.238	.058	.228	.000	.922
Materialism 3	-.110	.139	.023	.215	.838	.000	.000
Materialism 4	-.121	.152	.025	.236	.922	.000	.000
Materialism 5	-.119	.149	.025	.231	.901	.000	.000

Table 66: Standardised direct effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Gender	Age	Work cent	Work values	Material ism	Non exploit	Exploit
Work centrality	.017	.067	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Work values	.198	-.065	.107	.000	.000	.000	.000
Materialism	-.183	.180	.000	.256	.000	.000	.000
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality	.198	.000	.231	.123	.182	.000	.000
Exploitative entitlement mentality	.000	-.106	.251	.000	.248	.000	.000
Extrinsic work values 1	.000	.000	.000	.528	.000	.000	.000
Extrinsic work values 2	,.000	.000	.000	.552	.000	.000	.000
Extrinsic work values 3	.000	.000	.000	.828	.000	.000	.000
Work centrality 1	.000	.000	.850	.000	.000	.000	.000
Work centrality 2	.000	.000	.938	.000	.000	.000	.000
Work centrality 4	.000	.000	.793	.000	.000	.000	.000
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality 1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.839	.000
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality 2	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.873	.000
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality 3	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.900	.000
Exploitative entitlement mentality 1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.838
Exploitative entitlement mentality 2	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.889
Exploitative entitlement mentality 3	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.922
Materialism 3	.000	.000	.000	.000	.838	.000	.000
Materialism 4	.000	.000	.000	.000	.922	.000	.000
Materialism 5	.000	.000	.000	.000	.901	.000	.000

Table 67: Standardised indirect effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Gender	Age	Work centrality	Work values	Materialism	Non exploit	Exploit
Work centrality	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Work values	.002	.007	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Materialism	.051	-.015	.027	.000	.000	.000	.000
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality	.005	.039	.018	.047	.000	.000	.000
Exploitative entitlement mentality	-.028	.058	.007	.063	.000	.000	.000
Extrinsic work values 1	.106	-.030	.057	.000	.000	.000	.000
Extrinsic work values 2	.110	-.032	.059	.000	.000	.000	.000
Extrinsic work values 3	.165	-.048	.089	.000	.000	.000	.000
Work centrality 1	.015	.057	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Work centrality 2	.016	.063	.000	,000	.000	.000	.000
Work centrality 4	.014	.053	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality 1	.170	.032	.209	.142	.153	.000	.000
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality 2	.177	.034	.218	.148	.159	.000	.000
Non-exploitative entitlement mentality 3	.182	.035	.224	.153	.164	.000	.000
Exploitative entitlement mentality 1	-.024	-.041	.216	.053	.207	.000	.000
Exploitative entitlement mentality 2	-.025	-.043	.230	.056	.220	.000	.000
Exploitative entitlement mentality 3	-.026	-.045	.238	.058	.228	.000	.000
Materialism 3	-.110	.139	.023	.215	.000	.000	.000
Materialism 4	-.121	.152	.025	.236	.000	.000	.000
Materialism 5	-.119	.149	.025	.231	.000	.000	.000

4.7. HYPOTHESIS TESTING

Hypothesis testing was done using SEM. According to Hooper *et al.* (2008), SEM has become one of the techniques of choice across disciplines, and increasingly a 'must' for researchers in the social sciences.

In spite of its popularity, the issue of how the model that best represents the data reflects underlying theory is debatable. A number of fit indices have been identified, which indicate how well the proposed theory fits the data. Following Hooper *et al.*'s (2008) recommendations, 8 fit indices were chosen, as reflected in the model presented earlier in Figure 33:

The thresholds for all the fit indices were presented earlier in Table 59. All the fit indices indicated that the model was a good fit. The testing of the hypotheses was therefore based on the structural equation model presented earlier in Figure 33. This was done by assessing the statistical significance of path coefficients between dependent variables and independent variables. Below is the reporting on each individual hypothesis.

4.7.1 Exploring the relationship between demographic factors and entitlement mentality

The first hypothesis suggested a significant relationship between demographic factors and entitlement mentality. The demographic factors chosen for this study were age and gender. Table 62 above presented the unstandardised regression weights with the associated P values for the structural equation model. Although the P values shown are for unstandardised regression weights, they also apply to standardised regression weights. The association between age and non-exploitative entitlement is not significant (standardised coefficient = -.054, $p > .05$). However, age is negatively associated with exploitative entitlement mentality (standardised coefficient = -.122, $p < .05$), which is significant.

The second hypothesis postulated a significant relationship between gender and entitlement mentality. Gender was found to be significantly associated with non-exploitative entitlement mentality (standardised coefficient = .190, $p < .05$). However, there was no association between gender and exploitative entitlement (standardised coefficient = -.099, $p > .05$). Based on the above, the hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between demographic factors and entitlement was partially supported. These findings will be discussed in Chapter Five.

4.7.2 Exploring the relationship between demographic factors and work centrality.

Hypothesis 2 predicted a significant relationship between demographic factors and work centrality. The first sub-hypothesis to be tested was age and work centrality. No significant association was found between age and work centrality (standardised coefficient = .069, $p > .05$). The association between gender and work centrality was also tested and no significant association was found (standardised coefficient = .020, $p > .05$). The hypothesis predicting a significant association between work centrality was therefore not supported.

4.7.3 Exploring the relationship between demographic factors and work values

The third hypothesis suggested significant relationship between demographic factors and extrinsic work values. The first test conducted was on age and extrinsic work values. No significant relationship was found between age and extrinsic work values (standardised coefficient = -.063, $p > .05$). The relationship between gender and extrinsic work values was also tested, and the results indicated a significant relationship (standardised coefficient = .198, $p < .05$). Based on these findings, the hypothesis predicting a significant relationship between demographic factors and work values was also partially supported.

4.7.4 Exploring the relationship between demographic factors and materialism

The fourth hypothesis predicted a significant relationship between demographic factors and materialism. When examining the path coefficients for age and gender as independent variables and materialism as the dependent variable, it can be seen that both are significant. Age was significantly related to materialism (standardised coefficient = .181, $p < .05$), and gender was found to be negatively related to materialism (standardised coefficient = -.181, $p < .05$). The hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between demographic factors and materialism is therefore supported.

4.7.5 Exploring the relationship between work values and entitlement mentality

The fifth hypothesis predicted significant relationship between work values and entitlement mentality.

The path coefficients for the independent variable work values and the dependent variable exploitative entitlement indicates no relationship between exploitative entitlement and work values (standardised coefficient = .014, p > .05). The relationship between work values and non-exploitative entitlement was also tested, and no significant relationship between the two was found (standardised coefficient = .116, p > .05). Based on the above results, the hypothesis predicting a significant relationship between work values and entitlement mentality was rejected.

4.7.6 Exploring the relationship between work centrality and entitlement mentality

When examining the path coefficients for the independent variable work 'centrality' and the dependent variable 'entitlement', it can be observed that there is a significant relationship between work centrality and exploitative entitlement (standardised coefficient = .252, p< .05). The relationship between work centrality and non-exploitative entitlement was also significant (standardised coefficient = .236, p < .05). Based on the above findings, the hypothesis predicting a significant relationship between work centrality and entitlement mentality could not be rejected at the .05 level of significance.

4.7.7 Exploring the relationship between work values and materialism

Hypothesis 7 investigated the relationship between work values and materialism. An examination of the path coefficient in Figure 33 and the associated P values in Table 62, shows a significant relationship between work values and materialism (standardised coefficient = .255, p < .05). The hypothesis predicting an association between work values and materialism could therefore not be rejected at the .05 level of significance.

4.7.8 Exploring the relationship between work centrality and materialism

Hypothesis 8 related to the relationship between work centrality and materialism. The path coefficient between the two variables shows no significant relationship between work centrality and materialism (standardised coefficient = .004, p > .05). Based on the above results, the hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between work values and materialism was rejected.

4.7.9 Exploring the relationship between materialism and entitlement mentality

Two tests were carried out on the two dependent variables of entitlement mentality, and materialism as the independent variable. The path coefficients from materialism to exploitative entitlement and non-exploitative entitlement indicate a significant relationship between materialism and entitlement. There is a significant relationship between materialism and exploitative entitlement (standardised coefficient = .230, $p < .05$), and between materialism and non-exploitative entitlement (standardised coefficient = .193, $p < .05$). Based on the above results, the hypothesis suggesting an association between materialism and entitlement could not be rejected at the .05 level of significance.

4.8. MEDIATION

4.8.1 Hypothesis 9a: Materialism mediates the relationship between demographic factors and the entitlement mentality

Table 67, which was presented above, showed the indirect effects between the dependent variables and the independent variables. The standardised indirect (mediated) effect of gender on non-exploitative entitlement is .003, and -.022 on exploitative entitlement. The standardised indirect (mediated) effect of age on non-exploitative entitlement is .042, and .055 on exploitative entitlement. The path diagram in Figure 33 showed that the mediator is materialism.

Preacher and Hayes (2004) stated that researchers rarely conduct tests to check whether mediation is statistically significant although they often conduct mediation analysis through a proposed mediator. The Sobel test, which tests whether the mediation has a statistically significant indirect effect is discussed in detail by Baron and Kenny (1986), but is rarely used in practice (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). Preacher and Hayes (2004) suggested two possible reasons why the significance of mediation is rarely tested formally. First, the statistical significance is not a requirement for mediation, as stated by Baron and Kenny (1986). Second, whereas most popular programs used for statistical testing (such as SPSS and SAS) will conduct all the tests required to establish mediation according to Baron and Kenny's (1986) criteria, few programs conduct a test of significance.

Hayes (2013) developed a program called "Process", which tests mediation and moderation, as well as runs the Sobel test.

In the sections that follow, the output from the mediation tests reporting on the significance of the hypothesis tested are presented, and the results of the Sobel test are given. Table 68 below presents the results of the Sobel test carried out. The print out can be found in Appendix H.

Table 68 Sobel test results

Hypothesis items	Effect	SE	Z	P
Gender and the exploitative entitlement	-.0448	.241	-1.8586	.0631
Age and the exploitative entitlement	.0197	.0089	2.2230	.0262
Gender and non-exploitative entitlement	-0453	.0216	-2.0987	.0358
Age and non-exploitative entitlement	.0158	.0070	2.2696	.0232
Work centrality and exploitative entitlement	.0109	.0101	1.0795	.2804
Work centrality and non-exploitative entitlement	.0088	00081	1.0916	.2750
Extrinsic work values and exploitative entitlement	.0700	.0315	2.2259	.0260
Extrinsic work values and non-exploitative entitlement	.0497	.0234	2.1254	.0336

Hypothesis I, predicted a mediating effect of materialism in the relationship between demographic factors and exploitative entitlement. Materialism did not significantly mediate the relationship between gender and exploitative entitlement: Sobel test z = -1.8586, $p > .05$. The relationship between gender and exploitative entitlement is therefore not mediated by materialism. Materialism significantly mediated the relationship between age and exploitative entitlement mentality: Sobel test z = 2.2230, $p < .05$. There was a significant indirect effect of age on exploitative entitlement through materialism. Based on the above results, it can then be concluded that materialism mediates the relationship between age and exploitative entitlement mentality.

Materialism significantly mediated the relationship between gender and non-exploitative entitlement: Sobel test z = -2.0987, $p < .05$. There was a significant indirect effect of gender on non-exploitative entitlement through materialism.

Materialism also significantly mediated the relationship between age and non-exploitative entitlement: Sobel test $z = 2.2696$, $p < .05$. The hypothesis predicting a mediating effect of materialism on the relationship between demographic factors and entitlement was therefore partially supported.

Hypothesis J predicted a mediating effect of materialism on the relationship between work centrality and entitlement. Materialism did not significantly mediate the relationship between work centrality and exploitative entitlement: Sobel test $z = 1.0795$, $p > .05$. Materialism also did not mediate the relationship between work centrality and non-exploitative entitlement: Sobel test $z = 1.0916$, $p > .05$. The hypothesis predicting a mediating effect of materialism on the relationship between work centrality and entitlement mentality is therefore rejected. Hypothesis K predicted a mediating effect of materialism in the relationship between work values and entitlement. Materialism significantly mediated the relationship between extrinsic work values and exploitative entitlement: Sobel test, $z = 2.2259$, $p < .05$. Materialism also mediated the relationship between extrinsic work values and non-exploitative entitlement: Sobel test $z = 2.1254$, $p < .05$. The hypothesis predicting a mediating effect of materialism in the relationship between work values and entitlement cannot be rejected.

The above results complement the SEM results and provide information that is missing from the significance tests. Based on the above findings, Table 69 presents a summary of the outcomes from the hypotheses testing.

Table 69: Summary of hypothesis testing

Category	*Hypotheses*	
Hypothesis A1.	*There is a significant association between age and non-exploitative entitlement.*	*Rejected*
	There is a significant association between age and exploitative entitlement.	*Not rejected*
Hypothesis A2.	*There is a significant association between gender and non-exploitative entitlement.*	*Not rejected*
	There is a significant association between gender and exploitative entitlement.	*Rejected*
Hypothesis B1.	*There is a relationship between age end work centrality.*	*Rejected*
B.2.	*There is a relationship between gender and work centrality.*	*Rejected*
Hypothesis C.1.	*There is a relationship between age and work values.*	*Rejected*
C.2.	*There is a relationship between gender and work values.*	*Not rejected*
Hypothesis D.1	*There is a relationship between age and materialism.*	*Not rejected*
D.2.	*There is a relationship between gender and materialism.*	*Not rejected*
Hypothesis E.1.	*There is a relationship between work centrality and exploitative entitlement.*	*Not rejected*
E.2.	*There is a relationship between work centrality and non-entitlement.*	*Not rejected*
Hypothesis F.1.	*There is a relationship between work values and materialism.*	*Not rejected*
F.2.	*There is a relationship between work centrality and work values.*	*Rejected*
F.3.	*There is a relationship between work centrality and materialism.*	*Rejected*
Hypothesis G.1.	*There is a relationship between work values and exploitative entitlement.*	*Rejected*
G.2.	*There is a relationship between work values and non-exploitative entitlement.*	*Rejected*

Hypothesis H.2. *There is a relationship between materialism and exploitative entitlement.*	*Not rejected*
H.2. *There is a relationship between materialism and non-exploitative entitlement.*	*Not rejected*
Hypothesis I.1. *Materialism mediates the relationship between gender and exploitative entitlement.*	*Not rejected*
Hypothesis I.2. *Materialism mediates the relationship between gender and non-entitlement mentality.*	*Rejected*
Hypothesis I.3. *Materialism mediates the relationship between age and entitlement mentality.*	*Rejected*
Hypothesis I.4. *Materialism mediates the relationship between age and non-exploitative entitlement mentality.*	*Rejected*
Hypothesis J.1. *Materialism mediates the relationship between work centrality and exploitative entitlement.*	*Not rejected*
Hypothesis J.2. *Materialism mediates the relationship between work centrality and non-exploitative entitlement.*	*Not rejected*
Hypothesis K.1. *Materialism mediates the relationship between work values and non- entitlement mentality.*	*Rejected*
Hypothesis K.2. *Materialism mediates the relationship between work values and entitlement mentality.*	*Rejected*

4.9 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter presented an analysis of the results of the quantitative research. The first section presented the descriptive analysis of Stage one and the testing of the measures used for reliability and validity. Tests for normality of the data were also given. The second section involved the descriptive analysis of the second stage of the study, tests for normality of distribution, and tests for the reliability and validity of the measures used.

This chapter then discussed the construction of the measurement model, its modification, and the construction of the structural model. The chapter ended by presenting the testing of hypotheses and a summary of the results.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the results from both Stages One and Two of the study. The quantitative analysis is discussed in relation to research findings in relevant literature. Both the descriptive and inferential quantitative testing is meant to represent the testing of theory and model development undertaken in Chapter One. In this chapter, the results from Stage one are explored first, then Stage Two is discussed in relation to each tested hypothesis. For Stage One, the descriptive findings are discussed. For Stage Two, the results of the testing of hypotheses that relate to the model developed in Chapter One are presented. The results of the testing of the hypotheses that relate to the demographic factors are discussed first.

5.1.1 The sample

Chapter Four reported the sample's descriptive statistics. The structure of this discussion starts with the descriptive statistics that relate to Stage One. Then, the descriptive results for Stage Two of the study are discussed. After this, the results from the testing of hypotheses using SEM are considered. The goals of Stage One of the study were three-fold. First, the goal was to expand knowledge on the relevance of research linking Generation Y with materialism and the entitlement mentality in South Africa. The second goal was to test the validity and reliability of the scale and select the final items to be used. The final goal was to examine the construct validity of the entitlement scale by correlating it with materialism measures. The expectation was that the entitlement scale will correlate positively with all of the materialism measures.

5.1.2 Materialism scale.

The materialism scale had two dimensions: the first dimension measured attitudes towards material goods and the second measured attitudes towards money. Four items measured attitudes towards material goods. Question 1 asked respondents to indicate how important they considered owning a house. The mean for this item was 4.76, with a standard deviation of .641. Such a mean and standard deviation indicate a high level of agreement among respondents that owning a house is important. A small standard deviation (relative to the value of the mean) indicates that the data points are close to the mean (Field, 2015).

Such a high level of agreement among respondents suggests that respondents view owning a house as important. In terms of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, shelter is a basic need (Erusmus, Strydom & Kloppers, 2013). Responses to Questions 2, 3, and 4, however, indicated lack of agreement among respondents. Questions 3 and 4 asked respondents to indicate the level of importance that they place on owning a vacation house and a second car. There was little agreement on these items, which suggests that these material objects might be considered to be luxuries that are only valued by people who may have already satisfied the lower-order needs. Based on the above results, respondents agree on basic necessities such as owning a house, but not on the 'luxuries'.

The second dimension is related to attitudes towards money. Three items measured attitudes towards money, with Question 1 asking respondents to indicate the level of importance that they place on having lots of money. There was a high level of agreement among respondents regarding their attitudes towards money. Most of the respondents rated money very highly. Considering that money is a significant factor that can satisfy lower-order needs (and to some extent, even higher order needs), such results seem to make sense. However, respondents did not agree on all of the items in the scale, particularly items that could be considered to be luxuries. From the above results, research suggesting that Generation Y is materialistic was partly confirmed. T-tests, which were used to compare means between men and women, revealed that male respondents ranked money higher than female respondents. Churchill and Moschis (1979) conducted a study to compare materialism between men and women and found that men tend to be more materialistic. Browne and Kaldenberg (1997) also found gender differences in materialism when they investigated the relationship between materialism and clothing product involvement using the Material Values Scale and the Consumer Involvement Profile. Men scored higher on the total materialism scale and success and happiness subscales than women. This may be linked to the traditional mentality that males should be the breadwinners (Frenkel, 2008; Meisenbach, 2009).

5.1.3 Entitlement mentality

Entitlement mentality was measured using a two-dimensioned scale that examined the characteristics of two potential facets of entitlement: exploitive entitlement, characterised by exploitive interactions and expectations of special treatment, and non-exploitive entitlement, characterised by entitled beliefs that rest on notions of self-worth and fairness (Lessard *et al.*, 2011).

The means for the seven items listed under the entitlement mentality measure ranged from 2.05 to 3.76, and the standard deviations were also closely clustered, ranging from 1.139 to 1.260. These standard deviations suggest a high level of agreement among respondents. The results suggest that respondents have a relatively low sense of exploitative entitlement. This is an interesting finding, which is at variance with extant literature that depicts members of Generation Y as being selfish (e.g., Sirias, *et al.*, 2007; Fisk, 2010). The findings do however confirm Le *et al.*'s (2011) study, which found that Generation Y respondents have low exploitative entitlement mentality.

Non-exploitative entitlement was measured using five items. Question 1 asked respondents to indicate their level of agreement with the following statement:

"*I deserve to be treated with respect by everyone."*

The means for the five questions ranged from 4.30 to 4.48. This suggests a very high level of agreement among respondents. Based on these means, it can be concluded that the respondents showed a very high sense of non-exploitative entitlement. Compared to the results for exploitative entitlement, these results suggest that although Generation Y does have a high sense of entitlement, it is not the exploitative type.

Generation Y has been described in some literature as selfish and lazy (e.g., Sirias, *et al.*, 2007; Twenge *et al.*, 2008). However, if they do not expect special treatment, then one can say that they may not be as selfish as they have been made out to be.

5.2 DISCUSSION OF THE T-TEST RESULTS FOR STAGE ONE

Stage one was descriptive in nature. The aim was to determine whether the consistent findings that Generation Y are materialistic and have a high sense of entitlement were supported in the South African context. Having established that the respondents do indeed exhibit some materialistic tendencies and have a high sense of entitlement, albeit the non-exploitative type, the next task was to compare responses between the two genders. The first comparison was on the materialism scale.

5.2.1 Comparison on the materialism scale between genders

The materialism scale had seven questions. Four of these questions related to material goods and three related to money. The first question on material goods asked respondents to indicate how important owning a house was to them. The mean for men was 4.79 and 4.73 for women. An examination of the t-test for equality of means indicated that the answers for both men and women to the above question were not significantly different: $p = .242$, $p > .05$. Both men and women consider it important to own a house.

The second question asked respondents to indicate how important it is to them to own a new car every two to three years. The mean for men was 3.05 and 2.88 for women. The significance test also suggests that the responses are not that different: $p= .081$, $p > .05$.

Question 3 asked respondents to indicate how important it is to own a recreational vehicle. The mean for men was 2.88 and 2.56 for women. The means for the two genders are significantly different, $p = .015$, $p < .05$. An examination of the means shows that men rate owning a recreational vehicle higher than women. This might be linked to the stereotype that men are more adventurous than women, or it might be the result of successful modern marketing, where fast/sporty cars and boats are marketed most often at young men (Becker & Eagly, 2004).

The final question was on the importance of owning a vacation house. The mean for men was 3.10 and 3.13 for women. The significance tests indicate no significant difference between the two genders: $p = .827$, $p > .05$. Based on the above, it can be concluded that the views of the male and female respondents towards material goods were not that different, as only one out of three questions yielded significant results.

5.2.2 Comparison of money attitudes between genders

The first question asked respondents to rate the importance of having lots of money. The mean for men was 4.08 and 3.75 for women. An examination of the t-tests for equality of means indicate that indeed the means are different: $p = .000$, $p < .05$. Men rate money to be more important than women do. The second question asked respondents to indicate the importance of having more money than their parents. The mean for men was 4.20 and 3.80 for women.

The significance tests indicate that the means are significantly different, with p =. 000, p < .05. Again, the men consider having more money than parents to be more important than women do. The reason may be linked to the general upbringing of men in the African context to be breadwinners and to look after the extended family. Day and Lamb (2004) argued that notions of fathers and fathering in Western contexts place emphasis on individual factors linked to biology and psychology but this is not so in many other cultures. In the African culture, fathering is viewed instead as a collective responsibility in keeping with traditional patterns of extended family formation (Mkhize, 2004). Based on such notions of fatherhood in the African context, it is only possible to look after the extended family if one has money. The final question related to having a job that pays lots of money. The mean for men was 4.51 and 4.46 for women. The significance test suggests that the means are not significantly different, with p = .491, p > .05. In two out of the three questions on money attitudes, men's responses differed from women's. Based on this, one can conclude that men value money more than women and this may be linked to their upbringing.

5.2.3. Comparison on the entitlement scale between genders

The entitlement scale had two dimensions: exploitative and non-exploitative entitlement. The exploitative entitlement scale had seven questions. Out of the seven questions, t-tests for equality of means indicated that the men and women's responses differed significantly on one question, which was Question 6. This question asked respondents to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the following statement:

> "*If I am a frequent customer in a restaurant, they should be willing to seat me ahead of some people."*

The mean for male respondents was 2.65 and 2.40 for the female respondents. Although both means are low, the significance tests indicate that the means are significantly different only on one item. For the non-exploitative entitlement scale, again, only one item indicated significantly different responses between the two genders. Question 3 asked respondents to indicate their level or agreement or disagreement with the following statement:

> "*I deserve the best things in life."*

The mean for male respondents was 4.40 and 4.54 for female respondents. The significance test indicates that the means are significantly different. An examination of Table 32 presented earlier reveals that women had higher means for all the questions on non-exploitative entitlement, but only one item was significantly different.

5.3 DISCUSSION OF THE T-TESTS RESULTS FOR STAGE TWO

5.3.1 Work values

The first comparison between men and women was for the intrinsic work values measure. The means for the female respondents were higher for all the intrinsic items on the scale. The first question asked respondents to indicate how important it was to get a job where they can learn new things and new skills. The second question asked the respondents to indicate how important it was to get a job where the skills that they learn will not go out of date. The results which ware presented earlier, on the independence sample t-test show that; for three out of the four items, the differences in means were significant. The question for which there is no significant difference in means asked respondents to indicate how important it was to get a job that uses their skills and abilities and lets them do the things that they can do best; the means were 4.12 for men and 4.31 for women. This finding supports Chen and Lian's (2015) study, which found that Generation Y placed more importance on self-actualisation in employment.

An examination of the results which was presented earlier, shows again that women had higher means for the extrinsic work values for all items in the extrinsic work values scale. When checking the significance tests, once again, the differences are significant for two out of three questions. These findings are at variance with earlier findings that showed that men have a preference for jobs offering extrinsic rewards (Bridges, 1989; Johnson, 2002). Since those studies were published, however, the occupational aspirations of young women have risen. More recently, for example, Johnson and Mortimer (2011) found no gender differences in extrinsic work values. The results of the present study therefore partially supports some of the previous findings.

5.3.2 Comparison of means for the materialism scale

In Chapter 4, the results that compared male and female respondents' responses to questions relating to materialism were given. The first question asked respondents to indicate how important it is to have lots of money. The mean for men was 4.15 and 3.98 for women. For Question 2, which asked how important it was for the respondents to own a house, the mean for men was 4.53 and 4.34 for women. Table 55 showed the significance tests and indicated that the differences in the means for two out of five questions were not significant. The questions for which indicated significant differences can be viewed as valuing luxury items as the questions included "owning more than one house", "owning a new car every three years", and "having more than one car". Of interest is to note that men had higher means for these questions than women. The results support earlier studies conducted by Moschis and Churchill (1978) and Browne and Kaldenberg (1997), which examined whether men and women differed in their materialistic values. The results from that study therefore suggested that males hold stronger materialistic attitudes as earlier studies had indicated.

5.3.3. Comparison of means for the work centrality scale

When comparing the means for both men and women on the work centrality scale, it can be observed that both sets of means are in the moderate to low end. There is no apparent trend in as far as identifying which group has higher means. Again, the significance test showed no significant difference between the two groups. What is of interest at this point is the fact that the respondents are displaying low work centrality. Smola and Sutton's (2000) research suggested that Generation Y have lower work ethics than previous generations. In this current study, both Stages One and Two found that Generation Y have low to moderate work centrality. If one then tries to reconcile high materialism and low work centrality, a contradiction appears to emerge. Respondents report high materialism, but have low work centrality. Twenge and Kasser, (2013) questioned how such people expect to get material possessions since work is the normal means of getting money, and money allows people to buy material possessions. Some studies have attributed such attitudes towards work by generation Y as laziness (e.g.Siria *et.,al* 2007).

5.3.4. Comparison of means for the work entitlement scale

The comparison of means between male and female respondents shows that for Question 1, male respondents had higher means for exploitative entitlement mentality (2.53 for men versus 2.30 for women); for Question 2 the means were 2.41 for men and 2.19 for women; and for Question 3, they were 2.18 for men and 1.99 for women. Although the means for men were consistently higher, the differences were not significant $p > .05$ for all questions.

An examination of the means for the non-exploitative entitlement items, however, reveals some interesting results. As opposed to the exploitative entitlement items where men exhibited consistently higher means for the scale, the opposite was true for non-exploitative items. The means for men and women is as follows: for Question 1, men had 4.24 and women had 4.52; for Question 2, men had 4.21 and women had 4.52; and for Question 3, men had 4.25 and women had 4.50. All responses indicate that women have higher non-exploitative entitlement than men. An examination of the independent sample test reveals that the differences are indeed all significant $p < .05$. These results may be a reflection that occupational aspirations of women have risen (Shu & Marini, 1998).

5.4 DISCUSSION OF THE TESTED HYPOTHESES

5.4.1 Age and work values

The null hypothesis in this study suggested no relationship between age and work values. The present study focused on intrinsic and extrinsic work values because they are the most popular dimensions found in earlier research (e.g., Mortimer & Lorence, 1979) and more recent research (e.g., Johnson & Mortimer, 2011; Johnson, Sage, & Mortimer, 2012). Earlier studies consistently found that older workers place a greater level of importance on constructs such as pride in craftsmanship and the moral importance of work, than do younger workers. Susman (1973) found that older workers reported greater pride in job accomplishment among a sample of 256 employees. Aldag and Brief (1975) later reported a significant correlation between age and the Protestant ethic scale. Taylor and Thompson (1976), however, reported negative relationships between age and three out of the five work values that were measured. One explanation given for these differences is that that older workers generally have higher incomes, more seniority, and higher socioeconomic status.

Based on the above explanation, it is necessary, therefore, to determine whether work values are related to age or to other unknown variables (Cherrington, Condie, & England, 1979). Another earlier finding is that younger workers place greater emphasis on the importance of money, and even the acceptability of welfare as a viable alternative to working for a living. Cherrington (1977) presented three arguments explaining why older workers are more work-oriented than younger workers. His first argument is that people's perspectives are changed by their age and the different kinds of experiences associated with growing older.

The second argument is linked to generational cohort theory, which states that specific historical experiences, such as the great depression or World War II, have a strong impact on one's work values. The third argument is that older workers received different types of training and socialisation processes than younger workers. In the present study, the null hypothesis could not be rejected as no significant relationship was found between age and work values. The results of the present study therefore differ with earlier studies that found significant differences among different age groups. This may be due to the fact that this study focused only on Generation Y without making comparison with other generations.

5.4.2 Gender and work values

In the present study the null hypothesis predicting no relationship between gender and work values was rejected. A significant association between gender and work values was found in the present study. These results support earlier studies that have found gender to be a predictor of work values. Research consistently shows that women have stronger intrinsic work values (Johnson, 2002; Johnson & Mortimer, 2011). The presents study supports these findings, and goes further by suggesting that females have stronger extrinsic work values than males. However, research conducted earlier in the 1980s showed that men have stronger extrinsic work values; but of late, some evidence suggests no difference between the genders (Johnson & Mortimer, 2011). This is most likely because women have now acquired higher qualifications, which have led to higher ambition in the workplace (Andres, Anisef, Krahn, Looker, & Thiessen, 1999; Shu & Marini, 1998).

In the South African context Callaghan and Papageorgiou (2015) conducted a study to examine gender differences in Locus Of Control among Accounting students and the results revealed that female accounting students demonstrated significantly higher levels of both LOC and student performance.

In spite of Johnson and Mortimer's (2011) findings, evidence still suggests that differences exist. Ueda and Ohzono's (2013) study, which examined the relationship between gender and work values, found that men had higher levels for accomplishment, power, and authority than women. The results of this study were therefore consistent with the results of past studies (e.g., Croson & Gneezy, 2009; Dirilen-Gumus & Buyuksahin-Sunal, 2012; Jansz, Avis, & Vosmeer, 2010). Based on socialisation theory, it is easy to see why accomplishment, power, and authority work values would be higher for men than for women. The way men are socialised ensures that value power and authority.

Although some studies have noted that women would not emphasise monetary rewards, Hirschi (2010) discovered that this was not always the case. McDuff and Mueller (2002) also found no differences in relation to emphasis on adequate pay and benefits between men and women. The above studies suggest that gender is a popular demographic variable in work-value studies. One finding that is consistent in the literature is that men tend to be more concerned about money and other economic rewards, as well as long-term career goals. Women, on the other hand, tend to be more concerned with job affiliation, social approval, and shorter-term career goals (Elizur, 1994; Lynn, 1993). Recent studies in the USA suggest that as women become more equal in their participation in the workplace, such gender differences will be reduced (Tait, Padgett, & Baldwin, 1989). These studies suggest that the difference in value priorities between genders does not remain constant over time. It is therefore likely that demographic factors will not directly affect work values, but are merely proxies for social roles (Elizur, 1994). In keeping with Taitet *et al,'s* (1989) study the present study found that women have higher extrinsic and intrinsic work values. This may be the result of more participation in the work place by women. The general advice is, however, that one must be careful in attributing any causality to demographics if they are not in the cultural context.

5.4.3 Gender and work centrality

The present study found no significant difference between men and women in terms of work centrality. Mannheim (1993) conducted a study that compared the work role centrality of married working women and men, and factors such as socialisation, status, and status inconsistency. On average, women were found to be less work-centred than men. This was found to be mainly true in the intermediate socioeconomic status categories, but not in others.

Mannheim (1993) proposes that this is related to the greater status inconsistency that married women experience in these socioeconomic status categories, as well as to their multiple roles as wives, mothers, and employees.

Other previous researches have however provided mixed results with respect to gender and work centrality. For example, some recent studies have found no differences in work centrality between the genders (e.g., Cohrs, Abele, & Dette, 2006; Schmidt & Lee, 2008). Older studies, however, have found that men tend to report higher levels of work centrality (e.g., Harpaz & Fu, 1997; Mannheim, 1993). This may be linked to changes in society regarding gender-based roles. Lorence (1987) provided two theoretical models that can be used to explain the differences in work centrality between men and women. The first one is called the "gender model", which suggests that men take on the role of career builders and economic providers for the family, while women are traditionally raised to accept more family-centred roles (Lorence, 1987). The second model is known as the "job model", which suggests that because of the unequal treatment of men and women in the workplace, women tend to value work less than men because they do not receive the same valued outcomes (Lorence, 1987). In the present study, the higher economic status of the student sample might influence the gender differentiation and the high level of gender equality between men and women. Therefore the outcome of the findings might be a function of the specific sample. Because past research in this area has not yielded conclusive findings, the results of the present study supports some earlier studies which found no significant differences in work centrality between men and women.

5.4.4 Age and work centrality

The hypothesis predicted a significant association between age and work centrality. The results of the present study suggested that this hypothesis should be rejected. These results contradict earlier findings on the relationship between age and work centrality. Mannheim (1993) suggested that when people enter the middle of their lives, they tend to spend more time in the workplace, which allows for work to become a stronger part of their lives. The financial need hypothesis also suggests that because people in their 'mid-lives' often have responsibilities that require financial stability (mortgages, school fees for children, etc.), this contributes significantly to why they consider work to be so important in their lives (Gould & Werbel, 1983).

Another theory that explains the earlier findings is the lifespan psychology, which postulates that younger and middle-aged people are more focused on growth and learning than older people (Freund, 2006). Because the study used the student sample, whose age differentiation would be very narrow, such a finding would be plausible and this would be applicable to other variables as they relate to age.

Thus, because of the amount of time spent developing and maintaining a career, as well as the need to be financially stable, people in their late mid-lives and older tend to exhibit greater work centrality. Therefore, research has suggested a positive relation between age and work centrality (e.g., Arvey, Harpaz, Liao, 2004; Schmidt & Lee, 2008). Bal and Kooij (2011) argue that age moderates the relation between work centrality and the psychological contract, such that the relations are stronger for older workers than for younger workers.

According to Bal and Kooij (2011), when people become older, they become more time conscious and will therefore prioritise tasks and goals that are more meaningful to them. The explanation given is that younger workers are motivated to negotiate contracts that builds relations rather than contracts that looks at short term gains regardless of the level of their work centrality (Bal & Kooij, 2011). The results of the present study are therefore a surprising departure from previous findings. This may be related to contextual differences as most of the above studies were carried out in the Western context.

5.5 Demographic factors and materialism

5.5.1 Age and materialism

The hypothesis predicted a relationship between demographic factors (age and gender) and materialism. The results of the present study suggested accepting the hypothesis. Significant associations between age and materialism as well as gender and materialism were found. The results are consistent with earlier findings. The rising levels of materialism in children and adolescents have become a concern among parents, educators, and social scientists (Chaplin & John, 2009). According to Opree and Kühne (2014), today's youth is deemed materialistic, entitled, and narcissistic. The Centre for a New American Dream (2004) conducted a national survey and found that 95 per cent of adults say that children are too focused on buying and consuming things, and almost 80 per cent agree that limits should be placed on advertising to children. Social scientists have also noted materialism among young consumers and criticise marketing's role in the development of materialistic values (Kasser, 2002; Linn, 2004; Schor, 2004).

Moore and Moschis (1981) surveyed 784 respondents from Grade six to twelve using six items measuring materialistic attitudes. Their findings suggested that age was a strong predictor of materialistic value. Moore and Moschis (1981) also surveyed adolescents from middle and senior high schools, comparing younger adolescents (below 15 years old) and older adolescents (above 15 years old). Based on their findings, younger adolescents tended to be more materialistic than their older counterparts.

Another study by Belk (1984) tested three dimensions of materialism: possessiveness, non-generosity, and envy. Two of the three materialism measures were found to be significantly related to the respondents' ages. Achenreiner *(*1997) conducted a study on children aged 8, 12, and 16, and the findings indicated that materialistic attitudes were not different amongst these three age groups. Materialism did not vary significantly as a function of age for children between the ages of 8 and 16. The findings indicated that materialism varied only marginally with age.

More recently, Chaplin and John (2009) conducted a study using the 8-18 age group. Their results revealed that there were age differences in materialism among children and adolescents. Early adolescents (aged 12-13) were found to be more materialistic than younger children (aged 8-9). The results further indicated that late adolescents (aged 16-18) were less materialistic than early adolescents (Chaplin & John, 2007).

As already stated the results of the present study suggest that there is a significant relationship between age and materialism; these results are consistent with some of the studies discussed above and can be linked to Cultivation Theory. Cultivation theory was first introduced by Gerbner and Gross (1976) to explain why frequent exposure to television violence leads to increased fear of crime. The argument here is that people who spend too much time watching television are more likely believe that what they see on television is a true reflection of the world around them. Because adolescence and emerging adulthood are periods of identity exploration, they then tend to value the material things they are exposed to via the media (Young & Pinsky, 2006). Research has shown that youth use media to form ideals about values (Arnett, 1995). Adolescents therefore use the media for self-socialisation and may thus value the materialistic world often depicted on television.

5.5.2 Gender and materialism

The present study found a significant relationship between materialism and gender. Independent t-tests were carried out to compare the means between the genders; these tests showed that men were more materialistic than women. This could be linked to the manner in which men are socialised in African culture, as providers and breadwinners (Mkhize, 2004; Lamb, 2000). A study conducted by Moschis and Churchill (1978) among adolescents aged between 12 and 18 years, which examined whether men and women differed in their materialistic values, indicated that male adolescents hold stronger materialistic attitudes.

Richins and Dawson (1992) developed the Material Values Scale to measure materialism and found no significant difference between males and females. Browne and Kaldenberg (1997), on the other hand, did find gender differences in materialism. In their study, males scored higher on the total materialism scale and success and happiness sub-scales than females. More recently, O'Cass (2004) collected data from 478 respondents via a mailed questionnaire. The results showed no significant relationship between gender and materialism. The current study, however, found significant differences between the genders. Males were found to be more materialistic than females. This is consistent with some of the studies carried out in different contexts, and can be linked to how males are socialised in the African context (Mkhize, 2004).

5.5.3 Gender and entitlement

One of the questions often asked relating to entitlement is whether men and women differ in their sense of entitlement, in what they feel they deserve from their jobs, and if so, for what reasons? In the present study, the hypothesis postulated a significant relationship between gender and entitlement mentality. As shown in the hypothesis testing in Section 4.9, the results suggested that gender was significantly associated with non-exploitative entitlement mentality, but not significantly associated with exploitative entitlement mentality. T-test results indicated that female respondents had higher non-exploitative entitlement than male respondents. This is a rather surprising result considering that other research reports higher entitlement for men (e.g., Desmarais & Curtis, 1997; Major, 1989; Ciani, Summers, & Easter, 2008).

A large body of research, which is grounded in Adams' (1965) equity theory, has consistently found that in experiments where men and women are given some work to do and then asked to determine the amount of money worth the work they have done, women pay themselves less than men do (e.g., Kahn, O'Leary, Krulewitz, & Lamm, 1980; Major & Deaux, 1982). Numerous explanations have been offered to account for these gender differences, but empirical investigations of their validity have been rather few (Kahn *et al.*, 1980). The general finding is that women earn less than men and show lower income entitlement than men do (e.g., Desmarais & Curtis, 1997; Major, 1989). Earlier studies of gender and income entitlement have also indicated that women work significantly longer but expected less pay than men (e.g., Major, McFarlin, & Gagnon, 1984). In the academic field, Ciani, Summers, and Easter (2008) examined academic entitlement among college students. Their results indicated that men were significantly more entitlement than women, and that the differences did not change across disciplines. According to Ciani *et al.* (2008), the gender gap in pay observed in the work place also extends to students who have not yet entered full-time employment. The results indicated that male students were more entitled than female students, and that these differences were enduring.

In trying to explain the above, Major (1993) argued that because women have been discriminated against in the work place for such a long time, women have tended to use standards that are different from those used by men when evaluating what they deserve. Past socialisation which have resulted in different social outlooks by gender, are the commonly offered explanations for this pattern of results (Ciani *et al.*, 2008).

Research evidence also suggests that women will exhibit less exploitive tendencies and open displays of feelings of entitlement than men (Tschanz, Morf, & Turner, 1998). The reason given for this is that society is more likely to condemn women, for displaying such behaviour because they would violate stereotypical gender roles and social behaviour for women who are viewed as being tender, compassionate and understanding (Martin, 1987). Furthermore research has found that society negatively evaluates women in leadership positions if they violate these expectancies by displaying 'masculine' behaviours (being autocratic and decisive) (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992), or if they occupy leadership positions, which typically require the ability to control people (Butler & Geis, 1990). Furthermore, for women to influence men, they must appear to be, likeable people, but men must merely appear to be competent (Carli, Lafleur, & Loeber, 1995).

Previous research has consistently suggested men have a higher sense of personal entitlement to pay than women (e.g., Blanton, George, & Crocker, 2001; Blysma & Major, 1992; Pelham & Hetts, 2001). Major *et al.* (1984) conducted a classic study, where male and female college students who worked on a clerical task for 20 minutes were then allowed to pay themselves the amount that they thought was fair for their work. On average, male students paid themselves more than US$ 3, whereas female students paid themselves less than US$ 2. Although they had done the same amount of work, men believed that they were entitled to receive more money than women believed they were entitled to receive. In another study, participants were paid US$ 4 and asked to do as much work as they thought was fair in exchange for the payment. Men, men worked for significantly shorter periods of time, did less work, than women (Major *et al.*, 1984). Thus, in spite of receiving equal pay, men put in less effort women. The results of the present study therefore are surprising as they indicated that women had a high sense of entitlement albeit of the non-exploitative type.

More recent research has replicated the basic pattern of gender differences in pay entitlement (e.g. Hogue & Yoder, 2003; Pelham & Hetts, 2001; Williams, Paluck, & Rodgers, 2010). Pelham & Hetts's (2001, p. 93) study showed that 'women often show evidence of *depressed entitlement* by paying themselves less than men pay themselves for the same work.' In Pelham and Hett's (2001) study, two experiments were conducted in which participants were given some work and asked to indicate how much they thought would be a fair rate of pay for the work done. Women paid themselves less than men. The results also indicated that 'women's level of self-pay was to a large extent mediated by how well they thought they performed a task. In contrast, men's level of self-pay was related to their global feelings of self-worth, not their perceived performance' (Pelham & Hetts, 2001 p.9).

O'Brien, Major, and Gilbert (2012) argued that the status construction theory may be responsible for the behaviour displayed by women in the experiments on gender based pay differences. This theory states that mere knowledge of group differences in pay is enough to make people believe that those who are paid higher salaries are more competent and worthy than the lower paid group (Ridgeway, 2001). Ridgeway, Boyle, Kuipers, and Robinson (1998) carried out an experiment involving randomly assigning participants to either a low-pay or a high-pay group and informing the two groups about the difference in pay. Participants in the low-pay group eventually came to believe that their group was less competent. Thus, merely belonging to a group that was paid less made individuals feel that the higher paid group deserved to be paid more.

According to O'Brian *et al.*'s (2012) status construction theory, because women have been paid less than men in the past, they have come to believe that males are more competent, and that is why they pay themselves less than men in these experiments.

O'Brien *et al.* (2012) further proposed that for group differences in pay to translate group differences in entitlement, people must believe that existing group differences in pay are legitimate. They link this to the system justification theory, which is a process through which group differences in outcomes are legitimised (Jost & Banaji, 1994). According to system justification theory, people have a basic psychological need to believe that the system they live in is just and fair. As a result of this need, people justify systems that promote group differences among people and belief systems develop that justify unequal relationships among groups in society. Some researchers have thus speculated that systems justification may be responsible for reinforce existing gender differences in salary (Jost & Hunyady, 2002; O'Brien & Major, 2009). Based on the above theories and explanations, it is surprising that women in the present study showed higher, albeit non-exploitative entitlement than men.

5.5.4 Age and entitlement mentality

Gender and age were the two demographic factors used in this study. The results suggest no relationship between age and non-exploitative entitlement. However, the relationship between age and exploitative entitlement mentality was significant suggesting that there is a relationship between age and exploitative entitlement mentality. Studies have also shown generational increases in self-esteem (e.g., Konrath, *et al.*, 2008a), unrealistically high expectations (e.g., Reynolds, Stewart, MacDonald, & Sischo, 2006), and narcissism (e.g., Twenge & Foster, 2010). Some studies have even suggested that recent generations are also more likely to agree with the individualistic idea that people get what they deserve and are therefore responsible for their misfortunes (e.g., Malahy, Rubinlicht, & Kaiser, 2009). It is the unrealistically high expectations and narcissism that are of interest to this study because they are directly linked to entitlement mentality.

Entitlement mentality has been linked to Generation Y and has been referred to as the pervasive belief that one deserves special treatment, success, and more material things (Twenge & Campbell, 2009), and some researchers have referred to it as the 'narcissism epidemic' (e.g. Simon & Schuster, p. 230).

Trzesniewski *et al.* (2008) conducted a large scale study among youths and reported that the sense of entitlement had increased slightly from 1996 to 2007. Academic entitlement has also been investigated by researchers and found to be high among college students (Greenberge *et al.*, 2008). The general complaint against Generation Y has been that many of their career goals and expectations are unrealistic and disconnected from reward and performance (Ng *et al.*, 2010).

According to Kelly & McGowen (2011), Generation Y believe that they do not have to sacrifice or work as other generations in order to obtain a promotion that they think they deserve. For example, one study reported that Generation Y workers wonder why they are not getting pay raises and promotions after six months on the job (Erickson, 2009). An interesting finding from the present study was the fact that although the results indicated that respondents had a high sense of entitlement, it was not the exploitative type. Lessard *et al*.'s (2011) study also found that the youth have high non-exploitative entitlement. From the results of the present study, it can be concluded that although the youth do have high entitlement mentality, it is not at the expense of others, but might just show that they have optimistic views about the future. With the current economic climate in South Africa being what it is, holding such positive outcomes might lead to future disappointment, which may lead to frustration and perhaps radical views, as Derber (1978) argued in the context of the USA.

5.5.5 Work centrality and materialism

The results in Chapter Four suggested that there is no relationship between work centrality and materialism. This is a surprising finding, especially if one considers that young people have been found to be materialistic in a number of studies, including this one. Twenge *et al.* (2013) conducted a study among youths in the USA, with the aim of discovering whether changes in materialism among youths were associated with changes in their focus on work. The general finding among researchers regarding young people's attitude towards work was that work is not a central part of their lives (Highhouse *et al.*, 2010; Smola & Sutton, 2002).

Twenge *et al.* (2013) argue that if young people aspire for material goods, especially expensive goods such as houses and cars, one would then expect them to see work, which is the usual method of earning money, as important in their lives.

This line of thinking would suggest that increases in youth materialism would lead to a stronger general focus on money; not only on having and spending money, but also on the means of earning it. The contrary argument could be that an increase in materialism might be accompanied by declining work centrality, since a number of recent studies suggest that young people now place less importance on work than in the past (Twenge *et al.,* 2013).

An examination of the means for work centrality items in this study reveals moderate to low means. If the youth do not regard work as an important part of their lives, how do they hope to attain the material possessions that they so want? Twenge *et al.* (2013) offer an explanation that links such attitudes to an entitlement mentality (i.e., the idea that one deserves things without working for them). This is plausible, given that tests carried out in this study suggested that the youth had a high sense of entitlement, even though it was the non-exploitative type. Furthermore, studies have shown that the youth have a related trait of narcissism (Stinson, Dawson, Goldstein, Chou, Huang, Smith, & Grant, 2008; Twenge & Foster, 2010). People with high narcissism have an inflated sense of self. They tend to be subjective and value image, and perception, more than objective reality; they often believe that normal rules regarding hard work do not apply to them (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). The results suggesting no relationship between work centrality and materialism therefore suggest that youths in this study do not consider work to be an important part of their lives, although they do value material objects.

The decline in work centrality among youths might be linked to the concept of work life balance, which is a focus on having more time outside of work for their family or personal lives (Kasser & Sheldon, 2009). However, Twenge *et al.* (2013) point out that an increase in the number of young people who do not consider work to be an important part of their lives is contrary to the traditional idea of work-life balance, which instead emphasises succeeding both at work and in life (e.g., Neal, Chapman, Ingersoll-Dayton, & Emlen, 1993). The youth might believe in working 'smarter' and not harder; Twenge and Kasser (2013) state that it might be possible that younger people may anticipate obtaining wealth through means that they perceive to be low-effort and high-payoff.

5.5.6 Work values and entitlement mentality

The results in Chapter Four supported this view as the path coefficients for the independent variable 'work values' and both dependent variables 'exploitative entitlement' and 'non-exploitative entitlement' indicated no relationship between work values and entitlement; as a result, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Lessard *et al.* (2011) state that some researchers have expressed displeasure with the observation that the youngest generation of North Americans have generally become more entitled or expecting of favourable or preferential treatment with respect to education and jobs.

Krahn and Galambos (2014) conducted a study that examined cohort differences and intra-individual change in the intrinsic and extrinsic work values and job entitlement beliefs of Canadian high school seniors. Generation Y placed more value on extrinsic work rewards and reported stronger job entitlement beliefs. In another study, Chow, Krahn, and Galambos (2014) found that participants who had obtained a university degree held higher intrinsic work values and stronger job entitlement beliefs. This is understandable in the sense that after finishing a degree, a person would expect to get satisfaction from the job itself, and they would believe that they deserve the job after putting so much effort into getting an education. The above may also be possible for extrinsic work values where one would then expect to not only get a job, but one that pays a lot of money. Given the fact that this study found that materialism was high among respondents, and that extrinsic work values and entitlement were also high, the finding of no association between extrinsic work values and entitlement was surprising.

5.5.7 Materialism and entitlement mentality

In the present study, materialism and entitlement were assumed to be related. As shown in the hypotheses testing in Section 4.9, an association was found between materialism and an entitlement mentality. These results support Twenge and Campbell's (2009) study, which found that materialism is related to lower life satisfaction and a higher level of narcissistic entitlement. Similar results were recently found by Żemojtel-Piotrowska *et al.* (2013), whose findings support the thesis about the positive relationship between materialism and entitlement. It does make sense that materialism is related to entitlement mentality. Kasser, Ryan, Couchman, and Sheldon, (2004) defined materialism as the belief that it is important to attain financial success, have nice possessions, and the right image.

On the other hand, Harvey and Martinko (2009, p. 461) defined psychological entitlement as 'a stable tendency toward inflated self-perceptions and unjustifiable expectations regarding praise, rewards, and other positive outcomes.' It is thus not surprising to find such a relationship between the two, as the two concepts appear to be two sides of the same coin. In the pursuit of materialistic goals, it is easy to see someone having unjustifiable expectations regarding the attainment of goals.

5.5.8 Work values and materialism

The items in the work values measure asked respondents to indicate how important it is to get a job that pays a lot of money, as well as a job that has high status and prestige. Money is the means by which one can have material possessions. Richins and Dawson (1992) defined materialism as the centrally held belief about the importance of possessions in a person's life. Such possession would then give the owner some prestige. It was therefore not surprising to find a significant relationship between extrinsic work values and materialism in this study. As a matter of interest, correlation analysis was carried out on intrinsic work values and materialism, and the results were significant. Both dimensions of work values were thus significantly associated with materialism. This finding was not surprising, considering that the respondents were Generation Y members who are considered to be materialistic and who, as Twenge *et al.* (2010) argues, prefer extrinsic aspects of the job such as money, and intrinsic aspects such as training and development.

5.6 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The results section of the study has provided empirical evidence of certain statistical associations between variables. The research questions raised in Chapter One were answered through the process of hypothesis testing; the answers to these research questions are provided below.

5.6.1 Question 1: Are South Africa's Generation Y both materialistic and entitled?

To answer the above question, descriptive statistics such as means, variance, and standard deviations were used. The materialism scale had two dimensions: material goods and money. The first dimension related to material goods such as houses and cars.

Although there was general consensus on the importance of owning a house, items asking for respondents' attitudes towards material goods such as owning a vacation house or a recreational vehicle did not yield high means. This was interpreted as showing that such items were considered to be luxury goods, whereas owning a house was considered to be a basic need. The mean range for the material goods' items ranged from 2.68 to 4.76. Based on the above, one can then conclude that while respondents consider a house to be a very important possession, luxury items such as recreational vehicles were not considered to be that important. This suggests that the importance placed on material goods may be related to the respondents' economic statuses. The majority of respondents might be from middle-to-lower class families, thus their level of needs might be different from the needs of respondents from countries such as the USA or the UK.

The second dimension measured by the materialism scale related to the importance placed on money. An examination of the means for the items showed that the means for money ranged from 3.91 to 4.48, with standard deviations ranging from .761 to 1.195. This suggests that respondents place a high value on money, and the level of agreement among respondents could be described as fairly high. Considering that money is the single factor that can satisfy lower-order needs, these results seem to make sense. One can therefore conclude that based on these results, the respondents have a high need/desire for basic material goods and a moderate need/desire for luxury goods.

Entitlement mentality also had two facets measured by the entitlement scale; the questionnaire was therefore made up of two subscales that assessed these two distinct variants of entitlement: non-exploitive and exploitive entitlement. The non-exploitive entitlement subscale assessed beliefs of deservedness that do not impinge upon the rights of others. The exploitive entitlement subscale assessed beliefs of special privilege that are possessed at the expense of others. The means for the exploitative items ranged from 2.05 to 3.76, and the standard deviations were also closely clustered, ranging from 1.139 to 1.260; this suggests a high level of agreement among respondents. The results suggest that the respondents have a relatively low sense of exploitative entitlement.

The means for the five items measuring non-exploitative entitlement ranged for 4.30 to 4.48, and the standard deviations were all below 1. This suggests a very high level of agreement among respondents. Based on the above means, it can be concluded that the respondents showed a very high sense of non-exploitative entitlement.

Lesaard *et al.* (2011) also reported that in their study, participants reported significantly higher levels of non-exploitive than exploitive entitlement, with 70 per cent of the participants agreeing (i.e., responded "Slightly agree, "Agree", or "Strongly agree" to an item) that each of the non-exploitive items described them. Based on the above findings, it can be concluded that although the respondents did exhibit high levels of entitlement, it was the non-exploitative type. Lessard *et al.* (2011) summarised these findings succinctly when they state that the results presented support the argument that not all feelings of entitlement are "bad".

The first stage sought to find out whether youths in South Africa exhibited high levels of materialism and entitlement mentality. The respondents showed high levels of materialism as it relates to money and basic material goods such as owning a house, but moderate to low levels for luxurious material goods such as owning a boat. Entitlement mentality was high for non-exploitative mentality, but low for exploitative entitlement.

5.6.2 Question 2.1: Is there a relationship between demographic factors and entitlement mentality, work values, work centrality, and materialism?

Demographic factors used in the study were age and gender. To answer Question 2.1, SEM was carried out. The SEM results showed no relationship between age and non-exploitative entitlement mentality. Interestingly, the relationship between age and exploitative entitlement mentality was significant. From the SEM output, one can see that when age goes up, exploitative entitlement goes down because the estimate is negative. What this means is that the younger respondents exhibited higher levels of exploitative entitlement than older respondents. This may also be linked to materialism, and psychologists like Piaget (1977) are of the view that materialism is a process linked to childhood development. Based on research suggesting that children may be more possessive and not generous, Larsen, Sirgy, and Wright (1999) propose that children are likely to be more materialistic than young adults, and that young adults might be more materialistic than older adults. However, Ulber, Hamann, and Tomasello (2015) found contradictory findings in which children were observed to peaceably divide their possessions such that each child got something during child-play.

In the present study, gender was found to be significantly associated with non-exploitative entitlement mentality, but not significantly associated with exploitative entitlement mentality.

A comparison of means between men and women revealed, however, that men had higher exploitative entitlement, although this was not significant. To answer Question 2.1 on whether there is a relationship between demographic factors and entitlement mentality, the answer is that there is a relationship between age and exploitative entitlement, as well as between gender and non-exploitative entitlement.

5.6.3 Question 2.2: Is there a relationship between demographic factors and work values?

SEM results suggested no significant relationship between age and extrinsic work values. Jin and Round (2012) stated that work values change as young people complete their education and enter the work force. Johnson (2001) tracked the work values of high school seniors in the USA from the classes of 1976-1980, and found that average intrinsic and extrinsic work values declined by age 32. Another study by Johnson and Elder (2002) revealed that extrinsic work values declined between ages 18 and 26.

The relationship between gender and extrinsic work values was also tested and the results indicated a significant relationship. Studies conducted earlier on gender differences in the work values of youth have shown that men prefer jobs offering extrinsic rewards, while women prefer jobs that offer intrinsic rewards (Bridges, 1989). The earlier studies tended to show stronger extrinsic work values among young men, but recent studies suggest that the differences between men and women have decreased (Johnson & Mortimer, 2011). One explanation for the change in gender differences with regard to work values is that the occupational aspirations of young women have risen over time, as well as their qualifications (Cho, 2007). What is interesting with the results in this study is that an examination of the means for extrinsic work values shown earlier reveal that women have higher extrinsic work values than men. However, the above explanation given by Cho (2007) and Johnson and Mortimer (2011) may be plausible here.

5.6.4 Question 2.3: Is there a relationship between demographic factors and work centrality?

The test carried out on the relationship between demographic factors and work centrality showed no significant association between age and work centrality, as well as between gender and work centrality. However, research has suggested a positive relation between age and work centrality (Arvey, Harpaz, Liao, 2004; Schmidt & Lee, 2008). According to Bal and Kooij (2011), when people age, they prioritise work over other areas of their lives.

The findings of the present studies suggest no relationship between age and work centrality. This may be because this study focused on members of Generation Y who are of the same age group. Studies using time lags have found that younger generations place less value on work centrality (Smola & Sutton, 2002; Sutton, 2002; Twenge, 2010). An examination of the descriptive statistics shows that the mean for work centrality was moderate to low. In spite of the respondents showing high levels for materialism, they somehow expect to get the money from somewhere other than through work, which is perhaps why they had high levels of entitlement, albeit non-exploitative entitlement.

5.6.5 Question 3: Is there a relationship between materialism and an entitlement mentality?

Two tests were carried out on the two facets of entitlement mentality, and the independent variable of materialism; these tests revealed a significant association between materialism and both facets of entitlement mentality. These findings support the thesis about the positive relationship between materialism and entitlement. These results suggest that high entitlement mentality is related to materialism.

Since significant relationships were found for both facets of entitlement, exploitative and non-exploitative entitlement, the relationship does not depend on the type of entitlement. Twenge and Campbell's (2009) study also found that materialism is related to lower life satisfaction and a higher level of narcissistic entitlement. Żemojtel-Piotrowska *et al.*'s (2013) findings also support the thesis about the positive relationship between materialism and entitlement. It is not surprising to find such a relationship between the two, as the two concepts suggest that the pursuit and attainment of materialistic goals is a right.

5.6.6 Question 4: Is there a relationship between work values and an entitlement mentality?

The relationship between work values and the dependent variable exploitative entitlement was tested, and no relationship was found. The relationship between work values and non-exploitative entitlement mentality was also tested and no significant association was found between the two. This was a surprising finding considering that the work values tested were extrinsic work values, which are materialism-oriented, such as salary and advancement opportunities (Twenge, 2010).

One would expect a relationship to exist between extrinsic work values and entitlement because those who are entitled are likely to have the belief that they should get whatever they want. In a study conducted by Krahn and Galambos (2014), Generation Y placed more value on extrinsic work rewards and reported stronger job entitlement beliefs. Given the fact that this study found that materialism was high among respondents, and that extrinsic work values and entitlement were also high, the finding of no association between extrinsic work values and entitlement was indeed surprising.

5.7 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter provided a discussion of the results from the research for this study. The descriptive results for the scale items were first discussed. Next, the t-tests results for Stage one were considered, followed by the discussion of t-test results for Stage two. A discussion of the comparison of means for the items in Stages one and two were the focus of the discussion. The SEM results were then discussed in relation to each of the tested hypotheses. A summary of the research, the conclusions, the recommendations for practice, and recommendations for further research are offered in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6. INTRODUCTION

This research focused on the determinants of the entitlement mentality that have been associated with Generation Y. Grounded in theory and research findings from relevant literature, the core research question asked whether Generation Y members in South Africa both materialistic and entitled? Based on this core research question, the objectives of the study were derived in Chapter One. The achievement of research objectives is discussed below.

6.1 Achievement of research objectives

The purpose of the present study was to determine whether Generation Y in the South African context was both materialistic and entitled as well as having low work centrality. Furthermore, the study aimed to find out whether an entitlement mentality is significantly associated with materialism, work values, work centrality, gender, and age. The overarching objective was to generate insight, which might be used to provide recommendations for human resource practices that might assist managers in attracting and retaining Generation Y workers.

The results of the study suggested that Generation Y in South Africa were both materialistic and entitled and that they had low to moderate work centrality. Significant associations were also found between entitlement mentality, materialism, work centrality and gender. Demographic factors were found to be significantly associated with materialism and extrinsic work values. Extrinsic work values were also found to be associated with materialism. In light of these findings conclusions and recommendations are therefore provided below.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

Based on the results of this study, several conclusions can be reached. First, it was found that Generation Y are materialistic and have a high sense of entitlement, albeit non-exploitative entitlement. However the conclusion reached was that their materialism is for lower order needs in terms of Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs because the material objects that they value are basic necessities, such as owing a house, a car, and money. Luxury items like owning a boat or holiday home, on the other hand, were not valued as much. This is understandable, considering that the respondents were students who have not yet entered the workforce; thus, they are at the bottom of the social pyramid.

Solnet and Hood (2008) stated that Generation Y in the USA has generally been raised in relative affluence, and as such have met the basic needs in Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs, suggesting that Generation Y in the USA have a different kind of materialism (i.e., they want more luxury items than their peers in South Africa).

The second conclusion was that Davis' (1969) theory that when there is a gap between what people expect and what they actually get, those rising expectations lead to civil unrest. The expectations of the youth in South Africa appear to have far outpaced what the state is able to offer, and as a result, a revolution is currently underway (Isaka & Berouk, 2011). How it will pan out is the question that everyone would like an answer to. Based on what happened in North Africa (in Tunisia, Egypt, and Libya) recently, however, the next destination for some form of uprising may be South Africa. What makes the situation worse in South Africa is that the youths' perception is that politicians, who are invariably older, are lining their pockets at the expense of the needs of the youth (Isaka & Berouk, 2011). Research in the USA has also shown that members of Generation Y have become entitled or expecting of favourable treatment with respect to education and jobs (e.g., Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Twenge, 2006) if, however, they find themselves unable to achieve anything, then problems are likely to arise.

The third conclusion was that the career goals and expectations of Generation Y are unrealistic and do not take into account the relationship between reward and performance (Ng *et al.*, 2010; Preston, 2007). The fact that they have non-exploitative entitlement might be linked to optimism, which is a trait commonly used to describe Generation Y. But if their optimism does not result in the realisation of goals, disappointment and frustration might follow. What happens after that is anybody's guess, but Geber (1978) suggests that they will tend to blame society at large, which may lead to radical political activism. This might be the reason why university students demanding free education in South Africa have recently been engaged in running battles with the police, with no solution in sight.

The fourth conclusion reached was that Generation Y have high extrinsic work values, and that this can be linked to their responses to materialism. Some studies have found that a high number of employers were not happy with the performance and work attitudes of Generation Y employees (Preston, 2007). Interestingly, this study found that Generation Y have moderate to low levels of work centrality.
Literature has consistently portrayed Generation Y as lazy and demanding more than they are willing to work for (Twenge *et al.*, 2008).

Spiro (2006) also found that while money is important to Generation Y, what is more important is maintaining a work-life balance. This may be the reason why their work centrality was found to be low.

The fifth conclusion was that men are more materialistic than women. Independent t-tests in Stage Two revealed significant differences in materialism between men and women. The explanation might be linked to the socialisation of men. Interestingly, significant differences were found between men and women for both intrinsic and extrinsic work values. For example, women had higher intrinsic and extrinsic work values. This was rather surprising as one would expect, for example, that materialism and extrinsic work values go together. In this study, however, men were found to be more materialistic, but had lower extrinsic work values than women. The changes in gender roles may be responsible for such differences.

The final conclusion was that work centrality has decreased over time. Kasser and Sheldon's (2009) study in America revealed decreasing levels of work centrality among Generation Y, and the explanation given was that younger workers have other aspects of life that they consider important, such as work-life balance. Twenge & Kasser (2013) also found Generation Y to have lower levels of work centrality in America. Based on the results of the present study and the above studies conducted in America, Generation Y members do not consider work to be an important part of their life.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Although the results of this research might lend themselves to a number of recommendations, this section will only discuss the core recommendations. When one considers the theory on which this research was based, "rising expectations", and the results of this study, it is recommended that all institutions, be they academic institutions, workplaces, or government, try to address the concerns of youth. It is imperative that the youth feel that there is a future for them out there because frustrated youth may lead to chaos (Bloom, 2012; Derber, 1978). The results indicate that at least in a developing country such as South Africa, basic needs such as housing and money are important to the youth. Derived from the results, the youth in South Africa are materialistic not for luxury items, but for basic necessities. Making employment opportunities available to the youth might address some of their concerns. Telling the youth in South Africa that they must start their own businesses, like some politicians have suggested, will only antagonise them.

The starting point would be ensuring that many of those that need to be employed are accommodated in the formal economy. Generation Y are the largest generation to enter the South African workforce (Statistics South Africa, 2013), as the Baby Boomers did in the USA. The entrance of such a large generation will be felt in all sectors of the economy, and it is therefore imperative to develop strategies to prepare the current workforce for a generation that is already here. The results from the present study indicated that although the youth in South Africa are highly entitled, they have a high non-exploitative entitlement. This type of entitlement is based on beliefs of deservedness rather than taking advantage of others. One student was heard commenting on television regarding the "Fees Must Fall" campaign (the official campaign whereby university students in South Africa are demanding free tertiary education) that "it's not like we are asking for money to buy alcohol or drugs; we are asking for free education". These youth believe that they deserve free education.

As people's standards of living increase, they are less likely to tolerate corrupt and inefficient governments (Gale, 2008). That is the scenario that South Africa is facing. Unless political leaders become accountable and responsible, it would appear that the scenes of upheaval and riots recently seen across South Africa will become more common. Having noted in this study that the youth are both materialistic and entitled, political leaders need to be more accountable and ensure that the youth see themselves as having a role to lay in both the economy and society at large. The organisational and political leaders have everything to lose, and the youth might see themselves as having nothing to lose but everything to gain by engaging in riotous behaviour. The next subsections present recommendations to organisations. The recommendations will thus be divided into the following areas of human resource management:

- Recruitment and selection;
- Training and development;
- Rewards; and
- Work-life balance.

6.3.1 Recruitment and selection

The results from this study indicate that Generation Y have high intrinsic and extrinsic work values. Research elsewhere suggests that Generation Y want stimulating work that offers opportunities for advancement and long-term career progression (e.g., Broadbridge *et al.*, 2007; Eisner, 2005; Hite & McDonald, 2012; Terjesen *et al.*, 2007). Employers must therefore find ways to successfully attract employees from Generation Y into their organisations. One method that has been mentioned is to create a company brand that is attractive to Generation Y. Generation Y expect to be respected, valued, stimulated, included, and supported in their workplace (Sheahan, 2005). It is therefore recommended to human resource practitioners that their recruitment and selection policies take the above into account. A supportive work environment has been identified as being the key to the successful recruitment and retention of Generation Y.

6.3.2 Training and development

Because Generation Y lacks experience, they prefer organisations that invest in training and development (Broadbridge *et al.*, 2007; Martins & Martins, 2012; Terjesen *et al.*, 2007). The work values scale asked respondents how important it is to get a job that allows them to learn new things and new skills. The means for the four items included in the section on work values ranged from 4.25 to 4.67. This suggests that the respondents consider getting a job that offers training to be important. The recommendation is that training should begin the day that members of Generation Y get a job in an organisation, starting with induction, which should be structured and provide mentorship to the new worker. Young people often complain that organisations want experience from them, but are not willing to give it to them; thus, properly planned training will equip the new worker with the skills that they so require and desire. Generation Y are generally not loyal to their employer (Tolbiz, 2009), and therefore if they are not adequately supported, inspired, and encouraged, they are likely to quickly move to other organisations.

6.3.3 Rewards and working patterns

The extrinsic work values and materialism scales asked respondents to indicate how important money is to them. Money was one of the items that had high levels of agreement among respondents, and this has been found elsewhere in literature (Hite & McDonald, 2012; Lowe, Levitt, & Wilson, 2008).

Employers therefore need to structure the rewards in such a manner that extrinsic rewards are visible and perhaps performance-based. Creating a good public image, providing financial and non-financial rewards, and providing appropriate mentoring are strategies that all organisations need to implement in order to retain this new generation (Stewart, 2006).

6.3.4 Work-life balance

One of the findings from this study was that respondents had moderate to low work centrality. This suggests that Generation Y do not consider work to be the most important aspect of their lives. One finding consistent with this generation is that they want work-life balance (Eisner, 2005; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Hite & McDonald, 2012). Generation Y are not prepared to work the long hours that their parents work, as they have other priorities in life (McCrindle, 2007). The emphasis for Generation Y is on a better quality of life. Enabling Generation Y employees to have a better work-life balance is therefore one of the key elements to the retention of this highly mobile group of employees.

6.3.5 Suggestions for further research

Several recommendations for future research on entitlement mentality and its determinants resulted from this study: First, future studies could extend geographical coverage within South Africa as this study may have a regional limitation since only two tertiary institutions were studied and both were in Gauteng Region. This may limits the generalisability of the results due to the samples being adopted from the same region.

Second, the results cannot be applied directly to all members of Generation Y because this study examined Generation Y students in tertiary institutions and ignored those who are already in the work place. Therefore, future research should address these variations such as testing the Modified Conceptual Model in Generation Y members already in employment and those who are not working or studying.
Third, future studies could test the applicability to other Generations. Future studies should therefore compare results from different generations by testing the Modified Conceptual Model across generations. Fourth, other social factors, such as peer influence and media celebrities are also considered as important and valuable determinants of materialism and entitlement among the youth (Bindah & Othman, 2012).

With the aim of expanding the model a bit further and making it more encompassing, future research might use a questionnaire incorporating questions relating to peer pressure and media celebrities. Finally, there could be comparative investigation across neighboring countries. Hence, further research could explore the relevance of economic development on entitlement mentality and materialism.

6.4 THE RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

In terms of the potential limitations of the proposed research, the following limitations were noted.

6.41 Generalisation

One of the limitations of this research is that it may not be possible to generalise the findings of the study beyond the student population of the college and university used in the study. According to Bryman and Bell (2011), when a sample has been drawn using non-probability sampling, generalisation of the findings may not go beyond the population from which that sample was taken. Another related limitation is the possibility of a time limit on the findings; for example, how long can the generalisations be valid for (Bailey, 1982). These limitations are ameliorated to some extent by probability sampling and a large sample size. This study further ameliorated the above limitations through the use of a two stage approach.

6.4.2 Cross-sectional versus longitudinal research

There are a number of limitations regarding collecting data at only a single point in time. Chance fluctuations in the data may occur only on the day surveyed (Bailey, 1982). For example, the respondent may not be in a good mood on that day and there would be no way of telling that this is not the respondent's normal behaviour. To minimise this effect, a large sample was used in this study and data were collected in two separate stages. Again, a cross-sectional study does not offer a way of telling whether a relationship found between variables will remain the same or change over time. The use of a larger sample might compensate this limitation. Cross-sectional research designs have limitations in the sense that the design produces associations and relationships rather than establishing the direction of causality between the variables (Bryman *et al.*, 2014). Inference in relation to existing theory must therefore be used.

6.4.3 Self selection

Using volunteers in research may render the research vulnerable to self-selection bias (Stanton, 1998). Generally, those respondents who choose to participate in a study may have strong feelings regarding the topic of study. There might therefore be a possibility that some personality characteristics or feelings about the topic may influence some individuals more than others to volunteer for a particular study (Stanton, 1998). The question that may be asked is whether those that did not volunteer would have provided a different perspective of the topic. This can make generalising results problematic. Using a large sample might also minimise this limitation.

6.5 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter set out to do the following: (i) to summarise the results from the hypothesis testing; (ii) to discuss the implications of the research for theory and practice; and (iii) to provide recommendations for further research. The research questions for the research were outlined and answered. A summary of the research objectives and the empirical findings were provided. Recommendations for practice and for further research were also provided.Although recommendations were provided for the national level in South Africa, the recommendations focused on actions for organisations in terms of potential Generation Y employees.

The overarching conclusion of this research was that national and organisational leaders need to carefully study the expectations of Generation Y and try to provide them with employment opportunities, so that they do not feel left out of the system. The overarching theme of the recommendations was that stakeholders at the national and organisational level need to acknowledge that the youth may have legitimate expectations with regard to employment, and thus opportunities that meet some of those expectations must be made available to them.

6.6 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH

The theory of rising expectations (Davies, 1969) states that when people’s needs are not satisfied but expectations continue to rise, a widening gap is created between expectations and reality.

That gap eventually becomes intolerable and becomes the spark that ignites a rebellion against a social system that has failed to fulfil its promises.

Generational cohort theory further suggests that a group of individuals who share birth years and have common experiences exhibit similar behaviour and characteristics (Smola & Sutton, 2002). Based on the above two theories, Generation Y is expected to exhibit similar traits, behaviour, and expectations. While social sciences have long been aware that people tend to be selfish, this term has of late been closely linked to Generation Y (Tomlinson, 2013). However, despite a lot of research having been carried out on Generation Y and entitlement, no known study has linked this phenomenon to the theory of rising expectations.

Entitlement is not unique to Generation Y, as it has been linked to conflict over healthcare benefits for workers in Canada (Clay, 2007), employee benefits in India (Chatutvedi, 2012), and is perhaps linked to the more recent North African uprisings (Isaka & Berouk, 2011). South African universities are currently experiencing a serious crisis that started in 2015 with students demanding free education. In October 2016, most universities across South Africa closed with no tangible solutions in sight. This research sought to investigate the relationship between a range of factors and the entitlement mentality that has been associated with the youngest generation in the context of two educational institutions in South Africa. However, such an investigation would have been based on the assumptions that Generation Y is both materialistic and entitled in South Africa. As a result, this research was divided into two stages.

The first stage was descriptive in nature, seeking to confirm the notion that members of Generation Y are both materialistic and entitled. Materialism and entitlement have been associated with a host of negative outcomes. Following recent corporate scandals that have taken place in the USA (e.g., the Enron scandal) it has been suggested that a sense of entitlement can negatively affect the judgment of individuals in leadership positions (Levine, 2005). One of materialism's negative aspects is related to a higher level of psychological entitlement (Twenge & Campbell, 2009).

Literature also suggests a negative correlation between materialism and wellbeing (Kasser & Ahuva, 2002; Kasser & Ryan, 1993; Richins & Dawson, 1992).

Muncy and Eastman (1998) argue similarly that materialism has a negative effect on quality of life. Individuals who rate materialistic values highly have been found to have lower levels of personal life satisfaction, as well as higher levels of depression (Hurst *et al.*, 2014).

If indeed there is a group of people in South Africa with such a combination of negative traits, the country may have serious problems ahead. Stage one of this research involved the collection of data that aimed to measure whether Generation Y in South Africa is indeed materialistic and entitled.

The second stage involved the testing of hypotheses using SEM. Attempting an analysis at two different stages, the descriptive stage and hypotheses testing stage, enabled a holistic perspective of the relationships around entitlement mentality.

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Appendix A: Sample Participation Letter (SPL)

Date:

Good day,

My name is Emmanuel Nkomo and I am a PhD student in the Human Resources Division at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. I am conducting research on the issue of:

The determinants of an entitlement mentality among Generation Y in two tertiary institutions in Johannesburg South Africa.

As a member of this group, you are **invited** to take part in this survey. The research will attempt to contribute to an improved understanding of some of the challenges faced by South African organisations in attracting and retaining members of Generation Y. The study is for academic publication purposes only. The results of the study will be reported in my thesis, which will be published by the University of the Witwatersrand.

Your response is important, and there are no right or wrong answers. This survey is both confidential and anonymous. Anonymity and confidentiality are guaranteed by not needing to enter your name on the questionnaire. Your participation is completely voluntary and involves no risk, penalty, or loss of benefits whether or not you participate. You may withdraw from the survey at any stage.

The first part of the survey captures some demographic data. The second part of the survey requires you to either indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement, or how important each item is to you, by ticking whichever boxes are applicable. The entire survey should take between 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

Thank you for considering participating. The questionnaires will be stored in my office for further data analysis and will thereafter be destroyed after a period of five years. I undertake to conduct myself and my research in a manner that reflects the professional ethics of the university.

Contact details of researcher and supervisor provided.

Kind regards

Emmanuel Nkomo
PhD Student: Division of Human Resources
School of Economic and Business Sciences
University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg

Appendix B: Consent Form for Participation



Consent Form

I, on this date……, state that I voluntarily choose to participate in this study. I understand that participation is my choice. I do so knowing that my identity will be protected, and my name is not to be part of the information I give. I understand that this form will be kept separate from the information collected.

Respondent's signature……

Appendix C: Sample Consent Form for Organisations (SCFO)

Company Name: (This must appear on their official letterhead)

Date:

We hereby support Mr. Emmanuel Nkomo's application, a PhD student from the University of the Witwatersrand, to conduct a survey with our clients between the periods of Month X to Month Y. Permission is granted to Mr. Emmanuel Nkomo subject to his obtaining ethical clearance to conduct research from the Ethics Committee of the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg and by abiding to its terms.

I have been informed of Mr. Emmanuel Nkomo's line of research and of the nature of the intervention (e.g. Respondents filling in a questionnaire).

Name:

Signature:

Appendix D: Research Instrument Stage 1

Please read each question carefully and complete the whole questionnaire.

We need some information about you to help us to interpret this questionnaire. Please be assured that your responses will be held in confidence by the researcher.

SECTION A

BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS

PLEASE INDICATE BY TICKING THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER

1. Gender

Male	1
Female	2

2. Write your age on the line below (Years)

---

3 Please indicate your year of study

1.
2.
3

4. ENTITLEMENT A.

Below are statements describing different attitudes in life. Read each one carefully and choose on answer based on how much you agree or disagree with the statement. Tick the selected answer for each statement.

To what extent do you agree with the following statement?

Entitlement	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
1. I deserve more success in my life than others who have had it easy	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am willing to admit that I feel I am due more in life than other people	1	2	3	4	5
3. I shouldn't have to work as hard as others to get what I deserve	1	2	3	4	5
4. I shouldn't have to work harder than others to have the finer things in life	1	2	3	4	5
5. Because of the things I have been through personally, others should cut me a break in life	1	2	3	4	5
6. If I am a frequent customer in a restaurant, they should be willing to seat me ahead of some other people	1	2	3	4	5
7 If I am in a hurry, people should let me move ahead in a line					

5. ENTITLEMENT B

Below are statements describing different attitudes in life. Read each one carefully and choose on answer based on how much you agree or disagree with the statement. Tick the selected answer for each statement.

To what extent do you agree with the following statement?

Entitlement	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
1. I deserve to be treated with respect by everyone	1	2	3	4	5
2. I expect to be treated with respect, even by those who are rich and famous	1	2	3	4	5
3. I deserve the best things in life	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am entitled to get into the career that I want	1	2	3	4	5
5. I am entitled to have the best things in life	1	2	3	4	5

MATERIALISM

Carefully read the items below and indicate how important each item is to you by ticking the number that corresponds to the most appropriate response

Materialism	**Not at all important**	**Not so important**	**Fairly important**	**Important**	**Very much important**
Having lots of money	1	2	3	4	5
Owning a house (not a flat)	1	2	3	4	5
Owning more than one house	1	2	3	4	5
Owning a new car every 2-3 years	1	2	3	4	5
Having more than one car	1	2	3	4	5
Owning a vacation house	1	2	3	4	5
Having more money than my parents	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix E: Research Instrument Stage 2

Please read each question carefully and complete the whole questionnaire.

We need some information about you to help us to interpret this questionnaire. Please be assured that your responses will be held in confidence by the researcher.

SECTION A

BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS

PLEASE INDICATE BY TICKING THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER

1. Gender

Male	1
Female	2

2. Write your age on the line below (Years)

---

3 Please indicate your year of study

1.
2.
3

4. WORK VALUES

People use these factors in making important decisions about their jobs and careers. They are not all considered to be equally important and different people place importance on the different factors. Please read each of the items listed in the section below and indicate HOW IMPORTANT each would be to you in deciding to accept a potential job.

Employment expectations	**Not at all important**	**Not so important**	**Fairly**	**Important**	**Very much important**
A job where you can learn new things, learn new skills	1	2	3	4	5
A job where the skills you learn will not go out of date	1	2	3	4	5
A job that has high status and prestige	1	2	3	4	5
A job that most people look up to and respect	1	2	3	4	5
A job that uses your skills and abilities—lets you do the things you can do best	1	2	3	4	5
A job that provides you with a chance to earn a lot of money	1	2	3	4	5
A job where the chances for advancement and promotion are good	1	2	3	4	5

5. MATERIALISM

Carefully read the items below and indicate how important each item is to you by ticking the number that corresponds to the most appropriate response

Materialism	**Not at all important**	**Not so important**	**Fairly important**	**Important**	**Very much important**
Having lots of money	1	2	3	4	5
Owning a house (not a flat)	1	2	3	4	5
Owning more than one house	1	2	3	4	5
Owning a new car every 2-3 years	1	2	3	4	5
Having more than one car	1	2	3	4	5

6. WORK CENTRALITY

Using a rating scale of 1 – 5, tick the number which represents how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.

Work centrality	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
In my view, and individual's personal life goals should be work oriented	1	2	3	4	5
Work should be considered central to life	1	2	3	4	5
Life is worth living only when people are involved in work	1	2	3	4	5
Work should only be a small part of one's life	1	2	3	4	5

7. ENTITLEMENT

Below are statements describing different attitudes in life. Read each one carefully and choose on answer based on how much you agree or disagree with the statement. Tick the selected answer for each statement.

To what extent do you agree with the following statement?

Entitlement	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
1. Because of the things I have been through personally, others should cut me a break in life	1	2	3	4	5
2. If I am a frequent customer in a restaurant, they should be willing to seat me ahead of some other people	1	2	3	4	5
3. If I am in a hurry, people should let me move ahead in a line	1	2	3	4	5
4. I deserve the best things in life	1	2	3	4	5
5. I am entitled to get into the career that I want	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am entitled to have the best things in life	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix F: Random number tables for selecting a simple random sample of 20 students from groups of students of sizes 21 to 100

Size of Group

R21	R22	R23	R24	R25	R26	R27	R28	R29	R30
1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	4
2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	6
3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	7
4	5	5	5	4	5	4	4	4	8
5	6	6	7	5	6	6	6	5	10
6	7	7	8	6	7	7	7	6	12
7	8	9	9	7	8	8	8	9	15
8	9	11	10	9	9	11	11	10	16
9	10	12	11	11	10	12	12	11	17
10	11	13	12	12	12	13	13	12	18
11	12	14	13	13	13	15	15	14	19
12	13	15	15	14	14	17	17	16	20
13	14	16	16	15	15	18	18	21	22
14	15	17	17	16	16	19	19	22	23
16	16	18	18	18	18	20	20	23	24
17	17	19	19	20	19	21	21	24	25
18	18	20	21	21	21	22	22	25	26
19	20	21	22	23	22	25	25	27	27
20	21	22	23	24	25	27	27	28	29
21	22	23	24	25	26	28	28	29	30

Size of Group

R31	R32	R33	R34	R35	R36	R37	R38	R39	R40
1	4	1	2	1	4	1	1	1	2
4	6	2	3	2	5	3	4	2	3
5	7	4	4	7	7	6	7	3	5
8	9	5	5	8	8	7	9	5	6
10	10	7	6	9	10	8	11	6	8
11	11	10	710	11	13	9	12	7	12
14	12	12	12	14	16	10	14	8	13
15	13	13	13	15	17	11	16	12	16
16	14	14	14	16	19	12	17	14	17
17	15	16	16	17	21	13	18	15	18
19	16	18	18	21	22	17	19	17	23
20	17	19	19	22	24	18	22	20	24
22	21	21	21	23	25	19	23	24	25
23	23	23	23	24	26	24	24	26	31
24	24	25	25	25	27	25	25	27	33
25	25	26	26	26	28	28	26	28	34
27	26	28	28	32	29	29	28	29	37
29	28	31	31	33	31	30	31	31	38
30	30	32	32	34	33	34	32	36	39
31	31	33	33	35	36	36	37	38	40

Size of Group

R41	R42	R43	R44	R45	R46	R47	R48	R49	R50
1	2	1	1	3	1	3	1	1	3
4	3	2	3	5	11	5	3	2	4
5	4	6	4	7	12	10	6	4	5
7	5	11	6	8	15	17	15	6	6
8	6	13	7	10	17	24	19	8	7
10	8	14	8	11	21	25	20	13	8
12	10	15	9	12	22	27	24	15	11
13	13	17	11	16	23	28	26	17	13
15	16	20	13	19	24	30	27	20	14
17	20	25	15	23	25	31	29	23	16
20	21	26	18	24	26	32	30	24	20
21	23	28	19	25	28	33	31	27	22
25	24	31	24	32	29	34	32	31	24
27	27	32	25	34	32	36	34	32	29
28	29	33	32	35	34	37	36	34	32
29	31	37	35	37	36	38	37	37	33
32	34	38	38	38	40	39	38	41	36
34	35	39	40	40	41	42	40	43	37
35	36	40	43	43	44	44	44	44	40
39	41	42	44	44	45	45	48	47	45

Size of Group

R51	R52	R53	R54	R55	R56	R57	R58	R59	R60
3	4	3	1	1	2	2	3	3	1
4	5	6	2	6	5	6	5	4	5
8	6	8	4	7	7	7	6	5	6
9	10	9	8	9	10	10	8	8	7
10	13	11	10	10	12	17	16	10	9
12	17	12	11	12	15	19	17	11	11
13	18	14	16	14	18	23	21	15	14
15	19	15	20	16	24	29	23	16	16
17	20	18	24	29	25	34	27	17	19
26	22	19	25	31	27	35	32	20	21
27	25	23	27	36	32	37	37	24	24
29	27	26	28	38	34	38	38	26	28
31	28	28	29	40	38	43	42	29	29
32	32	33	32	42	43	44	44	31	39
36	35	38	37	44	45	46	46	36	40
39	40	42	39	47	47	48	48	38	49
40	42	43	41	48	49	52	49	42	50
44	49	48	46	52	50	53	50	48	51
47	51	51	47	53	52	55	52	50	52
48	52	53	49	54	55	57	56	53	54

Size of Group

R61	R62	R63	R64	R65	R66	R67	R68	R69	R70
2	9	8	5	3	1	4	2	6	5
5	12	12	8	4	2	5	4	9	6
7	14	14	10	7	8	6	5	11	7
8	22	15	17	10	9	10	10	14	9
11	23	16	19	14	11	14	16	23	11
18	25	18	21	18	19	17	17	24	13
19	227	24	25	19	22	18	21	29	17
21	28	32	26	20	23	20	22	31	18
22	29	33	27	28	25	21	23	36	21
27	33	34	29	37	26	25	28	40	22
30	41	38	33	40	27	29	31	44	36
34	42	39	35	42	30	30	32	48	39
35	43	40	37	46	28	34	33	49	41
39	46	42	39	47	46	37	37	50	47
46	50	45	45	49	50	39	42	52	49
48	51	46	48	51	52	41	49	55	50
49	53	48	49	58	53	47	55	59	53
50	57	54	54	59	54	57	58	60	55
53	59	61	58	61	61	58	61	67	61
54	62	63	61	65	66	63	67	68	67

Size of Group

R71	R72	R73	R74	R75	R76	R77	R78	R79	R80
9	3	1	4	2	6	3	12	8	6
15	6	5	15	7	20	5	13	10	10
17	10	9	19	9	21	6	23	14	17
20	12	11	23	15	22	7	24	15	19
22	18	12	24	16	24	10	28	21	21
25	20	13	27	23	25	16	32	23	23
27	22	14	28	29	30	24	46	31	26
28	26	21	35	36	31	31	47	32	31
34	29	28	38	37	35	32	48	24	32
35	32	29	42	41	37	36	49	41	36
37	38	34	47	43	39	38	52	46	41
39	41	37	49	45	50	45	53	48	42
46	43	42	50	46	51	48	57	54	44
48	44	48	51	50	58	62	59	58	45
50	47	54	52	53	61	64	63	61	46
53	48	57	56	60	63	70	64	62	50
60	50	62	62	66	65	71	67	68	61
61	52	63	64	67	67	72	70	71	71
62	61	68	65	69	68	73	75	75	73
64	66	72	72	72	73	75	76	77	76

Size of Group

R81	R82	R83	R84	R85	R86	R87	R88	R89	R90
9	9	2	4	3	1	1	6	2	1
13	15	4	6	6	8	3	8	12	2
16	16	14	7	7	13	7	16	14	5
33	23	17	13	25	24	14	23	15	10
40	27	30	14	27	34	16	26	39	22
41	28	35	19	30	35	17	29	48	24
42	29	41	25	32	39	19	32	52	25
44	33	42	31	36	45	20	35	56	27
45	42	49	34	45	47	26	42	57	31
46	43	52	39	48	50	28	43	60	35
54	48	53	40	50	52	30	48	62	40
59	50	58	44	54	61	40	50	64	46
64	56	63	59	58	64	53	55	66	51
71	57	67	62	63	65	54	59	67	53
72	60	69	70	64	66	60	63	68	54
73	61	71	73	66	67	66	64	70	73
74	66	74	74	68	68	77	70	75	81
75	67	76	77	72	75	80	74	76	83
76	69	77	83	83	80	83	81	88	85
79	71	80	84	85	83	86	86	89	90

Size of Group

R91	R92	R93	R94	R95	R96	R97	R98	R99	R100
7	8	1	1	7	2	3	8	3	7
15	15	7	8	9	4	10	11	11	21
20	17	9	9	12	6	26	17	20	22
29	21	19	10	14	9	33	23	29	25
36	25	20	14	18	16	37	25	30	27
38	26	21	15	24	18	39	31	34	35
42	31	22	20	32	21	40	36	38	40
43	34	30	23	35	28	41	38	42	49
49	40	31	36	46	32	48	42	50	50
50	41	32	46	49	47	50	48	51	52
54	49	35	48	54	50	51	54	53	56
58	54	36	57	60	51	53	58	54	57
59	61	40	58	63	63	61	63	60	75
67	69	46	60	64	64	62	70	62	79
73	71	51	61	69	70	64	71	63	81
80	78	62	72	78	73	65	78	68	86
84	79	72	79	87	78	68	89	79	87
85	81	73	81	88	80	70	91	92	92
87	83	76	87	92	89	82	92	94	93
91	84	89	91	95	92	97	93	99	94

Appendix G: Output from SEM.

Table G1: Parameter Summary (Group number 1)

	Weights	Covariances	Variances	Means	Intercepts	Total
Fixed	25	0	0	0	0	25
Labeled	0	0	0	0	0	0
Unlabeled	29	0	22	0	0	51
Total	54	0	22	0	0	76

Notes for Model (Default model)

Computation of degrees of freedom (Default model)

Number of distinct sample moments:	153
Number of distinct parameters to be estimated:	51
Degrees of freedom (153 - 51):	102

Result (Default model)

Minimum was achieved
Chi-square = 111.500
Degrees of freedom = 102
Probability level = .244

Table G2: Modification Indices (Group number 1 - Default model)

Covariances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			M.I.	Par Change
Age	<-->	Gender	12.160	-.147
e34	<-->	e111	9.080	.082
e34	<-->	e39	4.256	.056
e19	<-->	Gender	4.866	-.036
e18	<-->	Gender	4.414	.031
e15	<-->	e77	4.304	.029
e7	<-->	e39	11.271	-.111
e6	<-->	e39	5.569	.066
e6	<-->	e34	4.511	.035

Table G3: Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			M.I.	Par Change
EXTR2	<---	MAT	8.526	.101
EXTR2	<---	EXPL	7.056	.090
EXTR2	<---	EXPL1	4.576	.061
EXTR2	<---	EXPL2	7.069	.081
EXTR2	<---	EXPL3	5.888	.073
EXTR2	<---	MAT3	4.150	.057
EXTR2	<---	MAT4	10.373	.090
EXTR2	<---	MAT5	6.095	.073
EXTR3	<---	EXPL1	4.201	-.050
WC1	<---	Gender	4.866	-.153
WC2	<---	Gender	4.414	.132
NEXPL1	<---	EXTR1	5.205	.105
MAT3	<---	EXPL	11.469	-,139
MAT3	<---	EXPL1	6,626	-.089
MAT3	<---	EXPL2	10.498	-.120
MAT3	<---	EXPL3	11.487	-.124
MAT4	<---	EXPL	5.105	.078
MAT4	<---	EXPL2	5.120	.070
MAT4	<---	EXPL3	4.543	.065

Table G4: Minimization History (Default model)

Iteration		Negative eigenvalues	Condition #	Smallest eigenvalue	Diameter	F	NTries	Ratio
0	e	10		-.447	9999.000	3027.003	0	9999.000
1	e*	10		-.318	3.335	1067.859	20	.526
2	e*	0	3427.839		.971	432.550	5	.719
3	e	0	1074.256		.450	322.656	6	.000
4	e	0	1285.272		.742	187.014	3	.000
5	e	0	152.296		.644	127.500	1	1,027
6	e	0	146.082		.155	112,842	1	1.102
7	e	0	116.385		.054	111.524	1	1.073
8	e	0	118.073		.004	111.500	1	1.015
9	e	0	114.336		.000	111.500	1	1.000

Table G5: Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	51	111.500	102	.244	1.093
Saturated model	153	.000	0		
Independence model	17	2949.335	136	.000	21.686

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.034	.960	.941	.640
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.237	.466	.399	.414

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.962	.950	.997	.995	.997
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.750	.722	.747
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	9.500	.000	39.320
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	2813.335	2640.351	2993.646

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	.353	.030	.000	.124
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	9.333	8.903	8.356	9.474

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.017	.000	.035	1.000
Independence model	.256	.248	.264	.000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	213.500	219.661	405.204	456.204
Saturated model	306.000	324.483	881.112	1034.112
Independence model	2983.335	2985.388	3047.236	3064.236

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	.676	.646	.770	.695
Saturated model	.968	.968	.968	1.027
Independence model	9.441	8.894	10.012	9.447

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	359	392
Independence model	18	19

Appendix H: Mediation results output

Figure H1: Gender and the exploitative entitlement

```
Model = 4
    Y = Exploitative entitlement
    X = Gender
    M = Materialism

Sample size
        317


Indirect effect of X on Y
               Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
Materialism     -.0448      .0237     -.1085     -.0107



Normal theory tests for indirect effect
     Effect         se          Z          p
     -.0448      .0241    -1.8586      .0631
```

Figure H2: Age and the exploitative entitlement

```
Model = 4
    Y = Exploitative entitlement
    X = Age
    M = Materialism

Sample size

Indirect effect of X on Y
               Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
Materialism      .0197      .0084      .0065      .0397


Normal theory tests for indirect effect
     Effect         se          Z          p
      .0197      .0089     2. 2230      .0262
```

Figure H3: Gender and non-exploitative entitlement

```
Model = 4
    Y = NNEXPT
    X = Gender
    M = MTRLSM

Sample size
        317


Indirect effect of X on Y
           Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
MTRLSM     -.0453      .0226     -.1041     -.0117


Normal theory tests for indirect effect
     Effect         se          Z          p
     -.0453      .0216    -2. 0987      .0358
```

Figure H4: Age and non-exploitative entitlement

```
Model = 4
    Y = NNEXPT
    X = Age
    M = MTRLSM

Sample size
        317


Indirect effect of X on Y
           Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
MTRLSM      .0158      .0071      .0052      .0338


Normal theory tests for indirect effect
     Effect         se          Z          p
      .0158      .0070     2. 2696      .0232
```

Figure H5: Work centrality and exploitative entitlement

```
Model = 4
    Y = Exploitative entitlement
    X = Work centrality
    M = Materialism

Sample size
        317


Indirect effect of X on Y
               Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
Materialism      .0109      .0102     -. 0055      .0364


Normal theory tests for indirect effect
     Effect         se          Z          p
      .0109      .0101     1. 0795      .2804
```

Figure H6: Work centrality and non-exploitative entitlement

```
Model = 4
    Y = Non-exploitative entitlement
    X = Work centrality
    M = Materialism

Sample size
        317


Indirect effect of X on Y
               Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
Materialism      .0088      .0088     -.0032       .0337


Normal theory tests for indirect effect
     Effect         se          Z          p
      .0088      .0081     1. 0916      .2750
```

Figure H7: Extrinsic work values and exploitative entitlement

```
Model = 4
    Y = Exploitative entitlement
    X = Extrinsic work values
    M = Materialism

Sample size
        317


Indirect effect of X on Y
               Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
Materialism      .0700      .0316      .0208      .1463


Normal theory tests for indirect effect
     Effect         se          Z          p
      .0700      .0315     2. 2259       .0260
```

Figure H8: Extrinsic work values and non-exploitative entitlement

```
Model = 4
    Y = Non-exploitative entitlement
    X = Extrinsic work values
    M = Materialism

Sample size
        317

Indirect effect of X on Y
          Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
MTRLSM      .0497      .0239      .0135      .1118


Normal theory tests for indirect effect
     Effect         se          Z          p
      .0497      .0234     2. 1254      .0336
```