



저작자표시-비영리-변경금지 2.0 대한민국

이용자는 아래의 조건을 따르는 경우에 한하여 자유롭게

- 이 저작물을 복제, 배포, 전송, 전시, 공연 및 방송할 수 있습니다.

다음과 같은 조건을 따라야 합니다:



저작자표시. 귀하는 원저작자를 표시하여야 합니다.



비영리. 귀하는 이 저작물을 영리 목적으로 이용할 수 없습니다.



변경금지. 귀하는 이 저작물을 개작, 변형 또는 가공할 수 없습니다.

- 귀하는, 이 저작물의 재이용이나 배포의 경우, 이 저작물에 적용된 이용허락조건을 명확하게 나타내어야 합니다.
- 저작권자로부터 별도의 허가를 받으면 이러한 조건들은 적용되지 않습니다.

저작권법에 따른 이용자의 권리는 위의 내용에 의하여 영향을 받지 않습니다.

이것은 [이용허락규약\(Legal Code\)](#)을 이해하기 쉽게 요약한 것입니다.

[Disclaimer](#)

심리학석사학위논문

Well-Being and the Price Tag of Relationships
The Effect of Happiness on Relational Experience Valuations

2014년 2월

서울대학교 대학원
심리학과 사회심리 전공
김 현 지

Well-Being and the Price Tag of Relationships

The Effect of Happiness on Relational Experience Valuations

지도교수 최 인 철

이 논문을 심리학석사 학위논문으로 제출함.

2013년 12월

서울대학교 대학원

심리학과 사회심리 전공

김 현 지

김현지의 심리학석사 학위논문을 인준함.

2014년 1월

위 원 장 _____ (인)

부위원장 _____ (인)

위 원 _____ (인)

Abstract

The literature on happiness abounds with evidence suggesting that good social relations are essential for one's happiness and that happier individuals are more socially oriented. However, there is a dearth of research on people's valuations of such relational experiences. The present study investigates the relationship between happiness and the value ascribed to interpersonal and social experiences. In Study 1, participants (Korean undergraduate students) indicated the amount of money they would have to receive in order to forego a variety of relational events. Results indicated that happier individuals placed a higher "price-tag" on the experiences. Study 2 was conducted to rule out alternative explanations and to examine the generalizability of the results found in Study 1. Participants (American adults) attached a monetary value to various activities, which were either framed as being done alone (solitary activity condition) or with a friend (relational activity condition). Happiness positively predicted the valuations in the relational activity condition, but not in the solitary activity condition, suggesting that this happiness-valuation link is due to happier individuals' higher appraisals of the relational aspect of activities rather than engagement in activities per se. Moreover, this result was found with an American adult sample, which lends preliminary support for the generalizability of the findings to both student and adult populations, in East Asian and Western cultures. In Study 3, participants reported what they had done and with whom during the previous day, and the amount of time spent with others was found to be positively associated with happiness. Implications for well-being are discussed.

Keywords: happiness, well-being, relationships, valuation, price-tag, money.

Student Number: 2012-22494

Contents

Abstract.....	i
Introduction.....	1
Study 1	8
Method.....	9
Results & Discussion.....	13
Study 2	16
Method.....	18
Results & Discussion.....	20
Study 3	25
Method.....	25
Results & Discussion.....	27
General Discussion	28
References.....	34
Appendices.....	45
Abstract in Korean	58

Table

Table 1 Correlation coefficients among happiness and log-transformed RVS variables.....	15
---	----

Figures

Figure 1 Scatter plots of well-being and relationship valuation scores.....	14
Figure 2 Scatterplots of well-being and valuation scores by condition with fitted lines	23
Figure 3 Plots of the simple slopes of the effects of SWB and PWB on valuation scores.....	23

“Two tickets: \$28. Two hot dogs, two popcorns, two sodas: \$18. One autographed baseball: \$45. Real conversation with 11-year-old son: Priceless.”

Many are likely to remember the series of television commercials that aired as a part of Mastercard’s advertising campaign “Priceless”, accompanied by the slogan “There are some things money can’t buy.”(Scott, Kottmann, Fuller, Thomas, & Bagno, 2006). Most would agree that experiences such as watching one’s daughter take her first baby steps, seeing one’s son receive his college diploma, and spending quality time with one’s family are indeed priceless. However, if people had to put a price tag on such experiences, what would those moments be worth? Moreover, would the value ascribed to these ‘priceless’ moments be associated with happiness?

The psychology literature is replete with evidence linking social and relational aspects of our lives to happiness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Cacioppo & Patrick, 2008; S. Cohen & Wills, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2012; Diener & Seligman, 2002; Emmons, Diener, & Larsen, 1986; Helliwell, 2006; Holder & Coleman, 2009; Lucas, Le, & Dyrenforth, 2008; Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005; Myers, 2000; Myers & Diener, 1995; Powdthavee, 2008, 2009; Ueno, 2005), but no study to date has investigated people’s valuations of social and interpersonal experiences, let alone the role of happiness in such judgments. The purpose of the present study was to fill that gap, by examining the association between happiness and the monetary value, or “price-tag,” ascribed to relational events. I predicted that happier individuals would perceive greater value in

relational experiences.

Strong Social Relations are a Necessary Condition for Happiness

If there is one thing that scholars in the fields of psychology, sociology, economics, and other sciences have consistently found, it is that strong relationships and social ties predict well-being. In the discipline of psychology, many prominent theories implicate the necessity of positive social relations for a life well lived. For example, Maslow's Theory of Human Motivation (Maslow, 1943) delineates a hierarchy of needs that are necessary to realize one's full potential, among which are love and belonging. Baumeister and Leary (1995) assert that the desire for interpersonal attachment is a fundamental human motive (the Belongingness Hypothesis), and Self-Determination Theory proposes that relatedness, along with competence and autonomy, are basic human needs that must be satisfied to attain emotional well-being (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2000). In addition, Socio-emotional Selectivity Theory (Carstensen, 1992, 1993) postulates that the drive for social connectedness is universal, but the structure of one's social network changes with age to accommodate different socio-emotional priorities. Such theories suggest that people have a fundamental need for social interaction and affiliation, which must be fulfilled to achieve optimal human functioning.

The salutary effect of social attachments is substantiated across numerous empirical studies. In one line of investigation, researchers have examined the impact of need satisfaction on psychological thriving with a series of longitudinal

studies; Consistent with the predictions of Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2012), the degree to which participants' basic needs such as relatedness were satisfied predicted levels of emotional well-being (Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000; Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). In addition, in an examination of the features of satisfying experiences, Sheldon, Elliot, Kim, and Kasser (2001) used a mixed idiographic-nomothetic approach and had participants write down one very satisfying and impactful event from the past and rate the extent to which 10 psychological needs were met. The authors found that the relatedness need consistently ranked at the top of the list of needs contributing to satisfying experiences and was robustly associated with positive affect, both for American and Korean samples. Other research has revealed that engagement in social activities is associated with positive affect and happiness, through cross-sectional (Argyle & Lu, 1990; Lucas et al., 2008; Pavot, Diener, & Fujita, 1990) and longitudinal experience sampling studies (Choi, 2013; L. A. Clark & Watson, 1988; Csikszentmihalyi & Hunter, 2003; Watson, Clark, McIntyre, & Hamaker, 1992). For example, Choi (2013) conducted an experience sampling study with a sample of Korean adults and found that people experience the highest levels of pleasure and meaning during social interactions (e.g., while socializing, dating, and meeting with family). Thus, people seem to derive considerable satisfaction, pleasure, and meaning through social connectedness and time spent in social activities.

Additional evidence for the hedonic benefits of relationships comes from

studies on marriage and relational life events. Across several studies, married couples were generally found to be happier than singles (Mastekaasa, 1994; Myers, 2000; Wood, Rhodes, & Whelan, 1989) and many couples benefited from a permanent increase in life-satisfaction following marriage (Lucas, Clark, Georgellis, & Diener, 2003). Furthermore, shadow pricing analyses conducted by A. E. Clark and Oswald (2002) with the British Household Panel Survey indicate that the boost in life satisfaction gained from getting married is equivalent to earning an extra 70,000 British Pounds Sterling (BPS) per year, whereas the decrease in life satisfaction due to separation or widowhood is equivalent to the loss of 170,000 BPS per year. Complementing such findings, Ballas and Dorling (2007) used the same data set and revealed that ‘starting a new relationship’ and ‘ending a relationship’ had the strongest effects on subjective happiness. Having and meeting close others with whom one can have intimate relationships, or losing such others, seems to be consequential for one’s level of life satisfaction.

Finally, the literature on social networks and social capital yet again highlight the necessity of social attachments for well-being. Studies have found that social capital, measured by trust and the number/strength of ties to family, friends, neighbors, and one’s community, are independently and robustly associated with subjective well-being (Helliwell, 2003; Helliwell & Putnam, 2004); Such findings have been replicated in specific demographic groups such as adolescents (Ueno, 2005) and Black Americans (Ellison, 1990). Furthermore, such

ties to others act as a support system during times of adversity (S. Cohen, 2004; S. Cohen & McKay, 1984; S. Cohen & Wills, 1985). S. Cohen and Wills (1985) suggests that social support can be derived from one's integration within a social network as well as through the perceived availability of interpersonal resources that can buffer against the impact of the negative event. The absence of social connectedness (i.e. loneliness), however, seems to produce a host of negative outcomes that are detrimental to one's well-being, such as poor social interaction, depressive symptoms, hostility, and hyper-vigilance to social threat (Cacioppo & Hawkley, 2009; Ernst & Cacioppo, 2000; Hawkley, Burleson, Berntson, & Cacioppo, 2003; Hawkley & Cacioppo, 2010).

To sum, the documented evidence suggests that satisfying social relationships are essential for 'the good life' and that the deprivation of such attachments lead to unhappiness (Argyle, 2001; Baumeister, 1991). Despite the import of interpersonal and social attachments for our well-being, no study has yet examined people's valuations of their relationships and social ties. This issue is of theoretical and practical interest. Values and attitudes are important elements of our cognitions that have been found to guide and shape our behaviors (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Heider, 1946; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987; Triandis, 1979; Tsai, 2007). Consequently, the degree to which individuals value relationships has the potential to promote or discourage behaviors that are conducive to happiness (e.g., investing time in relational events). The present study was designed to investigate

such valuations as they relate to trait happiness.

The Characteristics of Happy People

Happier people are likely to value relationships more, given the findings on the characteristics of happy individuals and the consequences of happiness. Diener and Seligman (2002) found that happy people, compared to unhappy people, had better quality relationships with their friends, family, and romantic partner (whether measured by self-report or peer ratings), spent more time with others, and spent less time alone. In addition, Myers (2000) revealed through an analysis of data from the National Opinion Research Center that people who report being “very happy” tend to have more friends. Another line of research has investigated the effects of trait positive affect and extraversion, which is known to be highly correlated with happiness (Costa & McCrae, 1980). For example, through several experience-sampling studies on the effects of extraversion and positive emotionality, researchers have found that extraversion positively predicts the percentage of time spent in social activities (Diener, Larsen, & Emmons, 1984; Watson et al., 1992). Further corroborating the link between happiness and social dispositions, numerous experimental studies have found that positive mood leads to greater sociability, interest in social leisure activities, levels of energy, and enjoyment of social interactions (see Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). Such findings suggest that happiness may influence general inclinations toward the social domains of life.

Not only is happiness is associated with social propensities, but more importantly, happiness has been found to be related to favorable perceptions of other people (Berry & Hansen, 1996; Judge & Higgins, 1998; Lyubomirsky & Tucker, 1998). In a study by Berry and Hansen (1996), participants engaged in a dyadic interaction and rated the quality of the interaction. Participants who were higher on trait positive affect rated their social interaction as having been more pleasant, satisfying, and enjoyable, and indicated a greater desire to interact again with their partner than those who were lower on trait positive affect. In another study by Judge and Higgins (1998), undergraduates and faculty members who had positive affective dispositions wrote more favorable recommendation letters. More conclusive evidence regarding the causal effect of happiness on favorable judgments of others comes from several experimental studies (e.g., Baron, 1987, 1993). For example, participants who were induced to be in a positive (versus negative) mood during a simulated interview of a confederate evaluated the confederate more favorably on both job-related and personal dimensions and were more likely make hiring decisions. Such results indicate that positive mood, which is an important component of happiness, affects judgments of other people and lend support for the hypothesis that happy people may value relationships more.

Overview of Studies

In brief, the existing literature suggests that engagement in social activities that allow for the fulfilment of relatedness needs is essential for happiness, and

that happiness in turn motivates us toward social and relational priorities. Although positive relations seem to be a sine qua non of happiness, there is a dearth of research on individual differences in how much importance people place on relationships. The most relevant study was that conducted by Powdthavee (2008), who employed a shadow pricing method to calculate the financial equivalent of boosts in life satisfaction owing from increases in social interaction. The study revealed that increasing social interaction from “seeing friends or relatives less than once a month” to “seeing friends and relatives on most days” resulted in an increase in life satisfaction that was equivalent to earning an additional 85,000 BPS per annum. The move from “seeing friends or relatives once or twice a week” to “seeing friends or relatives on most days” produced an increase in life satisfaction which was equivalent to earning an extra 15,500 BPS per year.

However, such results are based on longitudinal survey data and do not directly investigate people’s valuations of relational experiences. The present study was conducted to examine individual differences in the value or “price-tag” that people attach to relational experiences. More specifically, given the socially-orienting effects of happiness and positive affect, I hypothesized that trait happiness would be related to the value ascribed to such experiences.

Study 1: Happiness and Relationship Valuations

In Study 1, the relationship between happiness and the value attributed to

relational events was examined using two different measures of well-being and a relationship valuation task.

Method

Participants

Eighty-seven undergraduate students were recruited from an introductory level Psychology course at Seoul National University. Three participants were excluded because their valuations of activities were identified as outliers (values exceeded the interquartile range by 1.5* IQR), leaving a total of 83 participants in the final analysis (46 male, 37 female; mean age = 19.02 years, $SD=1.35$, range = 17 to 25 years). The students received partial course credit in exchange for their participation.

Procedure

At the beginning of the semester, prior to taking part in the study, participants filled out measures of well-being and personality embedded in a battery of questionnaires administered to all students enrolled in the Psychology course. Upon arriving at the lab, participants were seated in separate cubicles in front of computers, where they completed an online relationship valuation questionnaire and provided information such as gender, age, and average monthly spending. After completing the study, participants were thanked and debriefed.

Measures

The current literature on well-being identifies two conceptualizations of

happiness – hedonic conceptions that underscore high levels of life satisfaction, the presence of positive affect, and the absence of negative affect, as well as eudaimonic conceptions that emphasize engagement in existential pursuits such as purpose in life and personal growth (Keyes, Shmotkin, & Ryff, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2001). To reflect the two different approaches to happiness, two measures were used: Subjective Well-Being (Diener, 1984) and Psychological Well-Being (Ryff, 1989). All scales used were those that were translated from the original language (English) into Korean.

Subjective Well-Being (SWB). SWB is generally thought to be an instrument that reflects the hedonic view of happiness (Keyes et al., 2002). It consists of a cognitive evaluation of satisfaction with one's life as well as a measure of the frequency of positive and negative affect experiences. Global life satisfaction was assessed with the 5-item Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) with items such as "In most ways my life is close to my ideal," and "The conditions of my life are excellent," administered on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The affect component was measured with the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), which asked participants to rate the extent to which they experienced 10 positive affective states (e.g., excited, strong) and 10 negative affective states (e.g., ashamed, upset) in the past month, administered on a scale of 1 (very slightly or not at all) to 5 (extremely).

Cronbach's alpha for SWLS, positive affect (PA), and negative affect (NA) was .81, .85, and .85, respectively. The final SWB score was calculated with the standardized scores of each component: $ZSWLS + ZPA - ZNA$.

Psychological Well-Being (PWB). The PWB measure is chiefly thought to reflect the eudaimonic conception of well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff & Singer, 2008) and consists of 18 items assessing the dimensions of autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, and self-acceptance. Some examples of items are "I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world (personal growth)," "People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others (positive relations with others)," and "Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them (purpose in life)." Participants rated each item on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 9 (strongly agree); Cronbach's alpha was .82. The ratings across the 18 items were averaged to calculate the final PWB score.

Extraversion. Levels of extraversion, which could influence people's inclinations for engagement in social events and activities, was assessed with 5-items (e.g., "I feel comfortable around people," "I start conversations") from the 50-item International Personality Item Pool (IPIP; Goldberg, 1992; Goldberg, 1999). Participants rated their agreement with the statements on a scale ranging from 1 (very inaccurate) to 5 (very accurate) and the mean across the 5 items was

used as the extroversion score. Cronbach's alpha for the 5 items was .76.

Valuations of Relationships. The instructions of the online relationship valuation questionnaire read: “다음 부분에서는 다양한 사건들이 제시될 것입니다. 당신이 각 사건을 경험 할 예정이라고 가정했을 때, 각 사건의 금전적 가치를 적어 주십시오. 여기서 사건의 금전적 가치란 그 사건을 포기하기 위해서 최소한 받아야 한다고 생각하는 돈의 액수를 의미합니다. 사건에 나오는 인물이 (예: 이성친구가) 당신의 인생에 현재 없다면 있다고 상상하고 액수를 적어 주십시오. 금액의 단위는 ‘원’ 입니다.” Following the presentation of the instructions, participants were presented with a total of 18 relational events (see Appendix C-1 for the full list). Among the relational events, 6 were events with friends (e.g., “You told your friends you would check out a new restaurant with them in the evening,” “You told your friends you would spend New Year's Eve with them”), 4 were events with one's romantic partner (e.g., “You told your romantic partner, who you see about 2~3 times a week, that you would go to the movies with him/her over the weekend,” “You are scheduled to go on a 3-day trip to Jeju island with your romantic partner over the weekend.”), 4 were events with one's family (e.g., “You said you would have dinner with your parents,” “Your family members who have not been able to get together for several years scheduled a day to get together and take a family portrait.”), and 4

were events with acquaintances (e.g., “You said you would have dinner with other students in your project group,” “You said you would attend your high school alumni reunion this year, which takes place once every couple of years.”). In addition, half of the events in each relationship category were “common” events that people could easily experience in their daily life, and half were “one-time” events that one could not easily re-schedule. The presentation of the events was randomized. For each event, the participants entered the amount of money they would have to receive in order to forego the event. To calculate the final relationship valuation score (RVS), participants’ answers across all 18 items were averaged. Because the distribution was positively skewed, the RVS was log-transformed (J. Cohen & P. Cohen, 1975), which produced a normal distribution. Cronbach’s alpha for the items was .81 for the raw values, and .94 for the log-transformed values.

Demographics. At the end of the relationship valuation questionnaire, participants indicated their gender, age, and the average amount of money they spend every month (monthly spending). Because the distribution of monthly spending was not normal, the values were also log-transformed.

Results and Discussion

The RVS was significantly correlated with SWB ($M=0.00$, $SD=2.04$, range=-5.91 to 4.46), $r=.37$, $p=.001$, and PWB ($M=6.27$, $SD=.92$, range= 3.56 to 8.00), $r=.38$, $p<.001$, suggesting that happier participants placed higher price tags

on relational events (see Figure 1 for the scatter plots). In addition to the grand RVS score calculated across all 18 items, responses to items within each relationship category were averaged and log-transformed to create RVS_{friend} , RVS_{family} , RVS_{rompart} , and RVS_{acquaint} , and the values entered for common items and one-time items were averaged and log-transformed to create RVS_{common} and RVS_{onetime} , respectively. Simple correlation analyses revealed that all of the RVS sub-scores were positively related SWB and PWB, $ps < .01$ (see Table 1 for the correlation coefficients).

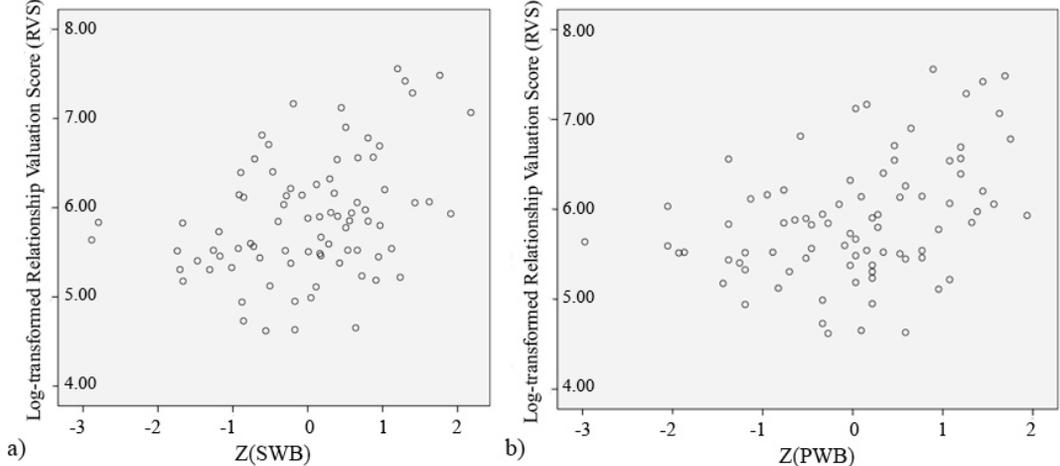


Figure 1. Scatter plots of well-being and relationship valuation scores. Figures display a) the standardized SWB score and b) the standardized PWB score on the x-axis and the log-transformed relationship valuation score on the y-axis.

Table 1
Correlation Coefficients Among Happiness and Log-Transformed RVS Variables

	Romantic Partner	Family	Friend(s)	Acquaint- ances	Common	One- Time	Overall Mean
SWB	.30**	.36**	.36**	.34**	.34**	.36**	.37**
SWLS	.18+	.28**	.32**	.19+	.25*	.28*	.28**
PA	.32**	.37**	.24*	.42**	.33**	.34**	.34**
NA	-.11	-.11	-.18	-.10	-.11	-.13	-.13
PWB	.25*	.38**	.36**	.33**	.24*	.38**	.38**

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, + $p < .10$.

To control for the effects of extraversion, gender, or levels of monthly spending, three-step hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. Gender and monthly spending were entered at Step 1 of the regression predicting the RVS; no variables were significant, $R^2 = .02$, $F(2, 79) = .79$, $p = ns$. At Step 2, extraversion was entered, but did not yield a significant effect on the RVS, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $F(1, 78) = 2.17$, $p = ns$. When SWB was entered at Step 3, it significantly predicted the RVS ($\beta = .38$, $p < .001$), $\Delta R^2 = .14$, $F(1, 77) = 13.68$, $p < .001$. This procedure was repeated for PWB, which was entered at Step 3. The effect of PWB was significant ($\beta = .39$, $p < .001$) and the effect of extraversion approached significance ($\beta = .18$, $p = .09$), $\Delta R^2 = .15$, $F(1, 77) = 14.71$, $p < .001$. These findings suggest that happiness, as measured by SWB and PWB, accounts for variance in the RVS above and beyond that explained by gender, monthly spending, and extraversion.

For illustrative purposes, participants were categorized into low- and high-

happiness groups based on median splits of their SWB and PWB scores and independent sample t-tests were conducted on the RVS. The high-SWB group ($N=42$, $M=6.09$ log-units, $SD=.69$) attributed higher values to relational events than the low-SWB group ($N=41$, $M=5.66$ log-units, $SD=.59$), $t(81) = -3.03$, $p < .01$. The corresponding raw values for the high-SWB group ($M=4,490,000$ KRW, $SD=8,480,000$) and low-SWB group ($M=1,260,000$ KRW, $SD=2,540,000$) depict the extent of the differential valuations of relational events. To give a more concrete example, when presented with “Your family members who have not been able to get together for several years scheduled a day to get together and take a family portrait.,” participants in the high-PWB condition ($N=43$, $M= 6.28$ log-units, $SD=.97$) indicated that they would have to receive 13,290,000 KRW ($SD= 28,580,000$) in order to forego the event, whereas participants in the low-PWB condition ($N=40$, $M=5.71$ log-units, $SD=.72$) indicated that they had to receive 2,130,000 KRW ($SD=5,120,000$), $t(77) = -3.04$, $p=.003$. Such findings suggest that happier individuals value relationships more than less happy individuals.

Study 2: Engagement Versus the Relational Aspect

Study 1 established that there is a robust association between happiness and the price tag put on relationships, which we suggested was due to happy individuals’ higher valuation of relationships. Study 2 was conducted to address three limitations of Study 1. First, Study 1 presented the participants with a variety

of relational events that involve active participation in an activity. Engaging in an activity is likely to prevent mind-wandering, and according to Killingsworth and Gilbert (2010) people are happiest when their minds are not wandering. This then raises the question of whether the results found in Study 1 were driven by happy individuals' greater preference for partaking in activities per se, or their tendency to place greater priority on relationships. Study 2 was designed to tease apart these two competing explanations by having participants evaluate the monetary value of either solitary activities or relational activities (i.e. activities done with a friend). We hypothesized that the relationship between happiness and relationship valuations would appear in the relational activity condition, but not in the solitary activity condition.

Secondly, the task used in Study 1 implicated a loss (i.e., foregoing an event), which allows for the possibility that the results were driven by a differential sensitivity to loss (i.e. loss aversion) among happy and unhappy individuals. In other words, happier individuals could have required more money to forego the relational events because they are more loss averse. Thus, in Study 2, I used a modified version of the relationship valuation task that did not involve a loss. Lastly, because Study 1 was conducted with a sample of Korean undergraduate students from a prestigious university, in Study 2, I tested whether the results would be replicated in a more diverse sample of adults. Because the degree to which relationships are integral to the self differs across collectivistic

(e.g., Korean) and individualistic (e.g., American) cultures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1995), I used an American sample to test for cross-cultural generalizability.

To sum, Study 2 was designed to rule out competing explanations and address the limited generalizability of the findings from Study 1.

Method

Participants.

Participants were 140 adults (72 males, 68 females) who signed up for an online survey titled “Cognition and Value” on Amazon’s Mechanical Turk. Filters were set to only allow those who were registered in the United States with at least a 99% quality rating to participate. Four participants whose log-transformed activity valuations were identified as outliers (exceeding the IQR by $1.5 * IQR$) were excluded, resulting in a final sample of 136 participants (70 male, 66 female; mean age = 34.47 years, $SD = 11.57$, range = 19 to 76 years; 87 were employed, 19 were self-employed, 13 were students, and 17 were unemployed or homemakers; 117 were European American, 9 were Asian American, 4 were African American, and the rest were of other or mixed ethnicity). Participants were randomly assigned to either the solitary activity condition ($N=70$; 42 male, 28 female; mean age = 32.94 years, $SD = 9.70$, range = 21 to 66 years) or the relational activity condition ($N=66$; 28 male, 38 female; mean age = 36.09 years, $SD = 13.16$, range = 19 to 76 years) and were paid \$3 for their participation.

Procedure and Measures.

Participants who began the survey online were randomly assigned to either the solitary activity condition or the relational activity condition. Participants first filled out scales assessing happiness and well-being and proceeded to complete the valuation task. At the end of the survey, participants rated how much they like people in general and provided information such as age, gender, ethnicity, occupation, and monthly spending.

Happiness. Happiness was assessed with the same scales used in Study 1 to measure Subjective Well-Being (SWB) and Psychological Well-Being (PWB). Cronbach's alphas for SWLS, PA, NA, and PWB were .94, .93, .91, and .90, respectively.

Valuations. The instructions for the relationship valuation task read "On the next page, you will be presented with various activities. Please imagine that you will be engaging in each activity and think about how much you would value that experience. If you were to convert the value of each experience into a monetary sum, how much would it be? Please ascribe a monetary value to each experience (a higher monetary sum indicates greater value). There are no right or wrong answers so please write down the monetary sum that you subjectively think represents the value of each experience. When entering the monetary value of each experience, please use numbers only. The unit is in U.S. dollars." The participants were presented with a total of 11 activities (e.g., working out [by yourself/with a

friend], hiking [by yourself/with a friend]; see Appendix C-3 for full list), and asked to convert the value of each activity/experience into a monetary sum. The two conditions were exactly alike except that each activity ended with either “by yourself” for the solitary activity condition or “with a friend” for the relational activity condition. The order of the items was randomized. To calculate the final valuation score (VS), the monetary values were averaged across all 11-items. Because the distribution was positively skewed, the VS was log-transformed (J. Cohen & P. Cohen, 1975), which produced a normal distribution. Cronbach’s alpha for the raw values was .88, and for the log-transformed values .94.

Control Variables. Sociability, as an alternative measure of extraversion, was assessed with the single-item “How much do you like people in general?” which was administered on a scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 7 (very much). Participants were also asked to provide estimates of the average amount of money they spend on themselves every month (monthly spending), which was log-transformed to obtain a normal distribution.

Results and Discussion

Mean Differences Across Conditions

Independent sample t-tests were conducted to test for differences in the VS across the two conditions. The VS for the relational activity condition ($N=66$, $M=1.62$ log-units, $SD=.44$; raw score $M=70.55$ USD, $SD=84.48$) was significantly higher than the VS of the solitary activity condition ($N=70$, $M=1.39$ log-units,

$SD=.60$; raw score $M=64.87$ USD, $SD=100.28$), $t(126)=-2.58$, $p=.01$. Thus, people seem to value the experience of doing activities with friends more than the experience of doing activities alone.

The Impact of Happiness on Relationship Valuation

To examine the interaction effect of happiness (SWB: $M=0.00$, $SD=2.31$, range=-5.53 to 4.89; PWB: $M=6.38$, $SD=1.26$, range=2.78 to 8.83) and condition on the VS, I conducted three-step hierarchical regression analyses. All continuous predictors were standardized and the categorical variables were dummy coded (gender 0= female, 1=male; condition 0=alone, 1=relational). The scatterplots of well-being and the VS by condition are shown in Figure 2.

At Step 1 of the regression, age, gender, and monthly spending were entered as predictors of the VS; significant effects of gender ($\beta = -.19$, $p=.03$), monthly spending ($\beta = -.20$, $p=.02$) and sociability ($\beta = .18$, $p=.04$) emerged, $R^2=.11$, $F(4, 129)=3.95$, $p=.01$. SWB and condition were entered at Step 2, which produced a significant effect of condition ($\beta = .22$, $p =.01$), $\Delta R^2=.04$, $F(2, 127)=3.34$, $p=.04$. Finally, the SWB x condition interaction term was entered at Step 3; the interaction term yielded a significant effect ($\beta = .23$, $p=.03$), $\Delta R^2=.03$, $F(1, 126)=4.68$, $p=.03$. The effects of monthly spending ($\beta = -.21$, $p=.01$) and condition ($\beta = .22$, $p=.01$) also remained significant, and the effects of gender ($\beta = -.15$, $p=.08$) and sociability ($\beta = .17$, $p=.08$) approached significance. The significant interaction term suggested that it explained additional variance above

and beyond what was accounted for by the other predictors. Further examination of the interaction effect with simple slopes analysis revealed that the effect of SWB on the VS did not reach significance in the solitary activity condition ($\beta = -.17, p=.15$) or the relational activity condition ($\beta = .19, p=.16$). However, plots of the interaction are shown in Figure 1, which indicate that the effects are in the predicted direction; participants higher on SWB ascribe greater value to relational activities in the relational activity condition, but not in the solitary activity condition.

The same steps were repeated for PWB. At Step 1 of the regression, age, gender, and monthly spending were entered as predictors of the VS and the results were the same as those described for the corresponding section above. PWB and condition were entered at Step 2 and the effect of condition was significant ($\beta = .21, p = .01$), $\Delta R^2 = .05, F(2, 127)=3.52, p=.03$. Finally, in Step 3, the PWB x condition interaction term was entered; the effect of the interaction term approached significance ($\beta = .21, p=.06$), $\Delta R^2=.02, F(1, 126)=3.68, p=.06$. In addition, the effects of monthly spending ($\beta = -.24, p < .01$) and condition ($\beta = .21, p=.01$) were significant and the effect of gender approached significance ($\beta = -.15, p=.07$). Further examination of the interaction effect with simple slopes analysis revealed that the effect of PWB on the VS was not significant in the solitary activity condition ($\beta = -.06, ns$) but marginally significant in the relational activity condition ($\beta = .27, p=.07$). The interaction plot is shown in Figure 3, which depicts

a positive relationship between PWB and the relational valuation score in the relational activity condition, but not in the solitary activity condition.

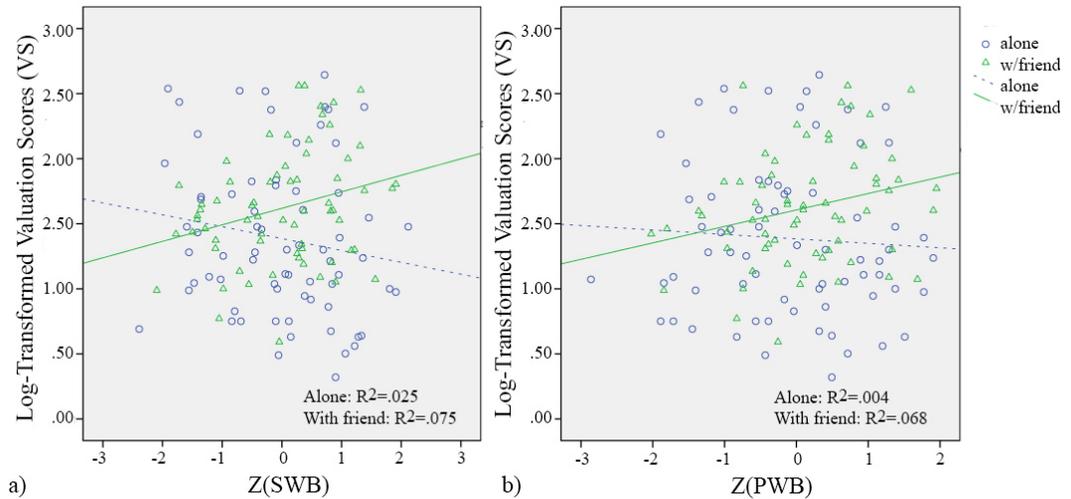


Figure 2. Scatterplots of well-being and valuation scores by condition with fitted lines. Figures display a) the standardized SWB score and b) standardized PWB score on the x-axis and the log-transformed valuation score on the y-axis.

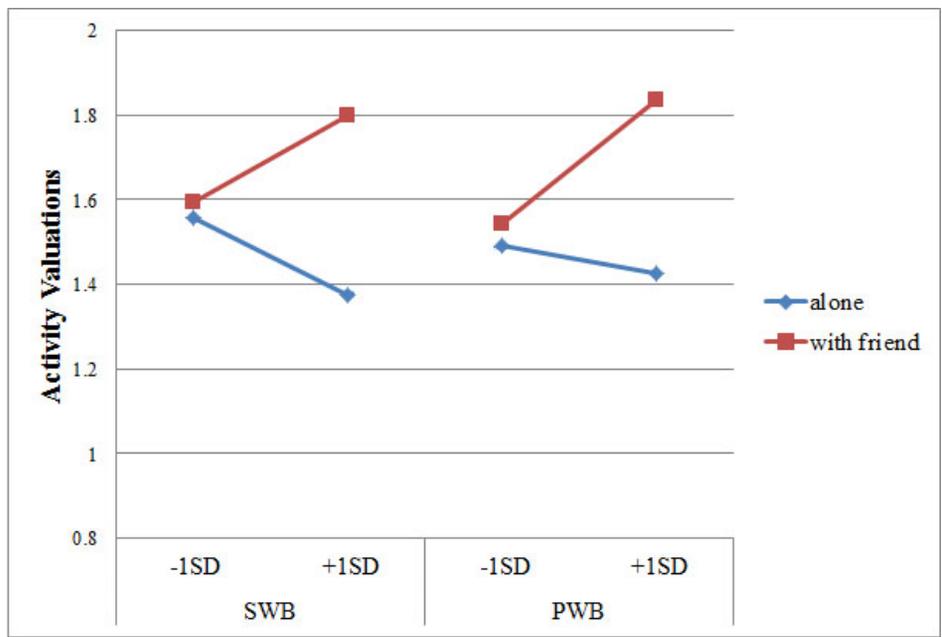


Figure 3. Plots of the simple slopes of the effects of SWB and PWB on valuation scores. Log-transformed valuation scores are plotted at -1 and +1 SD.

Notably, across the two analyses, some control variables remained significant predictors of the VS. For example, the effect of gender was such that females attributed higher value to relationships than males, which is to be expected given the literature suggesting the females tend to be more attuned to relational concerns (e.g., Beutel & Marini, 1995). Monthly spending also exerted an effect on the VS in a direction suggesting that those who spend more money on themselves value relationships less. This is not surprisingly, given that individuals high on materialistic value orientations tend to be low on intrinsic aspirations, such as affiliation (Kasser, Ryan, Couchman, & Sheldon, 2004).

Taken together, as hypothesized, happiness and relational valuation scores generally exhibited a positive association in the relational activity condition, but not in the solitary activity condition. These results suggest that the findings of Study 1 were not driven by happy individuals' greater preference for engaging in activities per se, but by happy people's tendency to ascribe higher value to relational experiences. In addition, these results were obtained with a relationship valuation task that did not involve foregoing or giving up an experience, suggesting that the findings were not produced by differential sensitivity to loss. Finally, the findings of Study 1 were replicated in a diverse sample, with participants of varied occupations, ages, and ethnicities, in the United States. This provides preliminary evidence to corroborate the notion that the relationship between happiness and valuing relationships may hold across many cultures and

demographic groups.

Study 3: Happiness, Relative Valuations, and Time Spent in Relationships

In Study 2 I ruled out the two competing explanations and replicated the findings of Study 1 with a diverse sample from a Western culture. Results indicated that happiness is positively associated with how much value people impute to relational experiences. Study 3 was conducted to investigate this idea further, by examining whether happier people actually spend more time spent with others. Previous studies have found this to be the case (Diener & Seligman, 2002), but it has not yet been confirmed in a Korean sample. The Daily Reconstruction (DRM) is a reliable way to collect data on the who (with who), what (did what), when (how long), where, and how (felt emotions) aspects of episodes in a given day; Participants systematically reconstruct events of a day on the following day, by filling out instruments that have been found to reduce cognitive biases (Kahneman, Krueger, Schkade, Schwarz, & Stone, 2004). However, the present study was not able to employ the DRM. Instead, I used a simplified measure that assessed the who (with who), what (did what), and when (time) of experiences of the previous day.

Method

Participants

Sixty-eight students of Seoul National University (35 female, 33 male; 63

undergraduate students, 2 graduate students, and 3 alumni; mean age=22.78 years, $SD=3.63$) were recruited through a university community website. Participants received 3000KRW in exchange for their participation.

Procedure

Upon arrival at the lab, participants were seated in front of a computer, where they completed an online survey that included measures of SWB, PWB, and sociability, as well as a simplified diary task. At the end of the survey, participants provided information such as gender, age, and student status. The participants were then thanked and debriefed.

Measures

Happiness. Happiness was assessed with the same scales used in Study 1 and 2 for SWB and PWB. Cronbach's alphas for SWLS, PA, NA, and PWB were .90, .87, .86, and .84, respectively.

Control Variables. Sociability was assessed with the single-item "How much do you like people in general?" which was administered on a scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 7 (very much). Participants also provided information about their gender, age, and student status.

Diary Task. To measure the amount of time individuals spent with others, participants were asked to recall what they had done yesterday. They wrote down what they did and with whom in each 1 hour timeslot for a 24 hour period beginning at 12:01am of the previous day and ending at 12:00am of the day of the

study. The diary was coded for the number of hours spent awake, and for those, the number of hours spent alone and with other(s). The ratio of hours spent with others to hours spent alone was calculated as the “amount of time spent with others” measure.

Results and Discussion

Time with Others

Two-step hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to examine whether happiness (SWB: $M=-.06$, $SD=2.01$, range= -5.68 to 3.17; PWB: $M=6.13$, $SD=.94$, range= 3.28 to 8.50) predicts the amount of time spent with others ($M=1.35$, $SD=2.26$, range= 0 to 15). In Step 1, sociability was entered as a predictor; the effect was significant ($\beta =.26$, $p=.04$), $R^2=.07$, $F(1, 61)=4.40$, $p=.04$. In Step 2, SWB was entered, and yielded a marginally significant effect ($\beta =.24$, $p=.08$), $\Delta R^2=.05$, $F(1, 60)=3.17$, $p=.08$. The same procedure was repeated, and when PWB was entered at Step 2, it exerted a significant effect ($\beta =.30$, $p=.04$), $\Delta R^2=.06$, $F(1, 60)=4.19$, $p=.04$. These findings lend support to the idea that happy individuals spend more time with others, and this effect goes above and beyond that which is accounted for by sociability.

In the present study, participants reported their activities for the previous day in hour increments. Thus, it is possible that although participants were not with another person for a full hour, it was calculated as such. Because the nature of the social interactions within the hour slot (e.g., number of interaction partners,

duration of time spent with each interaction partner) is unclear, the current measure may conflate both frequency and duration of social interactions. However, it seems unlikely that participants would have reported spending the hour hanging out with a friend if that happened for merely a couple minutes. I posit that for the purposes of this study, the measure used provides an adequate, albeit rough, measure of the duration of time spent with others. In short, not only do happier people value their relationships more, Study 3 reveals that happier people instantiate such priorities by spending more time with others. Combined with the findings of Study 1 and 2, confirmation of this pattern within a sample of Korean participants suggests that trait happiness is associated with relationship valuations and social activity orientations, in both individualistic and collectivistic cultures.

General Discussion

Through three studies, I revealed that happy individuals value relational experiences more and spend more time in their relationships. In Study 1, the amount of money that participants reported having to receive in order to forego a variety of relational events was higher for happier participants. Furthermore, this relationship was robust across both measures of happiness, and even after the effects of demographic variables and extraversion were controlled for. Study 2 was designed to test two alternative explanations to the results found in Study 1 and to replicate the findings in a more diverse sample. The results indicated that even

after the effects of demographic variables and sociability were taken into account, happier individuals ascribed greater value to relational activities. However, this positive relationship was not found with solitary activities. The effect of happiness on relational activity valuations was weaker than the association found in Study 1 but was nevertheless marginally significant or in the hypothesized direction. This asymmetry across conditions suggests that the association between happiness and relationship valuations in Study 1 was not driven by happy individuals' greater preference for engaging in activities per se, but more likely by their perception of greater value in the relational aspect of activities. Also, because these results were found with a study design that did not involve foregoing or giving up an experience, it seems unlikely that the findings of Study 1 stemmed from a differential sensitivity to loss. The association between happiness and relational experience valuations seems to hold within both undergraduate and adult samples, as well as samples of collectivistic and individualistic cultures. Finally, in Study 3, happier participants had a higher ratio of time spent with others to time spent alone. The pattern (Diener & Seligman, 2002) was not previously confirmed in a Korean sample, and the findings of Study 3 suggest that in both collectivistic and individualistic cultures, happiness predicts relational experience valuations as well as valuation-consistent behaviors.

Interestingly, the results of the three studies were obtained with analyses that controlled for levels of sociability or extraversion, which is a robust correlate

of happiness (Costa & McCrae, 1980; DeNeve, 1999; Pavot et al., 1990) that has the potential to affect how relationships are perceived. Given that the predicted results were still found, it seems plausible that there is a unique feature of happiness – something other than a disposition toward people and social situations – that drives the greater valuations of relationships. Happiness has been found to be associated with certain cognitive tendencies such as greater appreciation of life-as-a-whole (Headey & Veenhoven, 1989; Veenhoven, 1984), perceiving events in a more positive light (Lyubomirsky & Tucker, 1998), and greater heuristic-processing (Bless, 2001; Bless et al., 1996; Bless, Mackie, & Schwarz, 1992). However, it is unlikely that such global cognitive biases drove the results of the present study, given that there was no positive relationship between happiness and solitary activity valuations in Study 2. Instead, it is possible that the happiness – relationship valuation link was driven by a set of values or orientations. For example, intrinsic aspirations, which encompass self-acceptance, affiliation, and community feeling (Kasser et al., 2004) has been found to be strongly correlated to well-being; the internalization of such orientations may induce the predisposition to place greater value on relationships. In other words, happier individuals, compared to less happy individuals, may be “wiser” about what constitutes ‘the good life’ (e.g., social connectedness) and instantiate to a greater extent the adaptive behaviors that are conducive to happiness (e.g., Sul, Kim, & Choi, 2012, 2013). Further studies are needed to elucidate the underlying mechanism behind

the association between happiness and relationship valuations.

In two of the three studies, value was assessed with monetary sums, the subjective value of which, one could argue, differs across individuals. And indeed, such differences have been documented (Brandstätter & Brandstätter, 1996; Raghurir, 2006). In addition, based on previous findings of the negative relationship between well-being and the pursuit of financial success (Kasser, 2003; Kasser et al., 2004; Wright & Larsen, 1993) it is possible that the subjective value of money differs for happy and less happy people. The survey administered to the participants of Study 2 contained an item assessing how much the participants like money and thus the hierarchical regression analyses were repeated with the inclusion of the item as a control variable. However, the results did not change. Moreover, the objective value (i.e. purchasing power) of money is likely to be similar for those living in the same society, and to account for individual differences in wealth, monthly spending was controlled for in Study 1 and 2. The differential subjective valuations of money do not seem to have significantly affected the results.

It is worth noting that the results were generally comparable for the two measures of happiness. This suggests that happy people – whether they are happy because they are satisfied with their life and experience frequent positive affect, or happy because they are engaged in the existential pursuits of life – value relationships more than their less happy counterparts. Relationships seem to be an

essential element of ‘the good life,’ whether it be conceptualized in hedonic or eudaimonic terms (Ryan & Deci, 2001). In addition, in Study 2, age did not exert a significant effect on the valuation scores, which suggests that people may value relational experiences equally across the lifespan. According to research by Carstensen (1993), as people age, the size of their social network decreases as they spend less time with acquaintances and more time with close others. Although the structure of the social network may change, it seems that relationships remain an integral part of one’s life in older age – as much as it is among younger individuals. However, such an interpretation is made cautiously because the present data are cross-sectional in nature. Additional longitudinal studies are necessary to investigate changes in valuations of relationships across the lifespan, and future valuation studies that differentiate among types of relationships are expected to advance knowledge on how people weight and prioritize various relationships.

It is also important to note that the data of the three studies are correlational in nature and thus do not support any assumptions of causality. It is just as possible that valuing relationships and spending more time with others make one happy, as it is possible that happier individuals value relationships more and invest more time in their relationships. However, the measures of happiness used, especially SWB, is considered to be a trait-like measure of happiness that has shown substantial stability and consistency across time (Diener, Napa Scollon, & Lucas, 2003). Thus, although causality can go in the opposite direction, I posit that

it is reasonable to assume that trait-like or chronic levels of happiness also exert an influence on our cognitions and judgments (e.g., Robinson & Kirkeby, 2005).

To conclude, there seem to be individual differences in the valuations of relational experiences, and happier people seem to value those experiences more. It is very plausible that happy individuals value relationships more and thus invest more time and effort in relational pursuits, which ultimately enhances their happiness. The present studies provide a point of departure for future research in this area.

References

- Argyle, M. (2002). *The psychology of happiness*. New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.
- Argyle, M., & Lu, L. (1990). The happiness of extraverts. *Personality and individual differences, 11*(10), 1011-1017.
- Ballas, D., & Dorling, D. (2007). Measuring the impact of major life events upon happiness. *International Journal of Epidemiology, 36*(6), 1244-1252.
- Bardi, A., & Schwartz, S. H. (2003). Values and behavior: Strength and structure of relations. *Personality and social psychology bulletin, 29*(10), 1207-1220.
- Baron, R. A. (1987). Interviewer's Moods and Reactions to Job Applicants: The Influence of Affective States on Applied Social Judgments¹. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 17*(10), 911-926.
- Baron, R. A. (1993). Interviewers' Moods and Evaluations of Job Applicants: The Role of Applicant Qualifications¹. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 23*(4), 253-271.
- Baumeister, R. F. (1991). *Meanings of life*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological bulletin, 117*(3), 497.
- Berry, D. S., & Hansen, J. S. (1996). Positive affect, negative affect, and social interaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 71*(4), 796.

- Beutel, A. M., & Marini, M. M. (1995). Gender and values. *American sociological review*, 436-448.
- Bless, H. (2001). Mood and the use of general knowledge structures. *Theories of mood and cognition: A user's guidebook*, 9-26.
- Bless, H., Clore, G. L., Schwarz, N., Golisano, V., Rabe, C., & Wölk, M. (1996). Mood and the use of scripts: Does a happy mood really lead to mindlessness? *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 71(4), 665.
- Bless, H., Mackie, D. M., & Schwarz, N. (1992). Mood effects on attitude judgments: independent effects of mood before and after message elaboration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 63(4), 585.
- Brandstätter, E., & Brandstätter, H. (1996). What's money worth? Determinants of the subjective value of money. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 17(4), 443-464.
- Cacioppo, J. T., & Hawley, L. C. (2009). Perceived social isolation and cognition. *Trends in cognitive sciences*, 13(10), 447-454.
- Cacioppo, J. T., & Patrick, W. (2008). *Loneliness: Human nature and the need for social connection*. New York, NY: WW Norton & Company.
- Carstensen, L. L. (1992). Social and emotional patterns in adulthood: support for socioemotional selectivity theory. *Psychology and aging*, 7(3), 331.
- Carstensen, L. L. (1993). Motivation for social contact across the life span: A theory of socioemotional selectivity. In J. E. Jacobs (Ed.), *Nebraska*

- Symposium on Motivation* (p. 209-254). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Choi, J. (2013). *The analysis of meaning and pleasure in daily life*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Seoul National University, Seoul, Korea.
- Clark, A. E., & Oswald, A. J. (2002). A simple statistical method for measuring how life events affect happiness. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 31(6), 1139-1144.
- Clark, L. A., & Watson, D. (1988). Mood and the mundane: relations between daily life events and self-reported mood. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 54(2), 296.
- Cohen, J., & Cohen, P. (1975). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cohen, S. (2004). Social relationships and health. *American psychologist*, 59(8), 676.
- Cohen, S., & McKay, Garth. (1984). Social support, stress, and the buffering hypothesis: A theoretical analysis. *Handbook of psychology and health*, 4, 253-267.
- Cohen, S., & Wills, T. A. (1985). Stress, social support, and the buffering hypothesis. *Psychological bulletin*, 98(2), 310-357.
- Costa, P.T., & McCrae, R.R. (1980). Influence of extraversion and neuroticism on subjective well-being: happy and unhappy people. *Journal of personality*

- and social psychology*, 38(4), 668.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M., & Hunter, J. (2003). Happiness in everyday life: The uses of experience sampling. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 4(2), 185-199.
- Deci, E., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior: Perspectives in Social Psychology*. New York, NY: Plenum Press.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The " what " and " why " of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological inquiry*, 11(4), 227-268.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008). Hedonia, eudaimonia, and well-being: An introduction. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 9(1), 1-11.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2012). Motivation, personality, and development within embedded social contexts: An Overview of Self-Determination Theory. In R. M. Ryan (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Human Motivation* (p. 85-110). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- DeNeve, K. M. (1999). Happy as an extraverted clam? The role of personality for subjective well-being. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 8(5), 141-144.
- Diener, E. (1984). Subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin*, 95, 542-575.
- Diener, E., & Seligman, M. E. . (2002). Very happy people. *Psychological science*, 13(1), 81-84.

- Diener, E., Emmons, R.A., Larsen, R.J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of personality assessment*, 49(1), 71-75.
- Diener, E., Larsen, R. J., & Emmons, R. A. (1984). Person× Situation interactions: Choice of situations and congruence response models. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 47(3), 580.
- Diener, E., Napa Scollon, C., & Lucas, R. E. (2003). The evolving concept of subjective well-being: The multifaceted nature of happiness. *Advances in cell aging and gerontology*, 15, 187-219.
- Ellison, C. G. (1990). Family ties, friendships, and subjective well-being among Black Americans. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 298-310.
- Emmons, R. A, Diener, E., & Larsen, R. J. (1986). Choice and avoidance of everyday situations and affect congruence: Two models of reciprocal interactionism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(4), 815.
- Ernst, J. M., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2000). Lonely hearts: Psychological perspectives on loneliness. *Applied and Preventive Psychology*, 8(1), 1-22.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1992). The development of markers for the Big-Five factor structure. *Psychological assessment*, 4(1), 26.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1999). A broad-bandwidth, public domain, personality inventory measuring the lower-level facets of several five-factor models. *Personality psychology in Europe*, 7, 7-28.
- Hawkley, L. C., Burleson, M. H., Berntson, G. G., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2003).

- Loneliness in everyday life: cardiovascular activity, psychosocial context, and health behaviors. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 85(1), 105.
- Hawkley, L. C., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2010). Loneliness matters: a theoretical and empirical review of consequences and mechanisms. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine*, 40(2), 218-227.
- Headey, B., & Veenhoven, R. (1989). Does happiness induce a rosy outlook? In R. Veenhoven (Ed.), *How harmful is happiness? Consequences of enjoying life or not* (p. 106-127). The Netherlands: Universitaire Pers Rotterdam.
- Heider, F. (1946). Attitudes and cognitive organization. *The Journal of psychology*, 21(1), 107-112.
- Helliwell, J.F. (2003). How's life? Combining individual and national variables to explain subjective well-being. *Economic Modelling*, 20(2), 331-360.
- Helliwell, J.F. (2006). Well-Being, Social Capital and Public Policy: What's New?*. *The Economic Journal*, 116(510), C34-C45.
- Helliwell, J.F., & Putnam, R.D. (2004). The social context of well-being. *Philosophical Transactions- Royal society of London series B biological sciences*, 359, 1435-1446.
- Holder, M.D., & Coleman, B. (2009). The contribution of social relationships to children's happiness. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 10(3), 329-349.
- Judge, T.A., & Higgins, C.A. (1998). Affective disposition and the letter of

- reference. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 75(3), 207-221.
- Kahneman, D., Krueger, A. B., Schkade, D.A., Schwarz, N., & Stone, A.A. (2004). A survey method for characterizing daily life experience: The day reconstruction method. *Science*, 306(5702), 1776-1780.
- Kasser, T. (2003). *The high price of materialism*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Kasser, T., Ryan, R.M., Couchman, C.E., & Sheldon, K.M. (2004). Materialistic values: Their causes and consequences. In T. Kasser & A.D. Kanner (Eds.), *Psychology and consumer culture: The struggle for a good life in a materialistic world* (pp. 11–28). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Keyes, C. L. M., Shmotkin, D., & Ryff, C. D. (2002). Optimizing well-being: the empirical encounter of two traditions. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 82(6), 1007.
- Killingsworth, M. A., & Gilbert, D. T. (2010). A wandering mind is an unhappy mind. *Science*, 330(6006), 932-932.
- Lucas, R. E., Clark, A. E., Georgellis, Y., & Diener, E. (2003). Reexamining adaptation and the set point model of happiness: reactions to changes in marital status. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 84(3), 527.
- Lucas, R. E., Le, K., & Dyrenforth, P. S. (2008). Explaining the extraversion/positive affect relation: Sociability cannot account for

- extraverts' greater happiness. *Journal of personality*, 76(3), 385-414.
- Lyubomirsky, S. (2001). Why are some people happier than others? The role of cognitive and motivational processes in well-being. *American Psychologist*, 56(3), 239.
- Lyubomirsky, S., King, L., & Diener, E. (2005). The benefits of frequent positive affect: does happiness lead to success? *Psychological bulletin*, 131(6), 803.
- Lyubomirsky, S., & Tucker, K. L. (1998). Implications of individual differences in subjective happiness for perceiving, interpreting, and thinking about life events. *Motivation and emotion*, 22(2), 155-186.
- Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological review*, 98(2), 224.
- Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological review*, 50(4), 370.
- Mastekaasa, A. (1994). Marital status, distress, and well-being: An international comparison. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 25(2), 183-205.
- Myers, D. G. (2000). The funds, friends, and faith of happy people. *American Psychologist; American Psychologist*, 55(1), 56.
- Myers, D. G., & Diener, E. (1995). Who is happy? *Psychological science*, 6(1), 10-19.
- Pavot, W., Diener, E., & Fujita, F. (1990). Extraversion and happiness. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 11(12), 1299-1306.

- Powdthavee, N. (2008). Putting a price tag on friends, relatives, and neighbours: Using surveys of life satisfaction to value social relationships. *Journal of Socio-Economics*, 37(4), 1459-1480.
- Powdthavee, N. (2009). I can't smile without you: Spousal correlation in life satisfaction. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 30(4), 675-689.
- Raghubir, P. (2006). An information processing review of the subjective value of money and prices. *Journal of Business Research*, 59(10), 1053-1062.
- Reis, H. T., Sheldon, K. M., Gable, S. L., Roscoe, J., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). Daily well-being: The role of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26(4), 419-435.
- Robinson, M. D., & Kirkeby, B. S. (2005). Happiness as a belief system: Individual differences and priming in emotion judgments. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 31(8), 1134-1144.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Annual review of psychology*, 52(1), 141-166.
- Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 57(6), 1069.
- Ryff, C. D., & Singer, B. H. (2008). Know thyself and become what you are: A eudaimonic approach to psychological well-being. *Journal of Happiness*

- Studies*, 9(1), 13-39.
- Schwartz, S. H., & Bilsky, W. (1987). Toward a universal psychological structure of human values. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 53(3), 550.
- Scott, L.M., Kottmann, J., Fuller, A., Thomas, J.K., & Bagno, C. (2006). MasterCard Roundtable: The "Priceless" Campaign. *Advertising & Society Review*, 7(1).
- Sheldon, K. M., & Elliot, A. J. (1999). Goal striving, need satisfaction, and longitudinal well-being: the self-concordance model. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 76(3), 482.
- Sheldon, K. M., Elliot, A. J., Kim, Y., & Kasser, T. (2001). What is satisfying about satisfying events? Testing 10 candidate psychological needs. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 80(2), 325.
- Sul, S., Kim, J., & Choi, I. (2012). Subjective Well-Being and Hedonic Editing: How Happy People Maximize Joint Outcomes of Loss and Gain. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 1-22.
- Sul, S., Kim, J., & Choi, I. (2013). Subjective well-being and hedonic editing in daily life: Are happy people better decision makers? *Submitted*.
- Triandis, H. C. (1979). Values, attitudes, and interpersonal behavior. In H. Howe & M. Page (Eds.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation*, (p. 195-260). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Triandis, H. C. (1995). *Individualism & collectivism*. Boulder, CO: Westview

- Press.
- Tsai, J. L. (2007). Ideal affect: Cultural causes and behavioral consequences. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 2*(3), 242-259.
- Ueno, K. (2005). The effects of friendship networks on adolescent depressive symptoms. *Social Science Research, 34*(3), 484-510.
- Veenhoven, R. (1984). *Conditions of happiness*. Springer.
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., McIntyre, C. W., & Hamaker, S. (1992). Affect, personality, and social activity. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 63*(6), 1011.
- Watson, D., Clark, L.A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: the PANAS scales. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 54*(6), 1063.
- Wood, W., Rhodes, N., & Whelan, M. (1989). Sex differences in positive well-being: A consideration of emotional style and marital status. *Psychological Bulletin, 106*(2), 249.
- Wright, N.D., & Larsen, V. (1993). Materialism and life satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction, and Complaining Behavior, 6*, 158-165.

Appendix A-1: Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) in Korean

아래의 글을 읽고, 평소에 여러분이 스스로의 삶에 대해 생각하는 것과 일치하는 정도에 가장 가까운 곳에 표시해 주십시오.

문항	내 용	전혀 그렇지 않다							매우 많이 그렇다
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1	전반적으로 나의 삶은 내가 생각하는 이상적인 삶에	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2	나의 삶의 조건은 매우 훌륭하다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3	나는 나의 삶에 만족한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4	지금까지 살아오면서 나는 원했던 것들을 모두 얻었다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5	만약 다시 태어난다면, 지금 그대로 아무것도 변하지	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

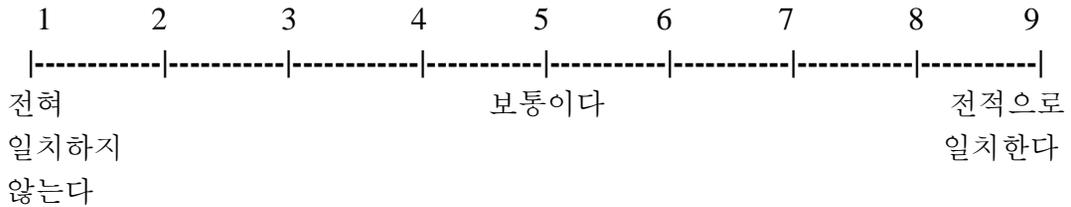
Appendix A-2: Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) in Korean

다음의 단어들은 감정이나 기분을 나타내는 것입니다. 각 단어를 읽고 현재를 포함한 최근 1개월 동안 당신이 느끼는 기분의 정도를 가장 잘 나타낸 곳에 표시해 주십시오.

문항	내 용	전혀 그렇지 않다	약간 그렇다	보통 이다	많이 그렇다	매우 많이 그렇다
1	흥미진진한	1	2	3	4	5
2	짜증난	1	2	3	4	5
3	피로운	1	2	3	4	5
4	정신이 맑게 깨어있는	1	2	3	4	5
5	신나는	1	2	3	4	5
6	부끄러운	1	2	3	4	5
7	화난	1	2	3	4	5
8	감명받은	1	2	3	4	5
9	강인한	1	2	3	4	5
10	불안한	1	2	3	4	5
11	죄책감 드는	1	2	3	4	5
12	단호한	1	2	3	4	5
13	겁에 질린	1	2	3	4	5
14	집중하는	1	2	3	4	5
15	적대적인	1	2	3	4	5
16	조바심 나는	1	2	3	4	5
17	열정적인	1	2	3	4	5
18	활기찬	1	2	3	4	5
19	자랑스러운	1	2	3	4	5
20	두려운	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix A-3: Psychological Well-Being Scale (PWB) in Korean

아래에 있는 글을 읽고, 평소에 여러분이 자신의 삶에 대해 가지고 있는 생각과 얼마나 일치하는지 아래의 9점 척도에 따라 해당하는 정도를 숫자로 ___에 적어 주십시오.



- _____ 1. 나에게 친밀한 관계들을 유지하는 것은 어렵고 좌절스런 일이었다.
- _____ 2. 사람들은 나를 잘 배풀고 나의 시간을 기꺼이 다른 사람과 나누는 사람이라고 할 것이다.
- _____ 3. 나는 따뜻하고 신뢰할 수 있는 관계를 많이 경험하지 못했다.
- _____ 4. 내 성격이 대부분 마음에 든다.
- _____ 5. 내 삶을 돌아볼 때, 대부분의 결과들에 대해 만족한다.
- _____ 6. 여러 면에서 내가 삶에서 성취한 것들에 실망감을 느낀다.
- _____ 7. 나는 강력한 의견을 가진 사람들에 의해 영향을 받는 편이다.
- _____ 8. 내 생각들이 다수의 의견과 다르다고 하더라도, 나는 내 의견에 대해 자신이 있다.
- _____ 9. 나는 다른 사람들이 중요하게 생각하는 가치들이 아니라, 내가 중요하다고 생각하는 것으로 나를 판단한다.
- _____ 10. 나에게 삶은 배움, 변화, 그리고 성장의 연속적인 과정이다.
- _____ 11. 나 자신과 세상에 대해 생각하는 방식을 바꾸는 계기가 될 수 있는 새로운 경험을 하는 것이 중요하다고 생각한다.
- _____ 12. 나는 내 인생에서 큰 발전을 이루거나 변화하도록 노력하는 것을 오래 전에 포기했다.
- _____ 13. 일상적인 삶의 요구들은 나를 지치게 한다.
- _____ 14. 대체로, 나는 내가 살아가는 상황을 책임지고 있다고 느낀다.
- _____ 15. 나는 일상적인 생활에서 많은 책임들을 꽤 잘 감당한다.
- _____ 16. 인생을 목적 없이 사는 사람들도 있지만, 나는 그런 사람이 아니다.
- _____ 17. 나는 오늘의 삶에 충실하며, 미래에 대해 많이 생각하지 않는다.
- _____ 18. 나는 때때로 인생에서 해야 할 모든 것을 다한 것 같다고 느낀다.

Appendix A-4: Extraversion items from the 50-item International Personality Item Pool Scale (IPIP) in Korean

아래 문항을 읽고 각 문항의 내용이 여러분의 평소 모습과 얼마나 일치하는지 표시하여 주십시오.

문항	내 용	전혀 그렇지 않다	대체로 그렇지 않다	보통 이다	대체로 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1	나는 모임에서 분위기를 주도하는 인물이다.	1	2	3	4	5
6	여러 사람들 사이에서도 위축되지 않는다.	1	2	3	4	5
11	대화를 먼저 시작하는 편이다.	1	2	3	4	5
16	사교 모임에서 여러 다른 사람과 이야기를 나눈다.	1	2	3	4	5
21	다른 사람의 시선이 나에게 집중되는 것을 꺼려하지 않는다.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B-1: Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) in English

Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Indicate your agreement with each item by selecting the appropriate number on the scale.

Item	Contents	Strongly Disagree		Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly agree	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	The conditions of my life are excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I am satisfied with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix B-2: Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) in English

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer on the given scale. Indicate to what extent you have felt this way during the past month.

Item	Contents	Very slightly or not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
1	Interested	1	2	3	4	5
2	Irritable	1	2	3	4	5
3	Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
4	Alert	1	2	3	4	5
5	Excited	1	2	3	4	5
6	Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
7	Upset	1	2	3	4	5
8	Inspired	1	2	3	4	5
9	Strong	1	2	3	4	5
10	Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
11	Guilty	1	2	3	4	5
12	Determined	1	2	3	4	5
13	Scared	1	2	3	4	5
14	Attentive	1	2	3	4	5
15	Hostile	1	2	3	4	5
16	Jittery	1	2	3	4	5
17	Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
18	Active	1	2	3	4	5
19	Proud	1	2	3	4	5
20	Afraid	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B-3: Psychological Well-Being Scale (PWB) in English

The following set of statements deals with how you might feel about yourself and your life. Please select the number that best describes the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
----- ----- -----			----- ----- -----			----- ----- -----		
Strongly Disagree			Neither Agree nor Disagree			Strongly Agree		

- _____ 1. Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me.
- _____ 2. People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others.
- _____ 3. I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others.
- _____ 4. I like most aspects of my personality.
- _____ 5. When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out.
- _____ 6. In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in my life.
- _____ 7. I tend to be influenced by people with strong opinions.
- _____ 8. I am not afraid to voice my opinions, even when they are in opposition to the opinions of most people.
- _____ 9. I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what others think is important.
- _____ 10. For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth.
- _____ 11. I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world.
- _____ 12. I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago.
- _____ 13. The demands of everyday life often get me down.
- _____ 14. In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.
- _____ 15. I am quite good at managing the many responsibilities of my daily life.
- _____ 16. Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them.
- _____ 17. I live one day at a time and don't really think about the future.
- _____ 18. I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life.

Appendix C-1: Items used in the Relationship Valuation Task of Study 1

Relationship	Event Type	Item
Friends	Common	자주 보는 친구들과 토요일에 술 마시고 놀기로 했다.
		친구와 저녁에 새로 생긴 유명한 맛 집 찾아가기로 했다.
	One-time	친구와 만나서 주말에 쇼핑 가기로 했다.
		친구가 해외로 유학 가게 되어서 몇 일 후에 송별회를 할 것이다.
Romantic Partner	Common	스케줄 맞추기 어려운 친구와 여름에 2 달간 유럽 배낭 여행을 가기로 했다.
		친구들과 함께 New Year's Eve 를 보내기로 했다.
	One-time	일 주일에 ~2-3 번 만나는 이성친구와 주말에 영화를 보러 가기로 했다.
		일 주일에 ~2-3 번 만나는 이성 친구와 저녁에 백화점에 쇼핑 가기로 했다.
Family	Common	이성 친구와의 1 주년 기념으로 주말에 이성 친구와 2 박 3 일 제주도를 가기로 했다.
		이성 친구와 크리스마스 이브에 콘서트를 보러 가기로 했다.
	One-time	부모님과 주말에 함께 식사 하기로 했다.
		주말에 새로 나온 영화를 가족과 함께 보러 가기로 했다.
Group	Common	부모님의 결혼 25 주년 기념으로 동남아시아로 가족여행을 가기로 했다.
		몇 년간 모이기 어려웠던 가족 모두가 만나서 가족 사진을 찍기로 했다.
	One-time	일 주일에 한 번 있는 동아리 모임에 이번 주에 참석 하기로 했다.
		수강하는 교양 과목 수업에서 같은 조에 있는 학생들과 식사 하기로 했다.
One-time	몇 년에 한 번 있는 고등학교 동창회에 참석 하기로 했다.	
	2 년에 한번 있는 과 동문들과의 모임에 참석 하기로 했다.	

Appendix C-2: Control and demographic variable items used in Study 1

Monthly spending: 평균적으로 한 달에 돈 얼마를 지출합니까? ____

Gender: 남/여

Age: (만으로): ____

Appendix C-3: Valuation Task of Study 2

On the next page, you will be presented with various activities. Please imagine that you will be engaging in each activity and think about how much you would value that experience. If you were to convert the value of each experience into a monetary sum, how much would it be? Please ascribe a monetary value to each experience (a higher monetary sum indicates greater value). There are no right or wrong answers so please write down the monetary sum that you subjectively think represents the value of each experience. When entering the monetary value of each experience, please use numbers only (exclude commas). The unit is in U.S. dollars.

If you were to convert the value of each experience into a monetary sum, how much would it be?

Solitary Activity Condition	
Shopping by yourself.	_____ USD
Hiking by yourself.	_____ USD
Watching a movie by yourself.	_____ USD
Going to a concert by yourself.	_____ USD
Going out to a bar by yourself.	_____ USD
Reading a book at a bookstore by yourself.	_____ USD
Eating out by yourself.	_____ USD
Checking out the songs of a new album by yourself.	_____ USD
Watching a TV show by yourself.	_____ USD
Working out by yourself.	_____ USD
Going out to a club by yourself.	_____ USD

Relational Activity Condition	
Shopping with a friend.	_____ USD
Hiking with a friend.	_____ USD
Watching a movie with a friend.	_____ USD
Going to a concert with a friend.	_____ USD
Going out to a bar with a friend.	_____ USD
Reading books at a bookstore with a friend.	_____ USD
Eating out with a friend.	_____ USD
Checking out the songs of a new album with a friend.	_____ USD
Watching a TV show with a friend.	_____ USD
Working out with a friend.	_____ USD
Going out to a club with a friend.	_____ USD

Appendix C-5: Daily Diary Task used in Study 3

어제를 떠올려 보십시오. 당신은 어제 무엇을, 누구와 함께 했습니까?

예:

새벽 2 시~3 시: 잠, 혼자

오전 11 시~12 시: 도서관에서 공부, 혼자

오후 12 시~1 시: 식당에서 점심식사, 친구와 함께

오후 1 시~2 시: 수업, 친구와 함께

이러한 형식으로 아래 시간표를 작성해 주십시오.

새벽 12시~1시 _____

오후 12시~1시 _____

새벽 1시~2시 _____

오후 1시~2시 _____

새벽 2시~3시 _____

오후 2시~3시 _____

새벽 3시~4시 _____

오후 3시~4시 _____

새벽 4시~5시 _____

오후 4시~5시 _____

새벽 5시~6시 _____

오후 5시~6시 _____

오전 6시~7시 _____

저녁 6시~7시 _____

오전 7시~8시 _____

저녁 7시~8시 _____

오전 8시~9시 _____

저녁 8시~9시 _____

오전 9시~10시 _____

밤 9시~10시 _____

오전 10시~11시 _____

밤 10시~11시 _____

오전 11시~12시 _____

밤 11시~12시 _____

국문 초록

행복과 인간관계의 금전적 가치 평가

서울대학교 사회과학 대학원

심리학과 사회심리 전공

김현지

행복에 관한 다양한 문헌들은 좋은 사회적 관계가 행복에 있어 필수적인 요소이며, 행복한 사람일수록 더 사회적인 경향을 보인다는 사실을 밝혀왔다. 하지만, 사람들이 관계적 경험에 대해 얼마나 가치를 두는지에 대한 연구는 이루어진 바 없다. 이에 본 연구는 사람들의 행복 수준과 사람들이 대인 관계적-사회적 경험에 두는 가치 정도의 관계에 대해 탐구하였다. 실험 1에서, 사람들은 (한국 대학생들은) 돈을 얼마나 받아야 다양한 관계적 경험들을 포기할 수 있는지에 대해 응답하였다. 그 결과, 행복한 사람일수록 관계적 경험에 더 많은 가치를 부여한다는 사실이 밝혀졌다. 실험 2는 대안 가설을 배제시키고 실험 1 결과의 일반화 가능성을 검토하기 위해 진행되었다. 사람들은 (미국 성인들은) 혼

자 하는 활동(혼자인 조건)과 친구와 함께 하는 활동(관계적 조건)에 대해 금전적 가치를 매겼다. 그 결과, 관계적 조건에서는 행복한 사람일수록 활동에 대한 금전적 가치를 높게 매겼지만, 혼자인 조건에서는 그러한 양상이 나타나지 않았다. 이 결과를 통해 실험 1의 결과가 행복한 사람일수록 활동에 몰입하는 것을 더 좋아하기 때문에 나타난 것이라는 대안 가설이 배제되었고, 행복한 사람일수록 관계를 더 중요시 여기고 있다는 사실이 밝혀졌다. 또한, 이러한 경향은 학생과 성인 집단에서, 그리고 집단주의 문화와 개인주의 문화에서 나타나는 것이 확인 되었다. 실험 3에서는, 사람들이 전 날에 어떠한 활동을 누구와 함께 얼마나 했는지에 대해 응답하였다. 그 결과, 행복한 사람일수록 타인과 함께 하는 활동에 더 많은 시간을 보낸 것으로 밝혀졌다. 종합 논의에서는 이 결과들이 갖는 함의에 대한 논의가 이루어진다.

주요어: 행복, 안녕감, 인간관계, 가치 평가, 금전적 가치, 돈

학번: 2012-22494