

AN EXAMINATION OF PROFESSIONAL PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT
FROM A WORK/NONWORK PERSPECTIVE

by

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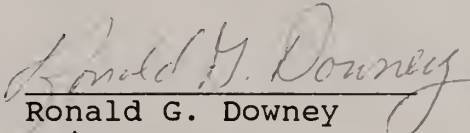
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AN EXAMINATION OF PROFESSIONAL PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT

FROM A WORK/NONWORK PERSPECTIVE

This research project was an examination of professional-level part-time employment. The introductory section is divided into four major parts. The first of these parts provides a summary of what is known about part-time employment, most of which is based on research with nonprofessional samples of workers.

The second section is concerned with nontraditional family forms. The growing prevalence of nontraditional families is causing increased pressure on organizations to provide nontraditional work opportunities. Research on dual-career families is reviewed in this section. Work with dual-career families has produced the realization that the amount of time spent at work is a central issue, and that we may need to reexamine some long-held tenets governing the way work is structured. This research is also germane because much of it has involved men and women who work in the kinds of professional-level, all-or-nothing jobs that have traditionally not offered part-time work opportunities. The absence of professional part-time work options has been seen as the greatest obstacle faced by dual-career and other nontraditional families in their struggle to balance work and family obligations.

In the third section, research and theory on the ways in which work and nonwork spheres of life relate to one another is reviewed. This body of literature provides a broad framework in which to study part-time work, because the amount of time spent at work is a key element in the balance (or lack thereof) that is achieved between work and life outside of work.

The fourth section includes the statement of purpose, and the hypotheses that guided the research. The study was primarily exploratory in nature, because there has been little prior research on part-time employment upon which to base hypotheses.

Part-time employment

The demographics of part-time employment have been extensively documented, and examination of these demographics reveals that the part-time workforce does differ from the full-time workforce in terms of demographic composition. Much less attention has been paid to the job attitudes of part-time workers, and much less is known about the nature of attitudinal differences between part- and full-timers.

Demographics of part-time employment

The demographics that distinguish part-time workers from full-time workers indicate that two-thirds of part-time workers are women, and 47% of the part-time workforce is

under 25 years old (Nardone, 1985). Part-time jobs are concentrated in the service and retail industries, and are generally lower-level jobs; however, part-time professional employment is expanding (McCarthy, 1987). This expansion may, in time, change the demographic picture of the part-time workforce. In 1987, nearly 20 million people worked part-time (defined by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as less than 35 hours per week), but only approximately 8% of all workers had year-round part-time jobs (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1988). The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimated that 17% of the workforce in 1985 were people who voluntarily worked 35 or fewer hours per week (Nardone, 1985). The average number of hours worked per week by people classified as part-time was 18. One-third of all women who worked were classified as part-time; only one-eighth of working men were employed part-time.

Permanent part-time employment expanded during the 1950s and 1960s at a rate twice as fast as the expansion of the overall labor force (Nollen & Martin, 1978); the number of full-time workers increased approximately 3.7% between 1968 and 1985, while the number of part-time workers increased 7.5% (Nardone, 1985). The time pattern of work is most often part-day, but many part-time workers also work full days for part of the week or month, work minishifts, or participate in job-sharing arrangements. Many firms (over two-thirds of those surveyed by Nollen) do have permanent

part-time employees, usually in office and clerical jobs, but they generally have only a few such employees, constituting, in most cases, between 2 to 7 percent of their work force (Nollen, 1982).

Attitudes of part-time workers

Beyond demographics, little is known about the differences between part- and full-time workers. Researchers who have included both part- and full-time workers in their samples, but have not performed separate analyses for the two groups, may have neglected an important variable if these workers do differ in any systematic way. For example, Bateman & Strasser (1983) surveyed full- and part-time nurses, but did not distinguish between them in their analyses, and did not attempt to assess their similarities or differences.

There is a great deal of nonempirical evidence, based primarily on typical part-timers in lower-level jobs, that part-timers are perceived and treated less favorably than full-timers by the organizations that employ them. Part-time employees are stereotypically seen as less serious about work, as less committed to and involved in their jobs and their organizations (Gannon & Nothorn, 1971; Nollen, Eddy, & Martin, 1978; McCarthy, 1987). Part-timers generally receive less pay per unit of time spent working than do full-timers (Simpson, 1986), and are often excluded from participation in fringe benefit plans. These

conditions create a "hostile environment" (Knight & Downey, 1989, p. 3) in which part-timers must work. No research was found which examined whether this hostile environment also exists for professional-level part-timers, but it seems likely that professional part-timers may be even more severely penalized for their failure to meet expectations in their professions.

Given the differences in the ways organizations treat part- and full-timers, it seems logical to assume that part- and full-timers may differ in their job attitudes, but no consistent findings have yet emerged from the research. The few studies that have been done are inconclusive, and have been limited to samples of workers in lower-level jobs such as supermarket checker (Gannon & Nothorn, 1971), retail sales (Hom, 1979), or fast-food workers (Knight & Downey, 1989).

The research to date has focused primarily on the attitude of job satisfaction, and has suggested that differences that go beyond the well-documented demographic ones may indeed exist between part- and full-time workers. Logan, O'Reilly and Roberts (1973) conducted research with full- and part-time hospital employees, and found that patterns of satisfaction differed between these groups, with part-time workers defining their work solely in terms of satisfaction with coworkers, an extrinsic factor. Their findings led them to conclude that part-time workers were

not motivated by intrinsic work elements. This research included part-time professionals (nurses) in the sample, but the analyses did not separate them from part-time aides and clerical personnel, obscuring any differences that may have existed between professional and non-professional employees.

Miller and Terborg (1979) found that part-time workers were less satisfied in general, and were specifically dissatisfied with their work and benefits. Surprisingly, part-timers were not significantly less satisfied than full-timers with pay and advancement potential, perhaps because their expectations regarding these facets of work were low.

Hall and Gordon (1973) found that part-time workers reported less satisfaction with their careers, as measured by one question assessing overall satisfaction. Hall and Gordon also found that married women who worked part-time reported more salient roles and more conflict between roles, especially home-related conflict, than married women who worked full-time, which is, at first glance, a surprising finding. It seems unlikely that part-time work itself caused the higher levels of conflict. Perhaps women in Hall and Gordon's study who experienced a high level of perceived (or actual) conflict between home and work elected to work part-time because of the conflict. This interpretation has been supported in a recent article by Knight, Allen, and Downey (1989), who suggested that people may choose part-

time employment because they have multiple commitments in their lives which preclude full-time work.

In contradiction to Hall & Gordon (1973), Staines & Pleck (1983) found that working long hours predicted increases in work-family conflict, with the effect being significantly stronger among working wives than working husbands. These contradictory findings may be due to differences in the methodology with which conflict was measured, or to differences in the composition of the samples surveyed (Hall and Gordon surveyed college-educated women who may have been financially able to work part-time in response to the conflict which they experienced), or to the fact that a decade of time separated the two studies. The advocates of part-time work claim that reduced work/home conflict will be one of its benefits, but research has not yet settled this issue.

Recent work by Knight and Downey (1989) has illuminated some of the confusion and inconsistency surrounding research on part-time employment by considering subgroups of part-time employees. Differences in job attitudes among subgroups of part-timers were found, with involuntary part-timers (those desiring full-time work) having particularly unfavorable job attitudes. Overall, part-timers were found to have less favorable job attitudes than full-timers. Knight and Downey also found that control over one's work schedule was an important element of the job to part-timers.

Their results suggest that people may choose part-time work due to multiple commitments, and conflicts between work and life outside work. When these conflicts are exacerbated by too many hours at work or an inflexible work schedule, negative job attitudes may result. As with most research on part-time employment, Knight and Downey utilized a nonprofessional sample of workers.

Nontraditional families

The growing prevalence of nontraditional families has led to a need for change in the ways we structure and schedule work. Work ethic beliefs have been seen as barriers standing in the way of alternative work opportunities such as part-time employment, particularly at the professional level. Despite barriers, professional part-time employment is expanding. Research on the dual-career family pattern has highlighted the need for alternative ways to work.

Family structure and part-time work

The prevailing pattern of work in our society is based on a traditional family structure which includes a hard-working male breadwinner who puts work first, and an economically dependent, full-time wife and homemaker who puts family first, and is available to perform support functions for her husband. It has been abundantly noted that such families are rapidly becoming a minority

(Harriman, 1982; Yogev & Brett, 1985), and recognition is growing that the model of work based on this family form, which mandates a minimum of 40 rigidly scheduled hours of work per week, may be dysfunctional to people, and ultimately, to organizations.

The traditional family is being replaced by a multiplicity of family forms. Today's workers live in a variety of situations, and many lack partners who assume the traditional supporting roles. In response to this diversity, new patterns of work are appearing and gaining acceptance. Innovations such as flextime, work sharing, compressed workweeks, and permanent part-time employment are increasingly common. Interest in new working patterns has been evidenced by many diverse sectors of our society. Business, labor, and government organizations have all sponsored various national and regional conferences on alternative work patterns. An emerging literature attests to the interest of academic researchers in these trends. Advocacy groups representing such diverse segments of the population as women, retirees, environmentalists, and the handicapped have actively promoted alternative work opportunities (Nollen, 1982).

Part-time employment is unique among the emerging alternative work patterns. Flextime, work sharing, and compressed workweeks are all predicated on a traditional full-time commitment to work, on the idea that a traditional

job must be filled for 40 or more hours, even if it requires, as in work sharing, two workers to fill it. These work restructurings, particularly flextime, have received considerable research attention. In contrast, part-time employment is predicated on less than the 40 hour week, and has been largely ignored by researchers, perhaps because part-time work has generally been associated with student workers, housewives, menial jobs and/or marginal employment settings.

Voluntary, permanent part-time employment which is career-oriented and encompasses a variety of job levels in a variety of fields is the most radical of the work structurings. It requires a revolutionary change in the way we think about work. Yet, researchers who have extensively studied nontraditional families (Gronseth, 1978; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976) have gradually come to the conclusion that to make these life patterns feasible and fulfilling for large numbers of families, it is necessary to breach the cultural and personal barriers to reduced work time:

We now emphasize the importance of a factor to which we gave relatively minor attention earlier -- namely, the importance of decreasing the amount of time spent at work outside the home by men and women. We feel that the solution of issues in this area is the node of the contemporary social change process, and at present

constitutes a barrier to further change (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976, p. 18).

Work ethic beliefs as barriers to change

The idea of part-time work in the context of a serious career pursuit seems a contradiction in terms, perhaps even a little sinful. The Protestant work ethic stands as a barrier to the kind of sweeping social change envisioned by Rapoport and Rapoport. The Protestant ethic originally saw work as the route to divine salvation; even in its currently secularized form, a belief in the intrinsic value of hard work pervades our culture (Spence, 1985). Work ethic beliefs have generally been conceptualized by psychologists as comprising a fairly stable personality dimension (Gough, 1985; Shamir, 1986) which is thought to influence job attitudes (Blood, 1969). There is evidence that work ethic beliefs also have implications that extend far beyond work behavior. Research suggests that choices of types of leisure activities are related to work ethic beliefs (Shamir, 1985). Tang and Baumeister (1984) demonstrated that people who endorsed the Protestant work ethic spent more free-choice time performing a task when it was labeled as "work" than when the same task was labeled as "leisure." Although the impact of the work ethic seems to extend beyond work, the role which it plays in the balance that is achieved between work and nonwork has not been established.

Despite the apparent prevalence of strong personal work ethic beliefs, many people today are willing and eager to voluntarily reduce time spent at work outside the home, even if it means concomitant reductions in pay (Harriman, 1982); however, the personal barriers may be more easily overcome than the societal barriers. Part-time work opportunities remain extremely limited for people who wish to pursue and maintain serious careers in high-level jobs. There is, however, evidence that this situation is changing.

The growth in professional part-time employment

The current growth in part-time employment encompasses work that is not temporary or menial (McCarthy, 1987). Pressure from the workforce is leading to an increase in professional part-time opportunities. A recent feature article in the Wall Street Journal observed that, "unlike the past, when temporary and part-time workers were mostly manual laborers, secretaries and salesclerks, the fastest-growing group today is in the white-collar world as managers, professionals and technical employees" (McCarthy, 1987, p.1). The article examined the part-time professional employment of a medical doctor, a computer systems analyst, a marketing consultant, and a public relations specialist. It was noted that many part-time professionals are maintaining their part-time status permanently, making them an entrenched new part of the labor force.

When professional part-time opportunities have been made available, the response of employees has been overwhelmingly positive. The federal government has been in the forefront of the movement to provide part-time career opportunities. The Federal Employees Part-Time Career Employment Act of 1978 required government agencies to establish part-time hiring programs and to provide part-time employees with fringe benefits proportional to the number of hours worked. The number of permanent part-time employees in these agencies increased by almost 10,000 during the first thirty months following enactment of the law. Many of these were full-time federal employees who converted to part-time employment (Nollen & Martin, 1978).

Research with dual-career families

"The blurring of the boundaries between work and family is highlighted by increasing numbers of dual-career and dual-earner couples (many with children) in the work force" (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1986, p. 149). Since both adult members of dual wage-earner families can logically be seen as under increased pressure to juggle work concerns with their lives outside of work, patterns of work/nonwork commitment in men and women may become increasingly similar. In support of this contention, Gould and Werbel (1983) found that both job involvement and organizational identification were lower among male subjects who had employed spouses than among male subjects whose spouses were not employed. Schein

(1978) proposed that this lowered involvement was the result of accommodation, a conscious decision to subordinate work to family demands in order to maintain a satisfactory quality of life. It behooves organizations to develop flexibility in dealing with these employees, whether male or female, in order to maintain their job and organizational involvement. Interestingly, the Gould and Werbel study found that when financial need was increased, as is the case when families have children, job involvement and organizational identification were also increased.

Past research has demonstrated that employment and mental health are positively correlated in married women, but that wives' employment is negatively associated with the mental health of their husbands (Kessler & McRae, 1982). It should be noted that, although it is generally assumed that wives' employment leads to lower job and life satisfaction in husbands, reverse or reciprocal directions of causality cannot be ruled out (Staines, Pottick, & Fudge, 1986). The obvious hypothesis to explain the lowered satisfaction of husbands of working wives is the loss of the wife's at-home support, and the necessity for the husband to accommodate by assuming more childcare and housekeeping duties; however, research does not bear this out (Kessler & McRae, 1982; Staines et. al., 1986). Staines and his colleagues found that the husbands of working wives feel less adequate as breadwinners than the husbands of housewives, which leads

(making a presumption of direction of causality) to lowered job satisfaction, and thus to lowered life satisfaction. The authors concluded that the occupational domain may be the key to understanding the negative relationship between wives' employment and husbands' mental health. The work ethic as it applies to men in our culture decrees that men must work hard and be able to adequately support their families, an attitude that seems outmoded and dysfunctional in a world in which it is becoming increasingly difficult for the majority of families to live on one income. Yogev and Brett (1985) demonstrated that, among dual-, but not single-earner couples, "the work and family role behavior and attitudes of one spouse are systematically related to the work and family role behavior of the other spouse" (p. 766). The balance between work and nonwork that is maintained by an individual seems to have effects that extend far beyond the individual.

It has generally been assumed that women will give priority to family over occupational roles, reflecting an imbalance in the direction of nonwork (Kaufman & Feters, 1980; London, Crandall, & Seals, 1977), and this has been seen as detracting from the desirability of hiring women. Graddick and Farr (1983), in a study of professionals in scientific disciplines, found that men and women did not differ in their levels of job involvement, perhaps because of the professional nature of the jobs studied, but that

women reported significantly less commitment to their organizations than men, and suffered more than men from perceived (based on actual?) inequities in the work environment, and from greater role conflict.

Beutell and Greenhaus (1983) found that the conflict between home and nonhome roles that was experienced by female college students was greater in women whose husbands held traditional sex-role attitudes. Because men who hold traditional attitudes may not offer as much actual domestic assistance to their wives as less traditionally-oriented men, the conflicts experienced by these women may be due to actual time constraints, in addition to the lack of psychological support. Women whose husbands hold supportive attitudes toward their wives' nonhome roles, but are nevertheless unable or unwilling to help with housekeeping and childcare responsibilities, may suffer the same sort of time-based conflict. It may be very frustrating for a woman to be encouraged to add roles, to be expected to pursue a career, but to receive no actual relief from other role requirements. Perhaps it is as important for a husband to actually do the dishes as it is to offer his wife psychological support and encouragement. An earlier study by Beutell and Greenhaus (1982) on this same sample of college women hints at this. They found that conflict is particularly strong for women married to men who are busy with their own career pursuits.

Not all research has found women reporting more conflict than men. Results of a 1977 Quality of Employment Survey, conducted by the Institute for Social Research, Ann Arbor, Michigan, revealed that conflict between work and family is perceived by one-third of the working population who live in families, but no significant differences were found between employed men and employed women (Pleck, Staines, & Lang, 1980; Staines & Pleck, 1983). The most frequent reason given for the experienced conflict was excessive or inconvenient hours of work.

Detailed case studies of families have revealed that actual conflicts between work and life outside of work are even greater than self-report measures reveal (Piotrkowski, 1979). People seem to conceive of work and home settings as less related than they actually are, and hence do not accurately perceive and report the connections and conflicts between them. Kanter (1977) has suggested that American capitalism has perpetuated a "myth of separate worlds" regarding work and nonwork, a myth to which most people adhere, and an assumption which has pervaded the social sciences. Capitalism's motivation for this separate-world myth, according to Kanter, is the perception of family loyalties as threatening to organizational loyalty. In industrial societies, "The worker was treated 'as if' he or she had no other loyalties, and the emphasis on individual

achievement made the family less important" (Piotrkowski, 1979, p.7). The "myth of separate worlds" seems to be fading under the realities of existence in dual career and other nontraditional families.

Work and nonwork theory and research

Restructured work patterns that would allow serious career pursuits on a part-time basis are important because, for many people, part-time work can foster the achievement of an optimum balance between work and nonwork spheres of life (Staines & Pleck, 1983). The very notion of part-time work forces the recognition that, in addition to work, there are other important things in life.

Why study nonwork?

By expanding its scope to include the study of nonwork, industrial psychology has attempted to remedy the parochialism of studying only one sphere of life (work) and relating everything to that. Even if the appropriate focus of industrial psychology remains the understanding of work behavior, understanding of nonwork behavior will surely enhance our understanding of work behavior. Two further reasons for studying work, nonwork and the relationships between them were proposed by Porter, Lawler, and Hackman (1975): (1) the belief that work and nonwork will become increasingly fused, and that by studying nonwork, we can begin to incorporate its beneficial aspects into work; and

(2) the belief that leisure time will increase in the society of the future, with correspondingly less time allotted to work. By studying work and nonwork, we may be able to help people use their free time to "leisure well" and their work time to "work well."

Perhaps the most compelling impetus for this broad area of study is the growing interest, as detailed in this paper, in innovative work schedules and career options. As men increasingly join the ranks of women in demanding work alternatives, the demands will assume an urgency and legitimacy that they do not currently enjoy. According to Nollen (1982, p. 4), who has extensively surveyed companies that have instituted alternative work schedules, "As options, new work schedules offer some economic gains to companies, and they offer some human gains to workers. Experiences from hundreds of companies demonstrate these possibilities."

As different types of work schedules (e.g. voluntary reduced work time, shorter work days, weeks, and years, compressed work time and flexitime, job sharing and flexible life planning) become more and more commonplace and viable for managers and professionals (Harriman, 1982) and for blue-collar workers (Nollen, 1982), it becomes mandatory to study the as-yet-unknown implications of these changing patterns for people, organizations, and families. The study of the relationships between work and nonwork clearly has

practical implications for enhancing personal development, and strengthening family and organizational functioning.

Next, we turn to an attempt to deal with just what is meant by work and nonwork. Difficulties with definitions have plagued research in this area of work.

Definitions of work and nonwork

Work and nonwork are terms that have been used in a variety of ways, and have eluded satisfactory definition. In its broadest sense, work has been defined as the opposite of rest (Parker, 1983). In a more personal sense, Harriman (1982) defined work as "...the set of meaningful activities by which an individual defines himself or herself. Work provides intrinsic rewards; it may or may not be undertaken for pay or other extrinsic rewards" (p. 12). Work can be distinguished from productivity -- an activity can fail to produce anything and still be work. Labor is defined as any activity necessary for maintaining life or livelihood, activity which assures survival (Harriman, 1982; Parker, 1983). Employment usually refers to a relationship wherein an employer hires an employee to labor for pay during set hours. Work, in an industrial society, usually refers to paid employment, to ways of earning livings. This arrangement makes it easy to distinguish working from non-working time, but some of the word's meaning is lost in this definition.

As the definitions in the preceding paragraph suggest, nonwork has generally been defined in terms of work, and is usually thought of as everything that's left over after work. Nonwork includes, but is not limited to, leisure, and in fact, often nonwork time is devoid of activities qualifying as leisure. A satisfactory definition of the many facets of nonwork is even more elusive than a satisfactory definition of work behavior. This presents a basic stumbling block in attempts to study nonwork activity, and, therefore, the interface between work and nonwork.

No matter how defined, the boundaries between work, leisure, family roles, nonwork duties and obligations, and maintenance activities (sleeping, brushing teeth, etc.) remain fluid. Cooking food may be perceived by one person as a required maintenance activity; for another it may be work in its broadest sense; for a parent, it may be part of the family role; for the gourmet, it may be leisure. Similarly, spending time with children could be perceived as the fulfilling of family responsibility, a required maintenance activity, as leisure and enjoyment, or as work.

Models of work/nonwork

Interest in this area has produced several models that have attempted to delineate the ways in which work and nonwork are related to each other. Three basic paradigms have been developed which describe possible relationships: (1) segmentation, in which work and nonwork are separate and

unrelated spheres; (2) generalization, in which work and nonwork spheres of life are positively related; and (3) compensation, in which deficiencies in one sphere are compensated for by activities in the other sphere. There have been many other schemes proposed that are expansions or reworkings of these three basic models, such as Parker's tripartite model and Marx's view of work as inherently alienating. A brief summary of these models follows.

Segmentation. Dubin's (1956) classic studies on the central life interests of male, blue-collar factory workers led him to a belief in a segmentalist hypothesis, which holds that experiences of workers in industrial societies are made up of essentially disconnected parts or segments, with the experiences in each segment remaining independent from experiences in the rest of the segments. Dubin believed that people may find it necessary to participate in spheres that are not important to them, and that feelings produced in one sphere are unrelated to feelings produced in other spheres. He developed a Central Life Inventory to measure central life interests, which he defined as "an expressed preference for a given locale or situation in carrying out an activity" (p. 132). He found that the majority of the workers in his sample were not job-oriented, although the work place was perceived as the most important formal organization in workers' lives. Only nine percent of

his sample perceived informal relationships on the job as central.

Dubin's methodology and conclusions have been criticized on several grounds (Kabanoff, 1980). His inventory involved a forced choice between mutually exclusive categories, requiring workers to choose between work or nonwork settings as preferred locations for various activities, a format which emphasizes segmentation. His approach, which was later modified, failed to account for people who had a balanced orientation toward work and nonwork, or for those who were alienated from both spheres.

Kabanoff (1980), in his review of work/nonwork literature, concluded that both empirical and commonsense support are lacking for a strict segmentalist approach. The more likely possibility is that work and nonwork are related in some holistic way, emphasizing the whole and the interdependence of its parts. This makes it difficult for psychologists interested in work behaviors and attitudes to continue to ignore the "nonwork" areas.

Generalization. Another classic study (Kornhauser, 1965) also focused on male blue-collar workers in Detroit automobile factories. His results suggested that the job was an important facet of a person's life, and that the higher the job level attained by a person, the better that person's mental health. Kornhauser's findings are cited as support of a generalization, or spillover, theory of work

and nonwork. Like Dubin's study, Kornhauser's work has been criticized on conceptual and methodological grounds (Kabanoff, 1980). More recently, studies of workers very different from Kornhauser's factory workers have also demonstrated moderate positive correlations between job satisfaction and mental health or life satisfaction (Clough, 1982; Gechman & Wiener, 1975).

Compensation. According to this principle, workers will seek activities outside of work that compensate for deficiencies in the work. If a person's job lacks excitement, that person should engage in exciting leisure activities, and conversely, if the job is very stimulating, the job-holder should seek peace and relaxation outside work.

Alienation. In the alienation school of thought, work relates to nonwork by both generalization (spillover) and compensation (Kabanoff, 1980). It claims roots in the thinking of Karl Marx, who saw workers as exploited, and work as alienating. Workers who are passive, uninvolved, and alienated at work generalize these modes of behavior to nonwork spheres. Compensation, known here as the principle of substitution, comes into play when workers seek satisfactions not provided by the alienating work; however, because the workers are generally alienated, the ways they choose to obtain satisfactions are often shallow and nonsatisfying.

Parker's tripartite model. Parker (1971, 1983)

proposed a theory based on three possible relationships between work and nonwork: extension (similar to generalization when the job has mostly positive aspects), opposition (similar to compensation when the job has mostly negative aspects), and neutrality (similar to segmentation). Parker's research, which was based on classifying the activities of a broad range of subjects, recognized that there is no one universal pattern that applies in all situations. Parker has attempted to establish with whom and under what circumstances different patterns prevail. He has acknowledged the criticism that drawing conclusions from the activities in which people actually engage has drawbacks. People do not always find either the work or the leisure that they optimally desire. The link between actual behavior and underlying motivations is complex. (This, of course, is not a new problem in psychological research.) In evaluating Parker's model, Kabanoff (1980) claimed that, "At this time, the empirical basis for Parker's model is untested and unproved" (p. 71).

Research on work/nonwork relationships

Research on work and nonwork has crossed disciplinary boundaries. A recent review (Tait, Padgett, & Baldwin, 1989) found "that studies relating job and life satisfaction have been reported in journals devoted to psychology,

sociology, counseling, management, leisure, and other disciplines" (p. 502).

In industrial psychology, work has been the primary focus of much of the research. Knowledge of extrawork concerns has been of interest for the light it may shed on work behavior. Implicit in most of the research and theorizing is the assumption that the causal linkages between work and nonwork are strongest in the direction of work to nonwork. This assumption was supported by the results of a longitudinal study by Orphen (1978), who used cross-lagged correlations to demonstrate that the direction of causality from work to nonwork satisfaction is stronger than causality in the opposite direction. It seems probable that this is because most work force commitments make large, inflexible demands on workers' time, necessitating that people fit their time for nonwork around work activities.

This emphasis on the importance of work, while holding true for the majority of workers, may not apply to everyone. It seems most valid for those who must, of necessity, participate in the work force. If the luxury of choice is available, decisions regarding work force participation may revolve around nonwork concerns. There is evidence that, at least for some groups of people in some situations, leisure is more important to quality of life than work (Dubin, 1956). Improving work life for nonwork-centered people may

have little effect on life satisfaction or organizational performance (Kabanoff, 1980).

In further support of the importance of nonwork, Cooke and Rousseau (1983) used a life-events checklist to research correlates of stress. They found results suggesting that nonwork-related events may be of greater importance than work-related events in bringing about psychophysiological changes requiring adaptive behavior in the individual. The correlation between work-related events and symptoms of strain was not high, although the authors recognized that the modest correlation might have been a function of the particular checklist used.

As the above studies suggest, it is necessary to recognize that there may be wide individual and situational differences that influence the way people respond to work and nonwork. Recent research has begun to incorporate this recognition. A study by Shaffer (1987) took an individual-differences approach to the relationship between work and life satisfaction. Shaffer demonstrated that different satisfaction profiles exist for different people, a possibility hinted at by the failure of early research efforts to find one universal pattern. Shaffer suggested that the relationship between work and nonwork is actually much stronger than previous research has been able to demonstrate; ignoring individual differences has obscured and diluted the findings of such research.

Early research, such as the studies by Dubin (1956) and Kornhauser (1965), focused exclusively on men. More recently, it has been recognized that women may have very different ways of relating the work and nonwork spheres of life (Clough, 1982). The common assumption that women are nonwork- or family-centered, with work satisfaction playing a relatively small role in life satisfaction, has received some empirical support (Brayfield, Wells, & Strate, 1957; London, Crandall, & Seals, 1977). Other research has not supported this contention, at least among well-educated professional women (Clough, 1982).

Tait et al. (1989) examined the gender issue in their recent meta-analysis of 34 studies reporting relationships between work and life satisfaction. They found that, although the correlation between job and life satisfaction "was substantially greater for men than for women in studies published prior to 1974, the difference disappeared in studies published after 1974 (Tait et al., 1989, p. 502). They proposed two causes that may be responsible for the observed increase in correlation between work and life satisfaction among women. First, demographic changes have lead to a larger and more heterogeneous female workforce. Second, there have been changes in our norms and attitudes regarding the importance of work in the lives of women. As Shaffer had earlier concluded, Tait and her colleagues also concluded that, for both men and women, the relationship

between work and life satisfaction is much stronger than previously thought (Rice, Near, & Hunt, 1980).

Part-time work and work/nonwork

There is a critical element implicit in work/nonwork issues that has yet to be specifically recognized and dealt with -- the element of time and how people allot and use time, which should be a core question in the study of work and nonwork. As mentioned above, work has generally been defined in this body of research as paid participation in the workplace. Because full-time work is the standard way to participate in the workforce, most of the research on the relationships between work and nonwork has focused unquestioningly on women and men who work full-time. The tenet that mandates 40+ hours of work per week as the starting point has not been questioned. The study of people who work part-time will begin to address this neglect, and add an important dimension to our knowledge of the relationship between nonwork and work.

Statement of purpose

Reducing the time it is necessary to spend at work has been proposed as the key to enhanced work/nonwork balance for large numbers of people. Men in our society have traditionally lead lives imbalanced in favor of work, while women have lead lives imbalanced in favor of nonwork concerns. The current trend toward nontraditional families

seemed initially to be an opportunity for both men and women to lead more optimally balanced lives. Instead, nontraditional patterns seem to have resulted in a situation in which both men and women are leading lives imbalanced in favor of work, with family and leisure activities losing out.

It is important to increase the available opportunities for both men and women to engage in career-level, professional part-time work during part or all of their working lives. We must also remedy the current relegation of part-time workers to second-class citizenship in the work force. Increased personal and organizational effectiveness are the promised outcomes of meeting these challenges. To begin, we must know more about career-level, professional part-time employment. Stereotypes about part-time workers, arising largely from the prevalence of part-time employment in lower-level jobs, present a hurdle which must be surmounted with knowledge. Thus, this study was designed to achieve two purposes. First, the study will attempt to determine if part-time workers who are engaged in professional work which requires advanced training differ in their attitudes from full-time workers engaged at the same level in the same profession. Past research using nonprofessional samples of workers (Gannon & Nothorn, 1971; Logan, o'Reilly & Roberts, 1973) would suggest that part-time workers' attitudes will differ, but the results of

the limited amount of empirical research to date are not consistent (Rotchford & Roberts, 1982), and may not generalize to professional samples. Second, the study will add to our knowledge concerning the models of work and nonwork.

The study is primarily exploratory in nature; there is little in the literature upon which to base hypotheses. It is unlikely that past research findings can be generalized from part-time workers in lower level jobs to those in professional jobs. Because part-time nurses are professional-level workers, it is hypothesized that they will not differ significantly from nurses working full-time on job involvement and endorsement of work ethic beliefs; however, due to perceived or actual discrimination against part-time workers in terms of pay, status, and working conditions, it is hypothesized that organizational commitment and job satisfaction will be lower among part-time than among full-time nurses. It is also hypothesized that nurses working part-time will differ from nurses working full-time on indices of work/nonwork balance, such as measures of interrole conflict, life satisfaction, and time boundaries between work and nonwork. It is further hypothesized that the presence of children in the home will make work/nonwork balance more difficult to achieve, and this will be reflected in increased interrole conflict and decreased life satisfaction among those with children.

Method

Subjects and procedures

Subjects were 441 nurses who responded to a survey questionnaire (see Appendix A) which was distributed to all registered nurses (R.N.s) and licensed practical nurses (L.P.N.s) on the staffs of three hospitals located in the midwest. The survey was self-administered, and was returned in postage-paid envelopes provided by the researcher; pilot work indicated that the time required to complete the survey ranged from 30 to 75 minutes. Respondents were promised confidentiality.

The return rate for hospital A (91 surveys distributed) was 44 percent, the return rate for hospital B (129 surveys distributed) was 50 percent, and the return rate for Hospital C (approximately 1,000 surveys distributed) was 33 percent. The differences among hospitals in return rates may be due to the more personalized methods of survey distribution which were possible in the two smaller hospitals, and also to the follow-up memos which were sent in the smaller hospitals, encouraging people who had not already responded to do so.

The approximate overall return rate was 36 percent. The exact return rate cannot be determined because an unknown number of surveys were distributed twice to nurses who were in an "on-call" pool that is shared by two of the hospitals surveyed. Thus, the actual return rate, if known,

would be somewhat higher than 36 percent. It is worth noting that the overwhelming majority of respondents were R.N.s -- only 34 L.P.N.s returned surveys. This low return rate among L.P.N.s substantially reduced the overall return rate, which would have been much higher had the survey distribution been limited to registered nurses.

The mean age of the respondents was 35.7 years, and 95 percent were female. The length of time that respondents had worked in the nursing profession ranged from one year to 41 years, with an average of 10.9 years; the average tenure in current position ranged from three months to 25 years, with an average of 4.1 years. A summary of other demographic information can be found in Table 1.

Instruments

The following measures were included in the survey:

Organizational commitment. (See items 1-15, Section I, Appendix A.) Organizational commitment was defined by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) as a belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values, a willingness to exert effort toward those goals, and a desire to maintain organizational membership. This was measured using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), a 15-item scale developed by Mowday et. al., which measures affective commitment to the organization. This type of commitment has been positively correlated with indices of job

Table 1

Summary of Responses to Section II of the Questionnaire *

| <u>Item #</u> | <u>Item categories</u> | <u>Number of respondents in category</u> | <u>Percent of total responses to the item</u> |
|---------------|--|--|---|
| 2 | ---Level of education: | | |
| | 1 year vocational training | 32 | 7.4 |
| | 2 year Associate degree | 77 | 17.8 |
| | 3 year diploma | 119 | 27.5 |
| | 4 year Bachelor of Science | 187 | 43.2 |
| | Master of Science, Ph.D., or other | 18 | 4.2 |
| 3 | ---Licensure status: | | |
| | Registered Nurse (R.N.) | 399 | 92.1 |
| | Licensed Practical Nurse (L.P.N.) or other | 34 | 7.9 |
| 4 | ---Position held: | | |
| | Staff nurse, shift supervisor | 374 | 87.4 |
| | Head nurse, Director of Nursing | 28 | 6.5 |
| | Clinical specialist, in-service education, or other | 26 | 6.1 |
| 6 | ---Supervisory responsibilities: | | |
| | Number who supervise other people | 155 | 36.0 |
| 8 | ---Other jobs: | | |
| | Respondents who currently hold more than one job | 63 | 14.7 |
| 9 | ---Marital status: | | |
| | Number who were married | 326 | 75.5 |
| 10 | ---Presence of children in the home: | | |
| | Number with no children living at home | 164 | 38.2 |
| | Number with one or more children living at home | 265 | 61.7 |
| 11 | --- Sole support of household: | | |
| | Number who were sole support of household | 130 | 30.1 |

Continued on next page

Table 1 (continued)

| <u>Item #</u> | <u>Item categories</u> | <u>Number of respondents in category</u> | <u>Percent of total responses to the item</u> |
|---------------|---|--|---|
| 12 --- | Motivation for working: | | |
| | Working because need money | 327 | 76.4 |
| | Working for extra money | 60 | 14.0 |
| | Working for enjoyment | 41 | 9.6 |
| 13 --- | Variety in work schedule: | | |
| | Work schedule same each week | 308 | 71.8 |
| | Work schedule different each week | 121 | 28.2 |
| 14 --- | Shift: | | |
| | Work day shift | 204 | 47.0 |
| | Work evening, night, other shift | 230 | 53.0 |
| 15 --- | Satisfaction with shift: | | |
| | Satisfied with shift | 366 | 84.3 |
| | Don't have a shift preference | 12 | 2.8 |
| | Dissatisfied with shift | 56 | 12.9 |
| 16 --- | Satisfaction with fringe benefits: | | |
| | Very satisfied | 78 | 18.2 |
| | Slightly satisfied | 136 | 31.7 |
| | Don't know | 17 | 4.0 |
| | Slightly dissatisfied | 121 | 28.2 |
| | Very dissatisfied | 77 | 17.9 |
| 17 --- | Control over schedule: | | |
| | No control over schedule | 54 | 12.5 |
| | Some control over schedule | 269 | 62.1 |
| | Lot of control over schedule | 110 | 25.4 |
| 18 --- | Self-reported status: | | |
| | Perceive self as part-time worker | 92 | 21.0 |
| | Perceive self as full-time worker | 347 | 79.0 |
| 19 --- | Number with intermittent schedules: | | |
| | Report working full-time during some weeks but not at all other weeks | 37 | 8.5 |
| 21 --- | Satisfaction with hours spent at work: | | |
| | Prefer more hours of work | 13 | 3.0 |
| | Prefer same hours as now working | 230 | 52.5 |
| | Prefer fewer hours of work | 195 | 44.5 |

Continued on next page

Table 1 (continued)

| <u>Item #</u> | <u>Item categories</u> | <u>Number of respondents in category</u> | <u>Percent of total responses to the item</u> |
|---------------|---|--|---|
| 22 --- | Plans to stay in current job: | | |
| | 1 to 3 months | 19 | 4.4 |
| | 3 to 12 months | 46 | 10.6 |
| | 1 to 2 years | 58 | 13.3 |
| | 2 to 5 years | 82 | 18.8 |
| | no plans to leave current job | 231 | 53.0 |
| 23 --- | Long-range career plans: | | |
| | Plan to work full-time in nursing | 212 | 48.7 |
| | Plan to work part-time in nursing | 94 | 21.6 |
| | Plan to leave and then re-enter the work force at later time | 46 | 10.6 |
| | Plan to leave the profession | 40 | 9.2 |
| | Plan to quit working outside home | 3 | 0.7 |
| | Other plans (often included plans for further education) | 40 | 9.2 |

* See Appendix A for items

performance (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellaatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989; Steers, 1977).

Respondents indicated the extent of their agreement or disagreement with the items using a 7-point Likert-type scale; the use of an asterisk next to an item in Appendix A indicates that item was reverse coded. Mowday et. al. (1979) reported an average internal consistency reliability of .90. for the OCQ.

Job involvement. (See items 16-24, Section I, Appendix A.) Job involvement, defined as the extent to which individuals are identified psychologically with their work, was measured with a 9-item scale comprised of a 6-item subset (items 16-21, Section I, Appendix A) from a questionnaire developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965), plus 3 items (items 22-24, Section I, Appendix A) that were written for this research. Because the Lodahl and Kejner questionnaire does not include any items which allow the respondent to indicate that work and nonwork concerns are the focus of approximately equal involvement, the three added items were intended to expand the construct of job involvement to include this possibility. Job involvement has been shown to be positively correlated with age and endorsement of the Protestant work ethic (Saal, 1978), and with job satisfaction (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965).

Respondents indicated the extent of their agreement or disagreement with the items using a 7-point Likert-type

scale; the use of an asterisk next to an item in Appendix A indicates that item was reverse coded. An average internal consistency reliability of .73 has been reported for the 6-item Lodahl and Kejner scale.

Interrole conflict. (See items 37-48, Section I, Appendix A.) Conflict or strain between work roles and nonwork roles was assessed with a 12-item scale comprised of an 8-item scale (items 37-44, Section I, Appendix A) developed by Kopelman, Greenhaus, and Connolly (1983), plus 4 items that were written for this study (items 45-48, Section I, Appendix A). Many of the items developed by Kopelman et. al. made specific references to family situations; the wording of these items was adapted for this study to make the scale also applicable to unmarried, childless respondents not living in family situations.

Respondents indicated the extent of their agreement or disagreement with the items using a 5-point Likert-type scale; the use of an asterisk next to an item in Appendix A indicates that item was reverse coded. Kopelman et. al. reported an internal consistency reliability of .89 for their 8-item scale.

Life satisfaction. (See items 49-58, Section I, Appendix A.) Life satisfaction was measured by Kornhauser's (1965) 10-item scale, which has shown internal consistency reliability of .83.

Respondents indicated the extent of their agreement or disagreement with the items using a 5-point Likert-type scale; the use of an asterisk next to an item in Appendix A indicates that item was reverse coded.

Time boundaries. (See items 25-28, Section I, Appendix A.) Time boundaries between work and nonwork were measured by a 4-item subset of a scale developed by Schriber and Gutek (1987), who hypothesized that the temporal boundaries between work and nonwork may be more permeable for some groups of workers than for others. This scale measures the degree to which workers "take their work home with them." Schriber and Gutek reported internal consistency reliability for the 4-item scale of .65.

Respondents indicated the extent of their agreement or disagreement with the items using a 5-point Likert-type scale; the use of an asterisk next to an item in Appendix A indicates that item was reverse coded.

Work ethic. (See items 29-36, Section I, Appendix A.) Protestant work ethic was measured with an 8-item scale developed by Blood (1969), with modifications in wording of the items to bring them into conformity with current recommendations regarding nonsexist language. No reliability estimates were reported in the Blood article. Saal (1976) reported internal consistency reliabilities of .52 for the 4-item "pro" work ethic scale (items 30, 32, 34,

and 35, Section I, Appendix A), and .37 for the 4-item "con" scale (items 29, 31, 33, and 36, Section I, Appendix A).

Respondents indicated the extent of their agreement or disagreement with the items using a 5-point Likert-type scale.

Job satisfaction. (See items 59-63, Section I, Appendix A.) Job satisfaction was measured using the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969). (Permission was granted for its use in this research.) In addition to being the most researched and most often used measure of job satisfaction in general (Yeager, 1981), the JDI has also been the most often used measure in studies of part-time workers. The JDI consists of 72 items measuring five facets of job satisfaction: (1) satisfaction with the work itself -- 18 items, (2) satisfaction with supervision -- 18 items, (3) satisfaction with pay -- 9 items, (4) satisfaction with opportunities for promotion -- 9 items, and (5) satisfaction with co-workers -- 18 items. The JDI scales were scored according to the guidelines of Smith et. al. (1969): agreement with a positive item or disagreement with a negative item were coded with a three; agreement with a negative item or disagreement with a positive item were coded as zero; and question mark responses were scored with a one; the use of an asterisk next to an item indicates a negative item. Corrected split-half reliabilities of each of the five

scales range from .80 to .88, as reported by Smith et. al., (1969).

Demographic information. (See Section II, Appendix A.) Demographic information was collected, including job-related and professional background information, information regarding the amount of time spent at work and the scheduling of that time, and information regarding respondents' plans for the future.

Analyses

Reliability analyses. An internal consistency approach was taken to assessing the reliability of the measures. Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each of the scales described above. Item-total correlations were examined for each item in each scale, and items which substantially detracted from the reliability of the scale were deleted. This approach led to the following modifications of the work ethic and time boundaries scales: (1) the four items of the work ethic scale that are intended to assess "con" attitudes were dropped from all further analyses due to low reliability, and (2) two items were dropped from the time boundaries scale in order to increase its reliability.

Descriptive analyses. Means and standard deviations of the dependent measures were computed. Correlations were computed among the dependent measures, among the demographic (independent) variables, and between the dependent and demographic measures. The study was exploratory in nature,

hence inspection of the correlations among the dependent measures and the demographic measures was used to isolate independent variables of potential interest. The choice of independent variables was also guided and shaped by the theoretical interest in the issue of part-time work that was the primary focus of the study.

Identification of independent variables. The independent variable of major interest in the study concerned the amount of time spent at work. To examine issues of part- versus full-time employment, the sample was divided into three groups on the basis of number of hours worked per week. Group 1 consisted of nurses who worked fewer than 25 hours per week, clearly a part-time group. Group 2 consisted of nurses who worked 25 to 35 hours per week. Group 3, the full-time group, consisted of people who worked more than 35 hours per week.

It is difficult to determine the designation which should be applied to Group 2, the people who worked 25 to 35 hours per week. The Bureau of Labor Statistics would classify all people who work fewer than 35 hours per week as part-time, but many people in the 25 to 35 hour mid-range group perceived themselves as full-time workers, as can be seen in Table 2, which reports the frequencies within each of the three groups of self-reported part- or full-time status. The difficulty in labeling the middle group is illustrative of the need in our research to clarify and

Table 2

Frequencies of Self-Reported Part- or Full-Time Status
by Actual Hours Worked in Primary Nursing Job

| <u>Actual hours worked</u> | <u>Number reporting</u> <u>part-time status</u> | <u>Number reporting</u> <u>full-time status</u> |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| Fewer than 25 hrs./wk. | 67 | 9 |
| 25 to 35 hrs./wk. | 20 | 16 |
| Over 35 hrs./wk. | 4 | 319 |

refine the construct of part-time work, a need which was articulated by Knight, Allen, and Downey (1989). However labeled, this middle group may differ in important ways from workers who are more clearly part- or full-time.

The division into three groups which is represented in Table 2 was based only on the number of hours worked in the primary nursing job; those people in the "Fewer than 25 hours" group who identified themselves as full-time workers may have had other jobs. The people in the "Over 35 hours" group who identified themselves as part-timers may have done so because they used 40 rather than 36-39 hours as the cut-off for full-time work, or perhaps because they worked full-time when they worked, but only worked periodically.

In addition to the analysis utilizing the three-group division of subjects, analyses were also conducted utilizing a two-group division based on the respondents' self-perceptions of their full- or part-time status. This was done to deal with cell size problems involving the mid-range group when interaction terms were included in the analyses, and to determine if a similar pattern of results would emerge using this alternative method of dividing the sample into full- and part-time groups.

Four other variables were selected for further analysis: first, a variable dealing with control over work schedules; second, a variable dealing with preference for working fewer, more, or the same number of hours per week;

third, a variable assessing whether respondents worked primarily for financial reasons or because they enjoy working; and fourth, a variable dealing with whether or not respondents had children. Following is a brief discussion of each of these variables.

Item 17, Section II of the survey (Appendix A), which dealt with amount of control respondents had in scheduling their work, was of particular interest. Previous research (Greenberger & Strasser, 1986; Greenberger, Strasser, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989; Knight & Downey, 1989; Langer, 1983) has indicated that control is an important variable. It may be particularly so in the context of research on part-time work if we assume that many people work part-time because of competing demands on their time, making control over their time particularly salient (Knight & Downey, 1989).

Item 21 of Section II (Appendix A) was also selected for further analysis. This item asked respondents whether they preferred to work more hours, fewer hours, or the same number of hours they were now working; however, the group of respondents who wanted to work more hours than they were currently working was dropped from all analyses due to inadequate cell size ($n=12$) available for multivariate analyses. This variable can be seen as a measure of satisfaction with their status as part- or full-time workers. Previous research has indicated that voluntary

part-time workers differ in their job attitudes from part-time workers who would prefer to have a full-time job (Knight & Downey, 1989). Conversely, previous research has also shown that many full-time workers would prefer to reduce the number of hours spent at work (Harriman, 1982), and it seems likely that these involuntary full-time workers would differ in their job attitudes from those who are voluntary full-timers.

Item 12, Section II (Appendix A) asked respondents to report whether they were working because they needed money, working for extra money, or working because they enjoyed working. Past research (Knight & Downey, 1989) has indicated that people who work for enjoyment have particularly favorable job attitudes.

Item 10, Section II (Appendix A) asked respondents how many children were currently living in the household. This item was analyzed as a dichotomous response -- 0 children versus one or more children. This variable was selected for analysis because it was hypothesized that children living in the home constitute a significant demand on their parents' time and energy, and may be an important factor in generating conflict between their parents' work and nonwork roles.

Identification of covariate. Because initial analyses disclosed significant differences among the three hospitals, the variance in scores on the outcome measures due to the

hospital effect was controlled by dummy-coding the information regarding the hospital affiliation of the respondents (two dummy codes) and entering the dummy-coded variables as covariates in multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA).

Identification of Models. Based on initial analyses which examined the effects of the independent variables and the interactions among them, three models were selected for analysis. Model 1 (full, actual hours model) included all independent variables and one interaction term. This interaction term was chosen because it was the only clearly significant interaction to emerge from preliminary analyses.

In Model 1 (full, actual hours model), part- and full-time workers are divided into three groups based on the number of hours actually worked in the primary nursing job. The following are the main effects and interactions included in Model 1:

- (1) hours spent at work (three-group division);
- (2) control over work schedule;
- (3) preference for number of hours to be spent at work;
- (4) reason for working;
- (5) presence of children in the home;
- (6) the interaction between children in the home and preference for number of hours to be spent at work.

Model 2 (abbreviated self-report model) was developed to look at a second interaction which emerged from

preliminary analyses, but which involved substantial cell size problems. Thus, in Model 2, the variables are collapsed and examined in isolation from the other variables. The following are the main effects and interactions included in Model 2:

- (1) perceived full- or part-time status as reported by respondents;
- (2) control over work schedule;
- (3) the interaction between the previous two variables.

Model 3 (full, self-report model) is an expansion of Model 2, and was developed to examine the robustness of the interaction examined in Model 2 when it was included in a full model. A further rationale for Model 3 was to look at the effects of the variables using a different method (self-reported status) of dividing the sample into part- and full-time workers. The following are the main effects and interactions included in Model 3:

- (1) perceived full- or part-time status;
- (2) control over work schedule;
- (3) preference for number of hours to be spent at work;
- (4) reason for working;
- (5) presence of children in the home;
- (6) the interaction between perceived status and control over schedule.

These models, which are summarized in Table 3, were tested in three separate MANCOVAs, all with hospital as

Table 3

Summary of Independent Variables and Significant Univariate Effects in Models 1, 2 and 3

| Model | Independent variables entered in model | Significant Univariate Effects |
|--|--|---|
| Model 1 (Full actual hours model) | Hours spent at work (3 group division) Say over schedule Preference for hours to be spent at work Reason for working Presence of children in the home Interaction term: Preference x Children | -----Org com, Job inv -----Org com, Conflict, Life sat, all JDI scales -----Org com, Conflict, Life sat, all JDI scales except cowork -----Org com, JDI work, JDI pay -----Job inv -----Org com, Conflict, Time boun, JDI supervision |
| Model 2 (abbreviated self-report model) | Self-reported part- or full-time status Say over schedule (collapsed to 2 levels) Interaction term: Status x Say | -----Org com, Job inv, Life sat -----Org com, Life sat, all JDIs -----Org com, Job inv, Conflict |
| Model 3 (full, self-report model) | Self-reported part- or full-time status Say over schedule (collapsed to 2 levels) Preference for hours to be spent at work Reason for working Presence of children in the home Interaction term: Status x Say | -----Org com, Job inv -----Org com, all JDI scales -----Org com, Conflict, Life sat all JDI scales except cowork -----Org com, all JDI scales except promotion scale -----Job inv, JDI pay -----Org com, Time boun |

Note: Org com=Organization commitment; Job inv=Job involvement; Conflict = Interrole conflict; Life sat=Life satisfaction; Time boun=Time boundaries; JDI=Job Descriptive Index (The JDI has 5 subscales measuring satisfaction with the following 5 facets of the job: coworkers, supervision, the work itself, opportunities for promotion, and pay.)

covariate, and all with the following 11 scales (described in Instrument Section above) as outcome measures: organizational commitment, job involvement, modified (2-item) time boundaries scale, "pro" work ethic scale, interrole conflict scale, life satisfaction scale, and the five JDI scales.

In each analysis, significant MANCOVA findings were followed by univariate analyses, canonical \underline{r} , and appropriate post hoc tests. Canonical \underline{r} s were used in the discussion to help understand the underlying dimensions of interest.

Discussion of analytic approach. A discussion of the proper use of multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), and, by extension, multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA), is in order here. It is common practice to follow a significant MANOVA finding with multiple, univariate analyses of variance (ANOVAs), a technique based on the contention that a significant MANOVA protects against the increased risk of Type I error inherent in multiple tests. This approach -- conducting an omnibus MANOVA test followed by multiple univariate tests -- has been criticized by Huberty and Morris (1989), who contend that the use of MANOVA to protect against Type I error is inappropriate. In this study, the common practice of MANOVA followed by multiple ANOVAs has been employed, but with a purpose beyond the protection from Type I error which the MANOVA is

purported to accomplish, but may or may not accomplish. MANOVA was used here because the dependent measures were not conceptually or statistically independent, and because we hoped to identify the construct (or constructs) which underlie this group of outcome variables as they were operating in this research. According to Huberty and Morris (1989) this is an appropriate use of the MANOVA technique. Thus, MANOVA has been used in this study as a necessary, but not necessarily sufficient, argument for the existence of the univariate effects, and also to identify relationships not revealed by the univariate effects alone.

In addition to their discussion of the proper use of MANOVA, Huberty and Morris (1989) described four situations in which multiple ANOVAs, whether or not they are preceded by MANOVA, are appropriate. The following two situations apply to this study: (1) if the research is exploratory in nature, and we want to know "with respect to which outcome variables do the groups differ?" (p. 303); and (2) "when some or all of the outcome variables under current study have been previously studied in univariate contexts" (p. 303).

In summary, the analytic approach adopted for this research was cognizant of the controversy surrounding the MANOVA/ANOVA procedure, and has used the procedure in a way that was considered appropriate regardless of which stance one takes in the controversy.

Results

A summary of the responses to the demographic and other items in Section II of the questionnaire (Appendix A) were previously reported in Table 1. As seen in Table 1, the majority of respondents were R.N.s with at least three years of training who were working full-time as staff nurses. A substantial number supervised other people, most often in the capacity of shift supervisor. More than half reported working shifts that involved evening and night work, and most were satisfied with the shifts they worked. Respondents were nearly evenly divided in their satisfaction with fringe benefits between those who were satisfied (most only slightly) and those who were dissatisfied (again only slightly).

The majority of respondents were married and had children living in the home (52.8%). Most reported that they were working because they needed money (76.4%), and a sizable minority reported being the sole support of a household (30.1%). The average salary earned by respondents in the previous year was \$24,275.94, and the average family income of respondents in the previous year was \$40,735.19.

Approximately half of the respondents had no plans to leave their current job, and approximately half planned to continue working full-time in the nursing profession. Nearly 10 percent of the respondents reported planning to

leave the nursing profession for another line of work, but only three respondents reported plans to leave the workforce entirely.

A substantial number of this sample would like to work fewer hours. Over 40 percent of those who perceived themselves as full-time workers would prefer to work fewer hours, which is nearly as many as were happy with the number of hours they were working (46.1 percent). In contrast, among part-timers, 77.2 percent were happy with number of hours they were working. Nurses who would prefer to work more hours than they were working were not included in the analyses because they were too few in number. Only 4.4 percent of part-timers and 2.6 percent of full-timers wanted more hours of work.

Scale means and standard deviations for the 11 outcome measures are reported in Table 4. The scale means were computed by summing the items a person rated for each scale, dividing this sum by the number of items rated (excluding missing items), and then multiplying by the total number of items in the scale. If more than one-half of the items in a scale were not rated (missing), the entire scale score was declared a missing value. This approach was employed in constructing scale scores so that missing a small number of items would not increase the number of missing scale scores, and thus exclude that respondent from the analysis.

Table 4

Number of Subjects (N), Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations for the Dependent Measures

| Measures | N | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|---|-----|------|------|--------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------------|
| 1. Organizational commitment ^a | 441 | 68.7 | 15.9 | (.91) | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Job involvement ^a | 441 | 36.2 | 8.3 | .51** | (.75) | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Interrole conflict ^b | 440 | 34.0 | 7.3 | -.31** | -.04 | (.87) | | | | | | | |
| 4. Life satisfaction ^b | 440 | 36.0 | 5.4 | .23** | -.04 | -.50** | (.83) | | | | | | |
| 5. Pro work ethic scale ^b | 441 | 13.6 | 2.7 | .16** | .28** | .03 | .03 | (.53) | | | | | |
| 6. Time boundaries ^b | 441 | 7.5 | 1.9 | -.06 | -.05 | -.09* | .16** | .09* | (.65) | | | | |
| 7. JDI coworkers | 406 | 43.4 | 9.3 | .28** | .02 | -.20** | .27** | .01 | .01 | (.81) | | | |
| 8. JDI supervision | 407 | 41.4 | 10.9 | .39** | .18** | -.29** | .30** | .13** | .01 | .37** | (.83) | | |
| 9. JDI work itself | 407 | 35.3 | 9.9 | .46** | .22** | -.28** | .33** | .05 | .03 | .42** | .45** | (.78) | |
| 10. JDI promotion | 405 | 9.4 | 7.7 | .40** | .21** | -.17** | .21** | .06 | -.02 | .21** | .30** | .36** | (.85) |
| 11. JDI pay | 406 | 11.8 | 6.5 | .35** | .08 | -.22** | .20** | .06 | .04 | .14** | .22** | .25** | .32** (80) |

Decimal points are omitted in the correlation matrix; numbers in the diagonal are coefficient alpha reliability estimates.

^a Measured on a 7-point scale

^b Measured on a 5-point scale

* p<.05

** p<.01

Reliabilities (coefficient alphas) for the 11 outcome measures are also reported in Table 4. The reliability of the original 4-item time boundaries scale ($\alpha = .44$) was marginal. By dropping items 27 and 28 (Section I, Appendix A), the reliability of the remaining 2-item scale (items 25 and 26) was increased ($\alpha = .65$). The 4 items comprising the "con" work ethic scale (items 29, 31, 33, and 36) were dropped from all further analyses due to low reliability ($\alpha = .19$). The 4 remaining items of the work ethic scale (the "pro" scale) had a reliability of .53. Other scale reliabilities, which ranged from .75 to .91, were found to be adequate, and were consistent with past research using these scales. Table 4 also includes the correlations among the dependent measures; overall, the scales were found to moderately intercorrelated.

Initial analyses indicated that there was no significant multivariate effect for the professional status of R.N. or L.P.N., and no significant multivariate effect for job level, so these groups were combined for all further analyses. It should be noted that very few L.P.N.s completed the survey, so this group is greatly underrepresented in the sample in comparison to their prevalence in the group from which the sample was drawn; hence, any actual differences that may exist between R.N.s and L.P.N.s were difficult to assess with this sample of respondents.

Initial analyses also established that there was a significant multivariate effect for the independent variable of hospital affiliation, and significant univariate effects for hospital affiliation involving the dependent variables of organizational commitment, job involvement, satisfaction with opportunities for promotion, and satisfaction with pay. These effects are reported in Appendix B. (No means are reported for these effects in order to maintain hospital confidentiality.) To control for the effects of hospital affiliation, hospital was entered as a dummy-coded covariate in all succeeding analyses.

Table 5 reports the correlations among the independent variables from all three models. Hours spent at work, the variable which is the primary focus of this research, was significantly but only moderately correlated with the other independent variables, with correlations ranging from $-.13$ to $-.30$. Self-reported part- or full-time status, which provided another way to divide the sample into part- and full-timers and which was used in Models 2 and 3, was also moderately and significantly correlated with the other independent variables, with correlations ranging from $-.12$ to $-.27$. There was a high, but not perfect correlation ($r = .84$) between hours worked and self-reported part- or full-time status. The intercorrelations among the independent variables provided a further rationale for the

Table 5

Correlations Among the Independent Variables

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. Hours worked per week | | | | | |
| 2. Control or say over schedule | -13** | | | | |
| 3. Preference for number of hours to be spent at work | -30** | 21** | | | |
| 4. Reason for working | -20** | 08 | 14** | | |
| 5. Children living at home | -28** | 06 | 05 | 01 | |
| 6. Self-reported part- or full-time status | 84** | -12** | -27** | -21** | -23** |

57

Decimals omitted from the matrix; N ranged from 413 to 433

Note. The variables were coded as follows: (1) hours worked: 1=fewer than 25 hrs. worked per week, 2=25 to 35 hrs. per week, 3=over 35 hrs. per week; (2) say over schedule: 1=no say over schedule, 2=some say over schedule, 3=lot of say over schedule; (3) preference for number of hours: 1=prefer fewer hrs. at work, 2=prefer same hrs. as now working; (4) reason for working: 1=working because need money, 2=working for extra money, 3=working for enjoyment; (5) children: 1=no children living at home, 2=1 or more children at home; (6) self-reported status: 1=part-time, 2=full-time.

** p<.01

use of the MANCOVA, which handles nonorthogonal independent measures.

Table 6 reports the correlations among the dependent and independent variables. Each independent variable exhibited several moderate correlations with dependent variables, with the exception of the variable of children living in the home, which was only slightly correlated with just two of the dependent variables.

The analyses of the three models was accomplished using the General Linear Model (GLM). GLM was used in order to deal with the unequal cell sizes in the design, and the correlated independent measures. For each independent variable, the multivariate test was followed by univariate tests to isolate the dependent variables involved (summarized for each model in Table 3, previously reported). The univariate results which are reported represent the effect of the particular independent variable on the particular dependent variable after the effects of the covariate and all other variables in the model have been partialled out. This is equivalent to entering the independent variable as the last predictor in a regression equation. For each independent variable, eta squared is reported, which represents the proportion of variance in the linear combination of dependent variables that is accounted for by that effect. Because each variable is evaluated after all other variables have been partialled out, the sum

Table 6

Correlations Among the Independent and Dependent Variables

| | Hours worked per week | Control over schedule | Preference for hrs. | Reason for working | Children at home | Self-reported status |
|--------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|
| Org. commitment | 07** | 28** | 14** | 12** | -04 | 08 |
| Job involvement | 23** | 04 | 01 | 03 | -10** | 21** |
| Interrole conflict | 13** | -23** | -34** | -12** | 03 | 11* |
| Life satisfaction | -21** | 20** | 22** | 13** | 07 | -18** |
| Pro work ethic | 07 | 00 | -06 | -00 | -03 | 08 |
| Time boundaries | -05 | 00 | -02 | 01 | -01 | -03 |
| JDI coworkers | -11** | 25** | 10* | 05 | 01 | -07 |
| JDI supervision | -11* | 26** | 11* | 08 | 00 | -07 |
| JDI work itself | -02 | 23** | 09* | 17** | 03 | -04 |
| JDI promotion | 08 | 21** | 06 | 05 | 02 | 03 |
| JDI pay | 02 | 18** | 11* | 15** | -13** | -04 |

Decimals omitted from the matrix; N ranged from 396 to 440

Note. See Table 5 for explanation of coding of independent variables.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

of the eta squares for each model represents the proportion of variance accounted for by the entire model.

Within GLM, the MANCOVA procedure eliminates from consideration any response set which includes missing data on any relevant variable, hence the number of subjects varies from analysis to analysis, and is always somewhat less than the total number of respondents.

Table 7, Parts A through F, reports the results of the analysis of Model 1. As seen in Part A, the multivariate effect for hours worked per week was significant, and there were significant univariate effects involving organizational commitment and job involvement. People who were clearly full-timers (more than 35 hours per week) and people who were clearly part-timers (fewer than 25 hours per week) were higher in organizational commitment than people who worked 25 to 35 hours per week. Full-timers (more than 35 hours per week) were higher in job involvement than people in the other two groups. Hours spent at work accounted for 11% of the variance in the linear combination of the dependent variables.

Part B of Table 7 reveals that there was a significant multivariate effect for say or control regarding work schedule. Significant univariate effects were found involving organizational commitment, interrole conflict, life satisfaction, and all five JDI scales. People who reported no say over their work schedule are significantly

Table 7, Part A

Group Means, Univariate and Multivariate Effects and Canonical Correlations

for Hours Worked Per Week in Primary Nursing Job

| <u>Dependent variable</u> | <u>Group Means</u> | | <u>Over 35 hrs</u> | <u>F(2,362)</u> | <u>Canonical Correlation</u> |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|
| | <u>Fewer than 25 hrs</u> | <u>25-35 hours</u> | | | |
| Org. commitment | 68.28 ^a | 60.69 ^b | 70.03 ^a | 8.88 ^{**} | .69 |
| Job involvement | 33.01 ^a | 33.57 ^a | 37.37 ^b | 7.61 ^{**} | .73 |
| Interrole conflict | 31.70 | 34.97 | 34.41 | 1.78 | -.09 |
| Life satisfaction | 38.57 | 36.09 | 35.49 | 2.01 | -.15 |
| Pro work ethic | 13.32 | 13.32 | 13.70 | 0.60 | .19 |
| Time boundaries | 7.60 | 7.81 | 7.44 | 1.19 | -.27 |
| JDI coworkers | 45.43 | 44.34 | 42.99 | 1.64 | -.25 |
| JDI supervision | 43.83 | 40.47 | 41.08 | 1.87 | -.08 |
| JDI work itself | 36.33 | 33.97 | 35.48 | 0.39 | .16 |
| JDI promotion | 8.30 | 8.62 | 9.89 | 1.45 | .32 |
| JDI pay | 11.99 | 10.09 | 11.90 | 0.76 | .25 |

Number of subjects: 67 32 275

Multivariate effect: Wilks' lambda = .89, F(22,704)=1.95, p<.01

Note. Means with different superscripts are significantly different from each other, according to Duncan multiple range post hoc tests

* p<.05

** p<.01

Table 7, Part B

Group Means, Univariate and Multivariate Effects and Canonical Correlations
for Say Regarding Work Schedule

| Dependent variable | Group Means | | | F(2,362) | Canonical Correlation |
|--------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------|----------|--------------------------|
| | No say | Some say | Lot of say | | |
| Org. commitment | 58.97a | 67.97b | 76.23c | 19.76** | .85 |
| Job involvement | 34.02 | 36.54 | 36.67 | 2.35 | .28 |
| Interrole conflict | 37.98a | 34.12 ^b | 31.65 ^c | 6.67** | -.56 |
| Life satisfaction | 33.96a | 35.79b | 37.91 ^c | 4.20** | .43 |
| Pro work ethic | 13.10 | 13.79 | 13.35 | 1.50 | .03 |
| Time boundaries | 7.38 | 7.53 | 7.48 | 0.27 | .04 |
| JDI coworkers | 38.64a | 43.21 ^b | 46.80 ^c | 10.58** | .60 |
| JDI supervision | 34.60a | 41.63 ^b | 44.61 ^b | 10.23** | .59 |
| JDI work itself | 30.80a | 34.86 ^b | 39.44 ^c | 11.08** | .66 |
| JDI promotion | 6.94a | 8.91a | 12.25b | 8.33** | .56 |
| JDI pay | 10.73a | 10.99a | 14.24b | 7.02** | .50 |

Number of subjects: 45 237 92

Multivariate effect: Wilks' lambda = .83, $F(22,704)=3.14$, $p<.01$

Note. Means with different superscripts are significantly different from each other, according to Duncan multiple range post hoc tests

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

Table 7, Part C

Group Means, Univariate and Multivariate Effects, and Canonical Correlations

for Preference for Number of Hours to be Spent at Work

| <u>Dependent variable</u> | <u>Group Means</u> | | <u>F(1,362)</u> | <u>Canonical Correlation</u> |
|---------------------------|--|----------------------------------|---------------------|------------------------------|
| | <u>Prefer fewer hours per wk.</u> | <u>Prefer same hours per wk.</u> | | |
| Org. commitment | 65.01 ^a | 72.07 ^b | 17.46 ^{**} | -.59 |
| Job involvement | 35.73 | 36.69 | 3.14 | -.25 |
| Interrole conflict | 38.00 ^a | 31.45 ^b | 53.07 ^{**} | .90 |
| Life satisfaction | 34.39 ^a | 37.46 ^b | 13.08 ^{**} | -.49 |
| Pro work ethic | 13.67 | 13.54 | 0.13 | .04 |
| Time boundaries | 7.59 | 7.42 | 3.15 | .21 |
| JDI coworkers | 42.37 | 44.49 | 0.32 | -.14 |
| JDI supervision | 39.50 ^a | 43.15 ^b | 4.36 [*] | -.34 |
| JDI work itself | 34.02 ^a | 36.70 ^b | 3.93 [*] | -.35 |
| JDI promotion | 8.62 ^a | 10.21 ^b | 5.03 [*] | -.35 |
| JDI pay | 10.75 ^a | 12.57 ^b | 6.77 ^{**} | -.40 |
| Number of subjects: | 167 | 207 | | |
| Multivariate effect: | Wilks' lambda = .84, F(11,352)=6.12, p<.01 | | | |

Note. Means with different superscripts are significantly different from each other, according to Duncan multiple range post hoc tests

* p<.05
** p<.01

Table 7, Part D

Group Means, Univariate and Multivariate Effects and Canonical Correlations

for Reason for Working

| Dependent variable | Group Means | | | F(2,362) | Canonical Correlation |
|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| | Need Money | Extra Money | Enjoyment | | |
| Org. commitment | 68.16 ^a | 66.06 ^a | 79.91 ^b | 9.03 ^{**} | .88 |
| Job involvement | 36.34 | 34.09 | 39.24 | 2.67 | .47 |
| Interrole conflict | 34.44 | 33.43 | 31.00 | 1.86 | -.51 |
| Life satisfaction | 35.61 | 37.43 | 37.91 | 1.54 | .36 |
| Pro work ethic | 13.64 | 13.25 | 13.82 | 0.20 | .08 |
| Time boundaries | 7.49 | 7.55 | 7.50 | 0.03 | .02 |
| JDI coworkers | 43.64 | 41.95 | 45.35 | 2.27 | .15 |
| JDI supervision | 41.37 | 39.66 | 45.80 | 2.54 ^{**} | .37 |
| JDI work itself | 34.93 ^a | 34.95 ^a | 41.18 ^b | 5.42 ^{**} | .70 |
| JDI promotion | 9.37 | 8.47 | 12.21 | 2.15 | .47 |
| JDI pay | 11.19 ^a | 13.48 ^b | 13.71 ^b | 4.52 ^{**} | .52 |

Number of subjects: 284 56 34

Multivariate effect: Wilks' lambda = .90, F(22,704)=1.78, p<.05

Note. Means with different superscripts are significantly different from each other, according to Duncan multiple range post hoc tests

* p<.05

** p<.01

Table 7, Part E

Group Means, Univariate and Multivariate Effects and Canonical Correlations

for Children Living in the Home

| <u>Dependent variable</u> | <u>Group Means</u> | | <u>F(1,362)</u> | <u>Canonical Correlation</u> |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|
| | <u>No children at home</u> | <u>1 or more children at home</u> | | |
| Org. commitment | 69.98 | 68.30 | 0.01 | .04 |
| Job involvement | 38.32 ^a | 35.07 ^b | 6.25 ^{**} | .57 |
| Interrole conflict | 33.84 | 34.05 | 0.10 | -.06 |
| Life satisfaction | 35.57 | 36.39 | 0.20 | -.11 |
| Pro work ethic | 13.79 | 13.49 | 0.79 | .21 |
| Time boundaries | 7.62 | 7.42 | 1.95 | .32 |
| JDI coworkers | 43.38 | 43.64 | 0.15 | .08 |
| JDI supervision | 42.04 | 41.21 | 1.31 | .24 |
| JDI work itself | 35.32 | 35.61 | 0.39 | -.13 |
| JDI promotion | 9.63 | 9.42 | 0.54 | -.15 |
| JDI pay | 12.71 | 11.20 | 2.65 | .35 |

Number of subjects: 138
 Multivariate effect: Wilks' lambda = .95, F(11,352)=1.75, p<.06

Note. Means with different superscripts are significantly different from each other, according to Duncan multiple range post hoc tests
^{*} p<.05
^{**} p<.01

Table 7, Part F

Group Means, Univariate and Multivariate Effects and Canonical Correlations for the Interaction Between Preference for Number of Hours to be Spent at Work and Children Living in the Home

| <u>Dependent variable</u> | <u>Group Means</u> | | | | | | <u>F(1,362)</u> | <u>Canonical Correlation</u> |
|---------------------------|---|---------------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------|------------------------------|
| | <u>Fewer hours</u> | | <u>Same hours</u> | | <u>Same hours</u> | | | |
| | <u>No children</u> | <u>1 or more children</u> | <u>No children</u> | <u>1 or more children</u> | <u>1 or more children</u> | <u>1 or more children</u> | | |
| Org. commitment | 63.81 | 65.75 | 75.31 | 70.27 | 5.28** | -.60 | | |
| Job involvement | 37.27 | 34.79 | 39.23 | 35.28 | 0.0 | -.12 | | |
| Interrole conflict | 37.79 | 36.67 | 30.43 | 32.20 | 4.74** | .58 | | |
| Life satisfaction | 34.02 | 34.62 | 36.91 | 37.77 | 0.16 | -.19 | | |
| Pro work ethic | 13.70 | 13.64 | 13.86 | 13.37 | 0.33 | -.13 | | |
| Time boundaries | 8.03 | 7.32 | 7.27 | 7.50 | 5.29** | .51 | | |
| JDI coworkers | 42.59 | 42.23 | 44.05 | 44.73 | 0.04 | -.03 | | |
| JDI supervision | 38.84 | 39.90 | 44.80 | 42.23 | 3.62* | -.49 | | |
| JDI work itself | 33.18 | 34.53 | 37.16 | 36.44 | 1.34 | -.35 | | |
| JDI promotion | 8.21 | 8.87 | 10.86 | 9.84 | 0.67 | -.26 | | |
| JDI pay | 11.83 | 10.08 | 13.47 | 12.08 | 0.00 | -.09 | | |
| Number of subjects: | 64 | 103 | 74 | 133 | | | | |
| Multivariate effect: | Wilks' lambda = .95, F(11, 352) = 1.68, p < .08 | | | | | | | |

* p < .06

** p < .05

lower in organizational commitment than people who reported some say, who are in turn significantly lower in organizational commitment than people who reported a lot of say over their work schedule. The same pattern holds for life satisfaction, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with work itself. For interrole conflict, the pattern is reversed, with those who reported no say scoring significantly higher in interrole conflict than those who reported some say, while those who reported some say are in turn significantly higher in interrole conflict than those who reported a lot of say. Regarding satisfaction with supervision, those who reported no say over their schedule were significantly less satisfied than those who reported some or a lot of say. Respondents who reported a lot of say were significantly more satisfied with opportunity for promotion and with pay than those reporting no or some say. Say over schedule accounted for 17% of the variance in the linear combination of the dependent variables.

Part C of Table 7 shows a significant multivariate effect for preference for number of hours to be spent at work, and significant univariate effects involving organizational commitment, interrole conflict, life satisfaction, and four of the five JDI scales (all except satisfaction with coworkers). People who preferred to work fewer hours were significantly higher in interrole conflict, and significantly lower in organizational commitment, life

satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, work itself, opportunity for promotion and pay, than people who preferred to work the same number of hours that they were currently working. Preference for hours accounted for 16% of the variance in the linear combination of the dependent variables.

Part D of Table 7 reports a significant multivariate effect for reason for working, and significant univariate effects involving organizational commitment, satisfaction with work itself, and satisfaction with pay. People who reported working for enjoyment were significantly more committed to the organization, and significantly more satisfied with the work itself, than people who reported working because they needed money, or who reported working to obtain extra money. People who reported that they worked because they needed money were significantly less satisfied with their pay than people who were working for extra money or enjoyment. Reason for working accounted for 10% of the variance in the linear combination of the dependent variables.

Part E of Table 7 reports a marginally significant ($p < .06$) multivariate effect for the presence of children in the home, and a significant univariate effect involving job involvement. People with no children living in the home scored significantly higher on job involvement than people who had children in the home. The presence or absence of

children in the home accounted for 5% of the variance in the linear combination of the dependent variables.

Part F of Table 7 reports a marginally significant ($p < .08$) multivariate effect for the interaction between preference for number of hours to be spent at work and the presence of children in the home. There were significant univariate effects involving organizational commitment, interrole conflict, and time boundaries, and a marginally significant effect involving satisfaction with supervision. These interactions are depicted graphically in Figures 1 through 4.

In Figure 1, it can be seen that preference for hours to be spent at work had a greater effect on organizational commitment among respondents who had no children living in the home than among those who reported children in the home. Those with no children in the home who preferred fewer hours of work scored lower in organizational commitment than all other groups, and those who had no children in the home and were satisfied with number of hours they were working scored higher in organizational commitment than all other groups.

Figure 2 reveals a similar, but reversed, interaction pattern involving interrole conflict. Preference for hours to be spent at work had a greater impact on interrole conflict among respondents who had no children living in the home. Those who had no children in the home and preferred fewer hours scored higher on interrole conflict than all

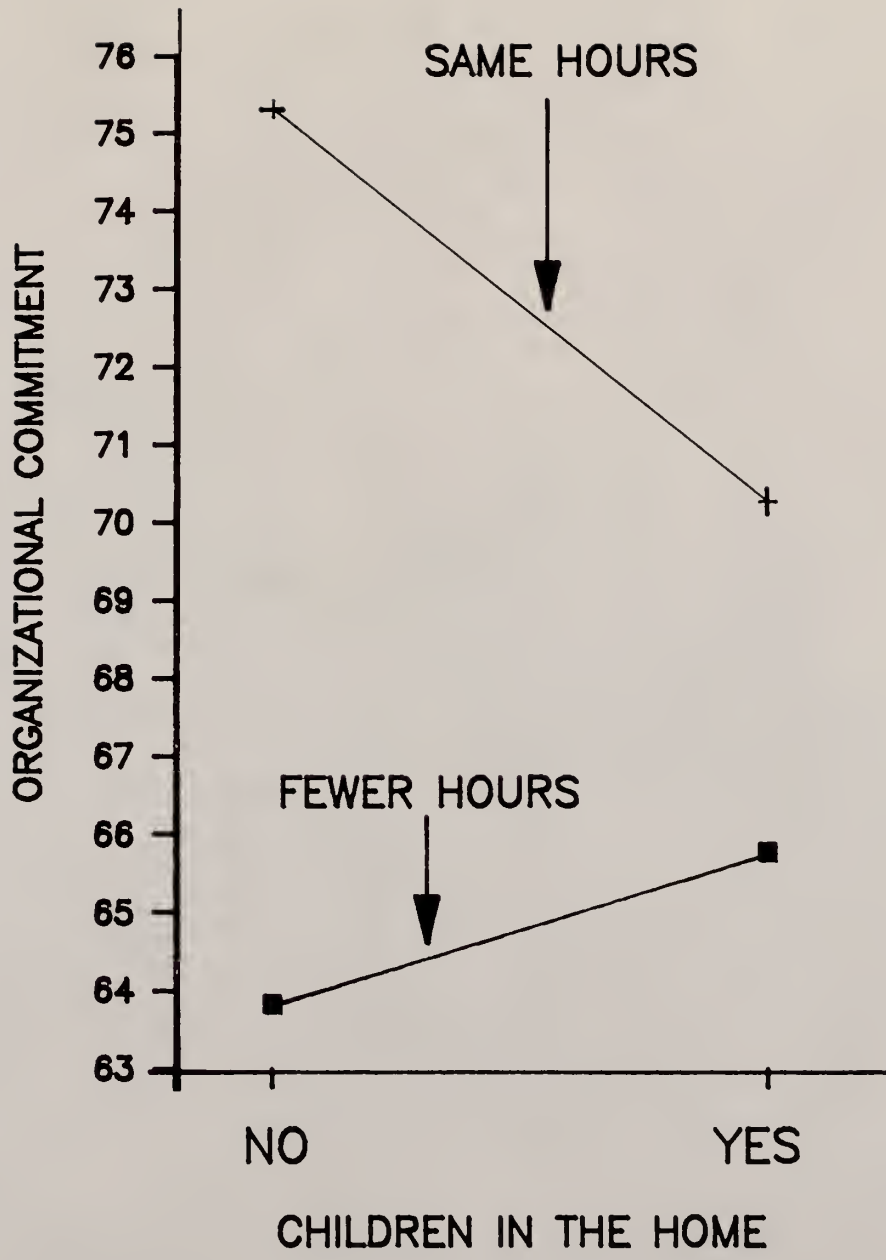


Figure 1. Organizational commitment – Presence of children and hours preferred

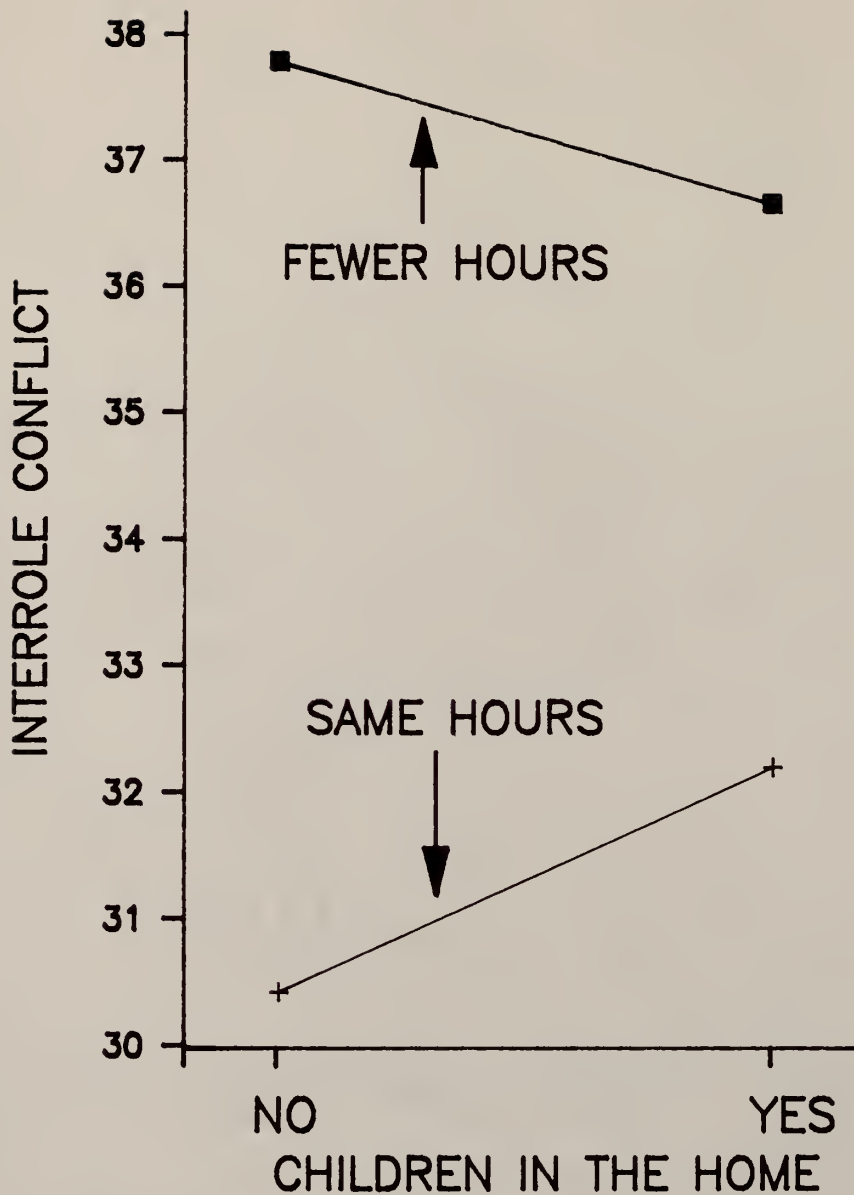


Figure 2. Interrole conflict – Presence of children and hours preferred

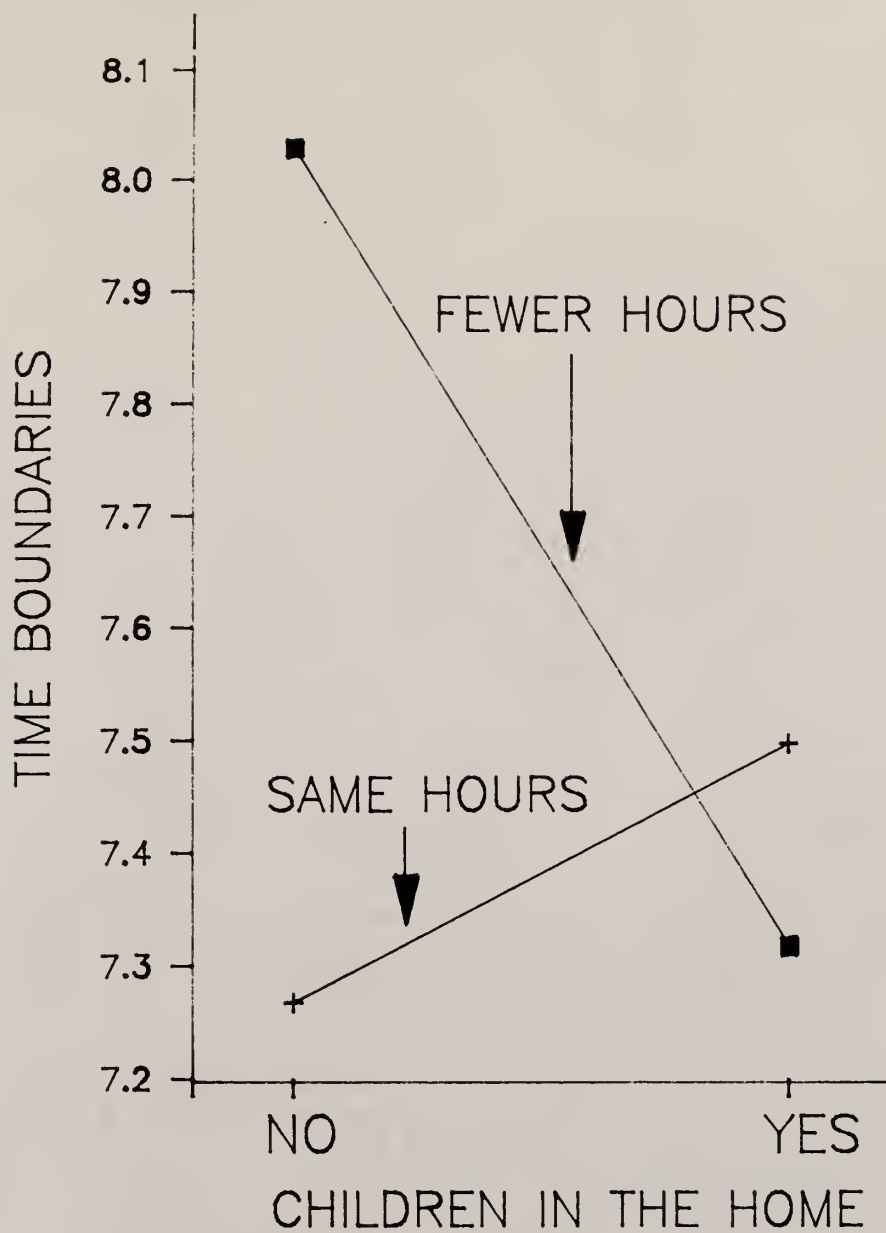


Figure 3. Time boundaries –
 Presence of children and hours preferred

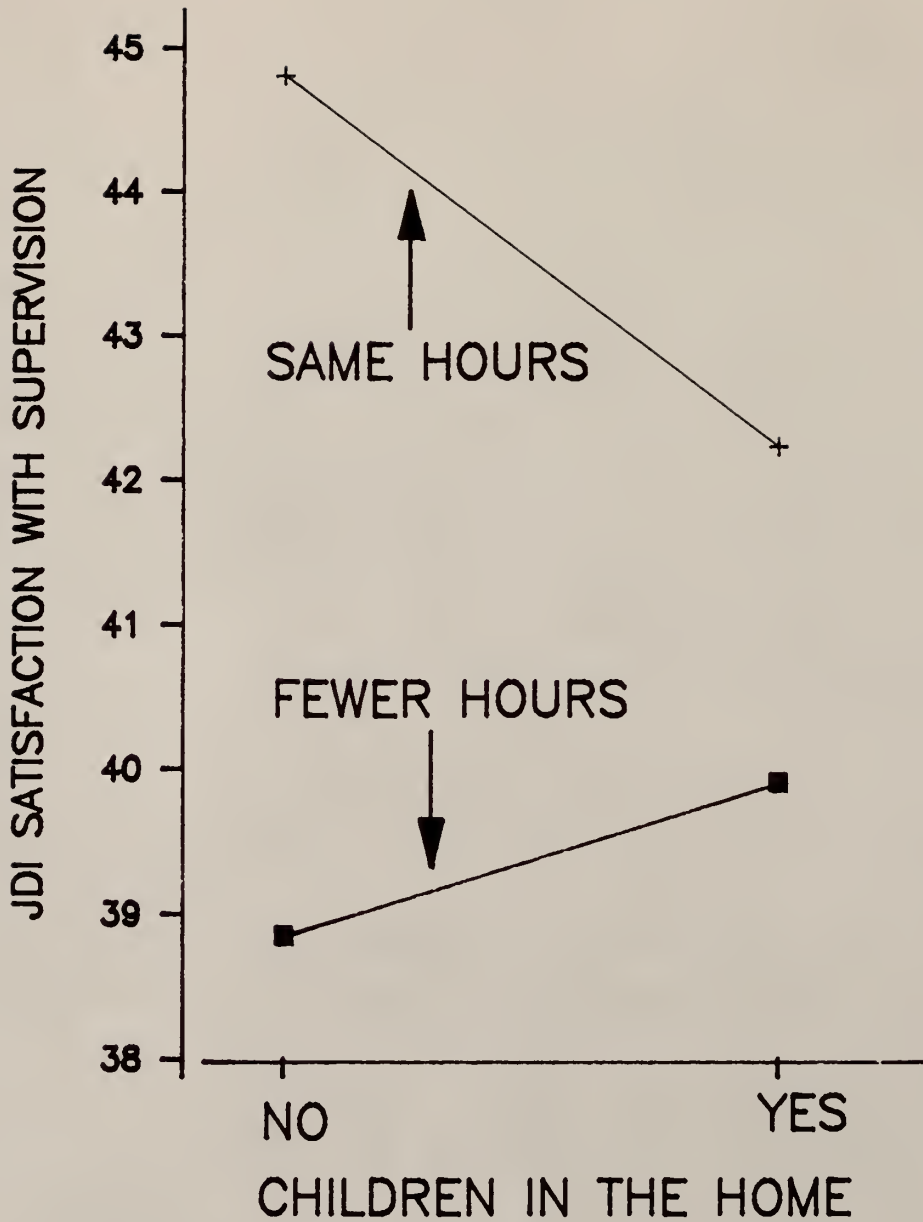


Figure 4. JDI Satisfaction with supervision — Presence of children and hours preferred

other groups, and those who had no children in the home and were satisfied with the number of hours they were working scored lower than all other groups on interrole conflict.

Figure 3 presents a similar pattern to that found for interrole conflict -- preference for hours had a greater impact on the setting of time boundaries between work and nonwork for those with no children in the home. People with no children who preferred fewer hours of work scored higher than all other groups on the time boundary scale.

In Figure 4, we see the same pattern as that found for organizational commitment. Preference for hours again had the greatest effect on satisfaction with supervision in people who had no children in the home. Those with no children in the home who preferred fewer hours of work scored lower in satisfaction with supervision than all other groups, and those who had no children in the home and were satisfied with number of hours they were working scored higher in satisfaction with supervision than all other groups. The interaction between preference for hours and the children in the home accounted for 5% of the variance in the linear combination of the dependent variables. Overall, Model 1 accounted for 64% of the variance in the linear combination of dependent variables.

Table 8, Parts A through C, reports the results of the analyses of Models 2 and 3. Model 2 included only perceived part- or full-time status, say over schedule, and the

Table 8, Part A

Group Means, Univariate and Multivariate Effects and Canonical Correlations for Perceived

Part- or Full-time Status

| <u>Dependent variable</u> | <u>Group Means</u> | | <u>Model 2^a</u> | | <u>Model 3^b</u> | |
|---------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------------------|---------------------|----------------------------|---------------------|
| | <u>Part-time</u> | <u>Full-time</u> | <u>F(1,391)</u> | <u>Canon. Corr.</u> | <u>F(1,368)</u> | <u>Canon. Corr.</u> |
| | Org. commitment | 65.60 ^a | 69.50 ^b | 7.63 ^{**} | .45 | 11.25 ^{**} |
| Job involvement | 32.71 ^a | 37.17 ^b | 21.24 ^{**} | .77 | 13.27 ^{**} | -.73 |
| Interrole conflict | 32.45 | 34.50 | 1.89 | .25 | 0.00 | .06 |
| Life satisfaction | 37.93 ^a | 35.51 ^b | 5.58 ^{**} | -.40 | 0.95 | .16 |
| Pro work ethic | 13.26 | 13.63 | 0.59 | .14 | 0.01 | .00 |
| Time boundaries | 7.59 | 7.45 | 0.07 | -.03 | 0.43 | .11 |
| JDI coworkers | 44.71 | 43.07 | 1.72 | -.23 | 1.92 | .23 |
| JDI supervision | 42.79 | 41.06 | 0.40 | -.12 | 0.36 | .08 |
| JDI work itself | 36.00 | 35.07 | 0.18 | -.09 | 0.04 | -.08 |
| JDI promotion | 8.93 | 9.55 | 0.78 | .12 | 0.91 | -.21 |
| JDI pay | 12.38 | 11.68 | 2.12 | -.25 | 0.31 | .06 |

Number of subjects: 86 311

Multivariate effects:

Wilks' lambda =.91,

F(11,381)=3.32, p<.01

Wilks' lambda =.93,

F(11,358)=2.37, p<.01

Note. Means with different superscripts are significantly different from each other, according to Duncan multiple range post hoc tests. Means are reported for Model 2 only. Means for Model 3 were slightly different in some cases due to differences in sample sizes caused by MANCOVA procedure of eliminating observations with missing data.

^a With perceived part- or full-time status, say over schedule, and the interaction term between perceived status and say over schedule in the model

^b With perceived part- or full-time status, say or control over schedule, preference for hours spent at work, reason for working, children living at home and the interaction term between perceived status and say over schedule in the model

* p<.05
** p<.01

Table 8, Part B

Group Means, Univariate and Multivariate Effects and Canonical Correlations for Say or ControlOver Schedule

| <u>Dependent variable</u> | <u>Group Means</u> | | <u>Model 2^a</u> | | <u>Model 3^b</u> | |
|---------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|
| | <u>Some/no say</u> | <u>Lot of say</u> | <u>F(1,391)</u> | <u>Can. Corr.</u> | <u>F(1,368)</u> | <u>Can. Corr.</u> |
| Org. commitment | 66.46 ^a | 74.82 ^b | 11.31 ^{**} | .55 | 9.51 ^{**} | .59 |
| Job involvement | 36.14 | 36.40 | 0.00 | -.02 | 0.00 | .03 |
| Interrole conflict | 34.77 | 32.03 | 3.37 | -.34 | 1.62 | -.33 |
| Life satisfaction | 35.47 ^a | 37.63 ^b | 3.76 [*] | .33 | 2.49 | .33 |
| Pro work ethic | 13.63 | 13.32 | 0.21 | -.10 | 0.02 | -.05 |
| Time boundaries | 7.51 | 7.38 | 1.83 | -.21 | 0.99 | -.17 |
| JDI coworkers | 42.37 ^a | 46.39 ^b | 13.36 ^{**} | .61 | 13.36 ^{**} | .65 |
| JDI supervision | 40.34 ^a | 44.52 ^b | 6.60 ^{**} | .44 | 4.59 [*] | .42 |
| JDI work itself | 34.15 ^a | 38.45 ^b | 9.30 ^{**} | .53 | 9.72 ^{**} | .61 |
| JDI promotion | 8.52 ^a | 11.95 ^b | 10.38 ^{**} | .56 | 9.57 ^{**} | .60 |
| JDI pay | 11.03 ^a | 14.07 ^b | 18.29 ^{**} | .73 | 14.08 ^{**} | .71 |

Number of subjects: 293

104

Multivariate effects:

Wilks' lambda =.91,
F(11,381)=3.34, p<.01Wilks' lambda =.92,
F(11,358)=2.80, p<.01

Note: Means with different superscripts are significantly different from each other according to Duncan multiple-range post hoc tests. Means are reported for Model 2 only. Means for Model 3 were slightly different in some cases due to differences in sample sizes caused by MANCOVA procedure of eliminating observations with missing data.

^a With perceived part- or full-time status, say over schedule, and the interaction term between perceived status and say over schedule in the model

^b With perceived part- or full-time status, say or control over schedule, preference for hours spent at work, reason for working, children living at home and the interaction term between perceived status and say over schedule in the model

* p<.05
** p<.01

Table 8, Part C

Group Means, Univariate and Multivariate Effects and Canonical Correlations for the Interaction Between Perceived Full- or Part-time Status andControl Over Schedule

| Dependent variable | Group Means | | | | Model 2 ^a | | Model 3 ^b | |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|----------------------|------------------|
| | Part-time, No/some say | Part-time Lot of say | Full-time No/some say | Full-time Lot of say | F(1,391) | Canon. Corr. | F(1,368) | Canon. Corr. |
| Org. commitment | 5.02 | 66.69 | 66.81 | 78.11 | 6.66*** | -.57 | 3.90** | -.51 |
| Job involvement | 33.41 | 31.40 | 36.78 | 38.43 | 3.48* | -.42 | 1.92 | -.36 |
| Interrole conflict | 32.39 | 32.57 | 35.33 | 31.81 | 4.23** | .43 | 1.97 | .37 |
| Life satisfaction | 37.86 | 38.06 | 34.91 | 37.45 | 2.65 | -.34 | 1.35 | -.29 |
| Pro work ethic | 13.24 | 13.30 | 13.72 | 13.32 | 0.43 | -.13 | 1.49* | -.27 |
| Time boundaries | 7.86 | 7.10 | 7.44 | 7.50 | 3.09 | -.38 | 3.50* | -.42 |
| JDI coworkers | 42.75 | 48.37 | 42.28 | 45.59 | 0.90 | -.19 | 1.80 | .27 |
| JDI supervision | 41.76 | 44.70 | 40.00 | 44.45 | 0.25 | -.11 | 0.00 | -.03 |
| JDI work itself | 34.95 | 37.97 | 33.96 | 38.64 | 0.55 | -.16 | 0.14 | -.13 |
| JDI promotion | 8.16 | 10.37 | 8.61 | 12.59 | 1.11 | -.23 | 0.24 | -.15 |
| JDI pay | 10.91 | 15.13 | 11.06 | 13.64 | 0.65 | .16 | 0.40 | .08 |
| Number of subjects: | 56 | 30 | 237 | 74 | | | | |
| Multivariate effects: | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | Wilks' lambda=.95 | | Wilks lambda=.95 |
| | | | | | | F(11,381)=1.97, | | F(11,358)=1.68, |
| | | | | | | p<.05 | | p<.08 |

Note. Means with different superscripts are significantly different from each other according to Duncan multiple-range post hoc tests. Means are reported for Model 2 only. Means for Model 3 were slightly different in some cases due to differences in sample sizes caused by MANCOVA procedure of eliminating observations with missing data.

^a With perceived part- or full-time status, say over schedule, and the interaction term between perceived status and say over schedule in the model

^b With perceived part- or full-time status, say or control over schedule, preference for hours spent at work, reason for working, children living

* at home and the interaction term between perceived status and say over schedule in the model

* p<.06 p<.05 p<.01

interaction between them. Model 3 also included these terms, and was expanded to include preference for hours, reason for working and the presence of children in the home in the model, in order to examine perceived status and say over schedule after these other effects had been accounted for. In both models, the variable of say over work schedule was collapsed: "no say" and "some say" were analyzed as one group, and "lot of say" as the other group, in order to have adequate cell sizes to conduct the analyses.

In Part A of Table 8, it can be seen that there was a significant multivariate effect for self-reported part- or full-time status in both models. There were significant univariate effects in Model 2 which involved organizational commitment, job involvement, and life satisfaction. Those who perceived themselves as full-time workers were higher in organizational commitment and job involvement, but lower in life satisfaction than those who perceived themselves as part-timers. In Model 3, only organizational commitment and job involvement reached univariate significance. In Model 2, perceived status accounted for 9% of the variance; in Model 3, perceived status accounted for 7% of the variance.

Part B of Table 8 reports the effects of say over the work schedule. There was a significant multivariate effect for say in both models, and significant univariate effects in Model 2 involving organizational commitment, life satisfaction, and all five JDI scales. Those who reported a

lot of say over their schedule were higher in organizational commitment, life satisfaction, and all facets of job satisfaction than those who reported no or some say over their schedule. In Model 3, we find the same pattern except that life satisfaction again did not reach univariate significance. In Model 2, say over schedule accounted for 9% of the variance, and in Model 3, 8% of the variance.

Part C of Table 8 reports the effects of the interaction between perceived part- or full-time status and say over schedule. There was a significant multivariate effect for the interaction in Model 2, but the multivariate effect in Model 3 was marginal, and did not reach significance. In Model 2, there were significant univariate effects involving organizational commitment, job involvement, and interrole conflict. These effects are depicted graphically in Figures 5, 6 and 7.

In Figure 5, it is clear that say over schedule had the greatest impact on organizational commitment among those who reported working full-time. Full-timers who had a lot of say were higher in organizational commitment than all other groups.

In Figure 6, we see a cross-over interaction showing that part-timers with a lot of say were lower in job involvement than any other group, and full-timers with a lot of say were higher in job involvement than any other group.

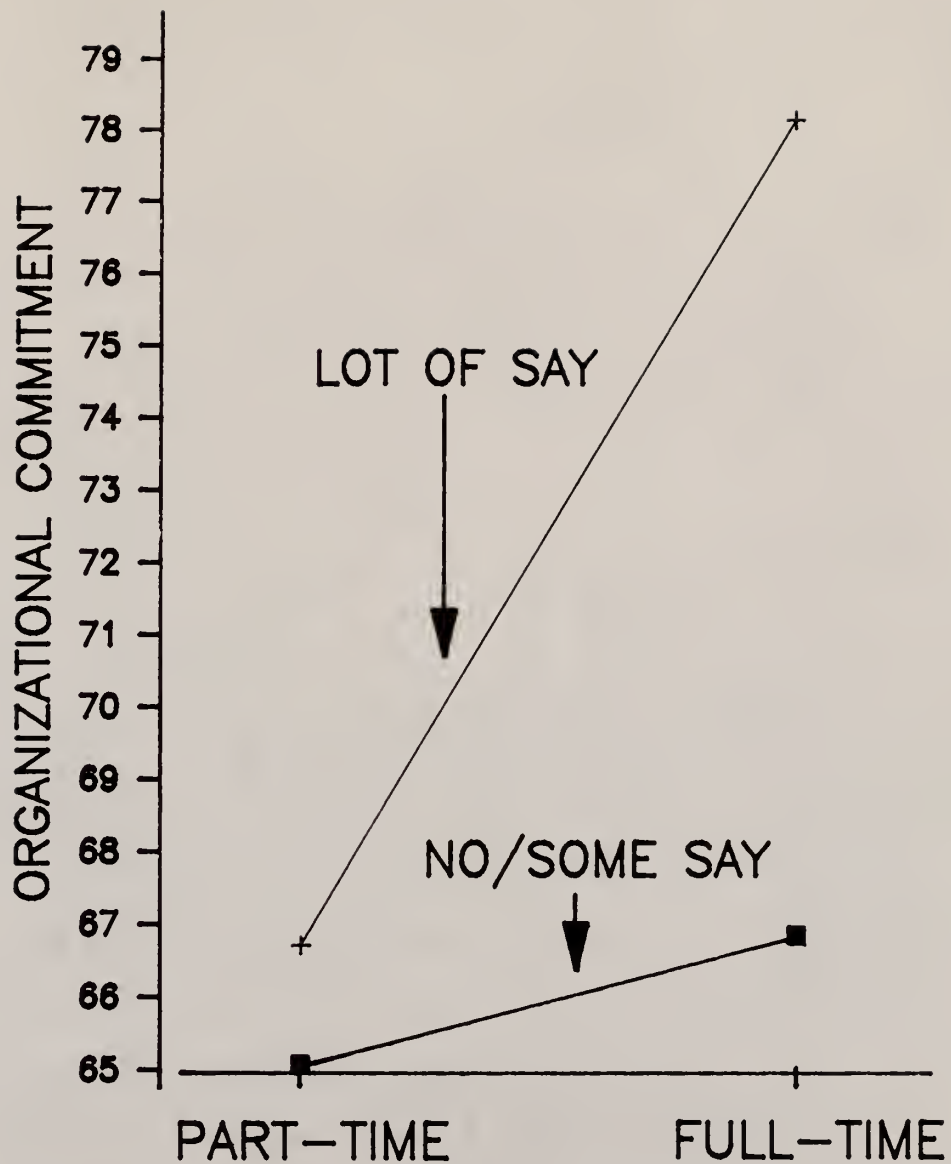


Figure 5. Organizational commitment
 Self-reported part- or full-time status
 and say over schedule

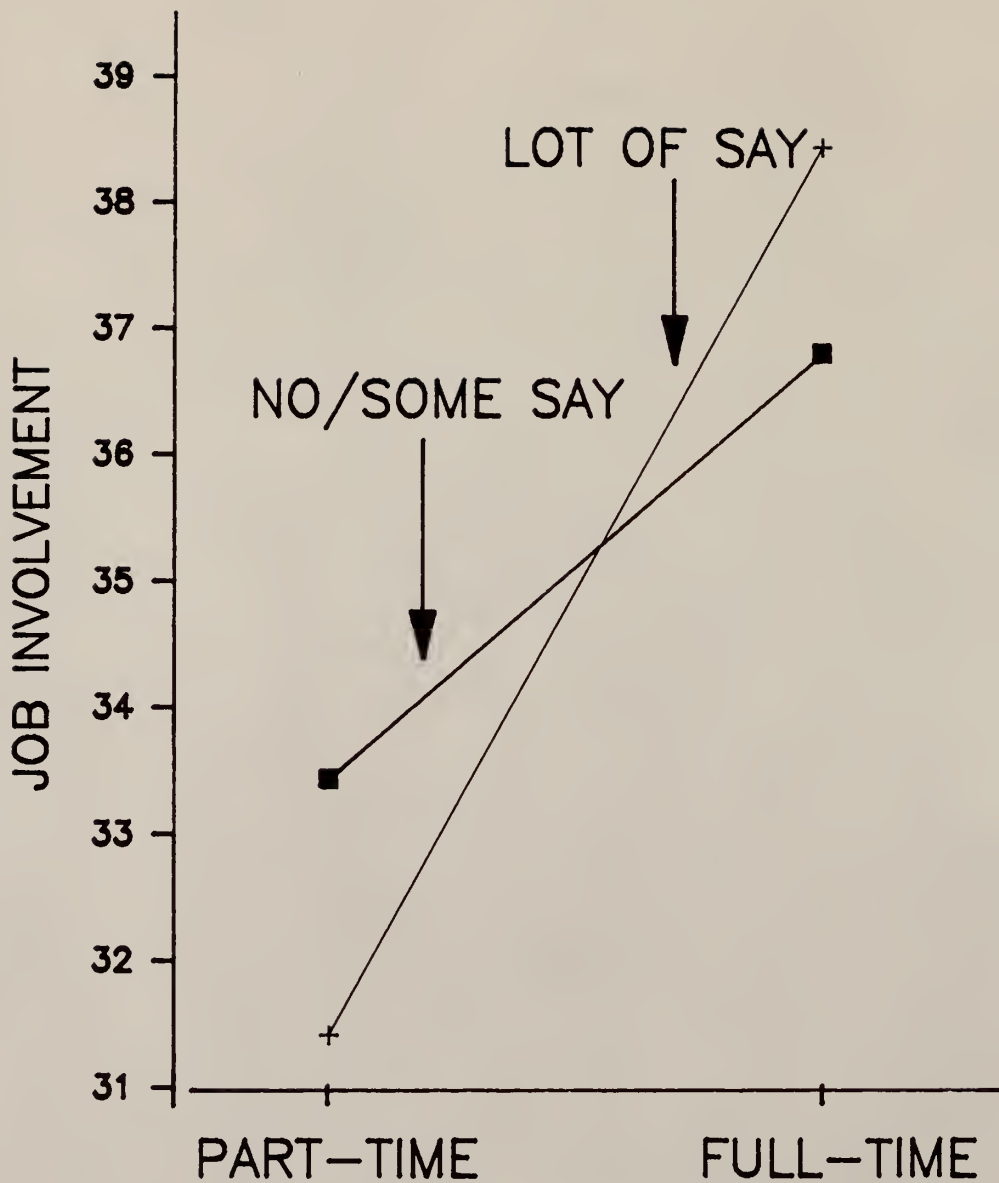


Figure 6. Job involvement –
 Self-reported part- or full-time status
 and say over schedule

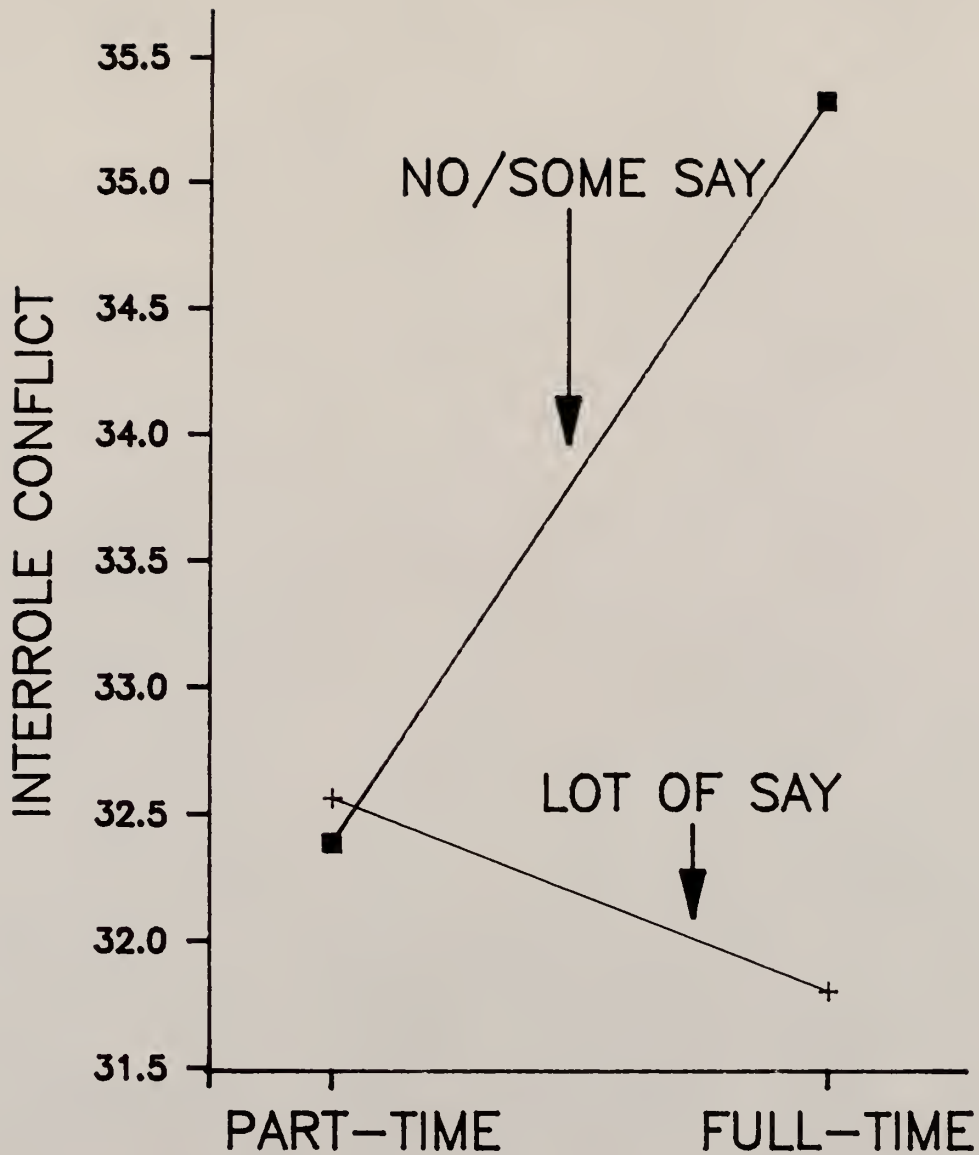


Figure 7. Interrole conflict –
Self-reported part- or full-time status
and say over schedule

In Figure 7, a pattern similar to Figure 5 can be seen. Say over schedule had a greater effect on interrole conflict among those who reported working full-time. Full-timers who reported no or some say scored higher in interrole conflict than any other group, and full-timers who reported a lot of say were lower in interrole conflict than any other group. Of the three effects depicted in Figures 5 through 7, only the effect involving organizational commitment reached significance in Model 3.

Figure 8 depicts an effect which reached marginal significance in Model 3. Say over schedule had a greater impact on the scores on the Time Boundaries Scale among part-timers than among full-timers. Part-timers with no or some say scored higher on time boundaries than any other group, and part-timers with a lot of say scored lower on time boundaries than any other group. The interaction between perceived part- or full-time status and say over schedule accounted for 5% of the variance in the linear combination of dependent variables in both Model 2 and Model 3.

The independent variables entered in Model 2 accounted for a total of 23% of the variance. These same variables in Model 3 accounted for 20% of the variance; the total variance accounted for all variables combined in Model 3 was 51% (20% accounted for by the two variables from Model 2, 10% accounted for by reason for working, 15% accounted for

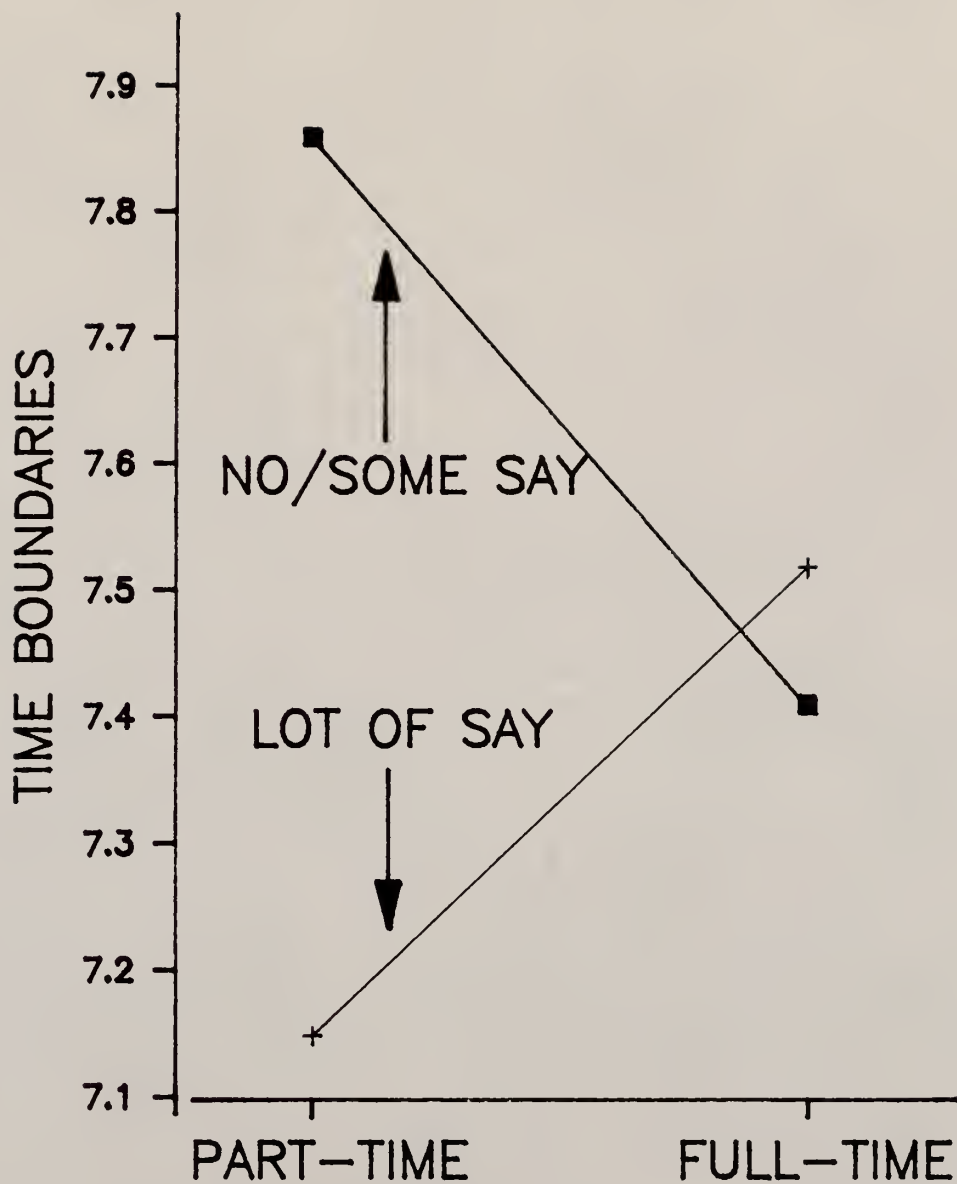


Figure 8. Time boundaries –
 Self-reported part- or full-time status
 and say over schedule

by preference for hours, and 6% accounted for by children in the home).

Discussion

This study went beyond past research on part-time work in several ways. It focused on professional workers rather than workers in lower-level jobs; it grappled with the problem of defining just what constitutes part-time work, a problem that was recognized by Knight, Allen, Downey, (1989); it included the measurement of several job attitudes (organizational commitment, job involvement, work ethic beliefs, and job satisfaction) whereas past research has focused primarily on job satisfaction; it also included three measures (interrole conflict, time boundaries, life satisfaction) that are indicators of the ways that work and life outside of work relate to one another; and finally, it examined part-time work within the larger framework of theory and research on work and nonwork.

Past research on part-time work has not produced a clear consensus concerning attitudinal or behavioral differences between part- and full-time workers (Knight & Downey, 1989; Ronen, 1984; Rotchford & Roberts, 1982); however, inconsistencies in the research findings have done little to dispel the image of part-timers as less serious about and less committed to their work, and as holding less favorable job attitudes. Indeed, much of the past work (Logan et. al., 1973) as well as recent work (Knight &

Downey, 1989) supports just such a perception of part-timers, but the findings of this study raise doubts about generalizing from lower-level workers to professional-level employees. There were some intriguing differences which did emerge between part- and full-timers in this study, but these differences suggest that the situation is more complex, at least among professional-level employees, than past research with lower-level workers has suggested.

Some notes of caution should temper the interpretation of the results of the study. Multivariate analysis of covariance, the analytic approach that was employed, is rooted in experimental psychology, and the terminology of experimental psychology (independent variable, dependent variable, etc.) was also adopted; however, this is not intended to imply that cause and effect can be determined from these results. Using a multivariate approach allows us to examine not only the effects of each variable individually, but also their combined effects, and many interesting relationships have thus been revealed by this study. Therefore, we cannot say with certainty whether, for instance, high levels of organizational commitment are a result of giving employees a lot of control over their schedule, or alternatively, whether employees who tend to have high levels of organizational commitment also tend to perceive and report that they have a lot of control over their schedule. It is also possible that some unrecognized

and unmeasured factor influences both organizational commitment and perceived control over work schedule, and this caused them to covary. This study has revealed associations, but cannot determine causal linkages.

It is also important to recognize that statistical significance is not synonymous with meaningfulness. The sample in this study was relatively large, which produced the power to reveal small effects. From an exploratory study such as this, small effects can lead us in the right direction in future research, and can also be meaningful in their own right. To the extent that small attitudinal differences may be related to differences in the effective functioning of people and organizations, these small differences may indeed be very meaningful.

A final caution is one that applies to most survey research, regarding the impossibility of determining whether there are important differences between respondents and nonrespondents to the survey. A surprisingly low number of respondents (n=3) reported that they planned to leave the workforce entirely at some future date. This may be evidence that nurses who are more committed to their work, and perhaps to nursing as a profession, tended to respond to the survey. Further evidence for this contention is found in the very low response rate among licensed practical nurses, who would not be expected to have as strong a professional identification as registered nurses. There

were no other reasons to believe that respondents differed from nonrespondents, and the return rate was deemed acceptable, given the circumstances of the distribution of the survey.

Mixed support for the hypotheses was found. The hypotheses that were posed all concerned potential differences between full- and part-time workers. (No hypotheses were put forward regarding the other independent variables in this exploratory study.) The hypothesis regarding work ethic beliefs was that part- and full-timers would not differ in their work ethic beliefs, and this hypothesis was confirmed; however, the failure of the work ethic scale to produce any results associated with it seems likely to be a function of the low reliability of the scale. Because of the reliability problem associated with the work ethic scale, it does not seem justified to use these results as the basis for the conclusion that part- and full-timers do not differ along this dimension. It remains a possibility that work means different things to full- and part-timers, and that these differences were not measured in this study.

The hypothesis that part-timers would be lower in organizational commitment than full-timers received partial support, holding true only for a particular subset of part-timers -- those working more than 25 hours per week. The hypothesis was disconfirmed for part-timers who worked fewer

than 25 hours per week, who did not differ in their levels of organizational commitment from full-timers. This finding is discussed in detail below.

The remaining hypotheses were not supported. It was hypothesized that, due to the professional nature of the sample, part- and full-timers would not differ in their levels of job involvement. Contrary to this hypothesis, it was found that full-timers had higher levels of job involvement than did both groups of part-timers. It was also hypothesized that differences between part- and full-timers would be found on measures of job satisfaction, interrole conflict, life satisfaction, and time boundaries between work and nonwork. These hypothesized differences were not found. Thus, the number of hours spent at work, the variable that was of primary interest in this study, produced some unexpected and interesting findings.

The interpretation of the results which follows is organized around a frame of reference approach to part-time work. This approach has been utilized by a number of researchers to explain observed differences between part- and full-timers (Logan et al., 1973; Miller & Terborg, 1979; Roberts, Glick, & Rotchford, 1982), but has not always been used in the same way. Logan and his colleagues and Roberts and her colleagues have postulated that part- and full-timers have different frames of references from which to approach their work. They contend that part-timers have

lower expectations, and, in comparison with full-timers, part-timers are satisfied with less. Miller and Terborg took the opposite approach, contending that part- and full-time workers have a common frame of reference, and hence, negative treatment of part-timers leads to negative attitudes on their part. The discussion that follows has utilized the former hypothesis -- that part- and full-timers have different frames of reference, as this seemed to best fit the picture which emerged.

Past research on number of hours spent at work has generally divided subjects into only two groups -- part-time and full-time. Job attitudes have then been measured for the two groups, and the general conclusion has emerged that part-timers do differ from full-timers, although no accord has been reached regarding just how they differ (Knight & Downey, 1989; Logan et. al., 1973; Miller & Terborg, 1979). This study differed from previous research in its division of respondents into three groups (rather than two) based on the actual number of hours worked per week.

As mentioned above, the group consisting of full-timers (those who worked more than 35 hours per week) did score higher on job involvement than either of the part-time groups, but no other significant differences were found between the group that was clearly full-time (more than 35 hours per week) and the group that was clearly part-time (fewer than 25 hours per week). As will be discussed later,

the conceptualization and measurement of the construct of job involvement, especially among women, is problematic, so the implications of the job involvement difference are not clear.

There was, however, an unexpected effect disclosed by analyzing the middle group in number of hours worked. As alluded to above, it was hypothesized that part-time workers would be lower in organizational commitment than would be full-time workers. This hypothesis received only partial confirmation, depending on what is meant by "part-time work." Respondents who worked 25 to 35 hours per week were lower in organizational commitment than either full-timers (more than 35 hours per week) or part-timers (fewer than 25 hours per week).

The construct of organizational commitment has been extensively developed. The type of organizational commitment measured in this study (affective commitment) has been shown to be related to job performance (Meyer et. al., 1989), so the lowered organizational commitment and signs of stress shown by the group who worked 25 to 35 hours per week should be of concern to organizations.

The three groups did not differ in levels of job satisfaction, thus disconfirming one hypothesis of this study, and also disconfirming past research which has found such differences (Hall & Gordon, 1973; Miller & Terborg, 1979). Some research has suggested that part-timers respond

more to contextual factors, such as coworkers, and less to the intrinsic aspects of the job (Logan et al., 1973). This was not directly supported by the results of this study; however, as seen below, several aspects of job satisfaction did produce moderate to low canonical correlations, and there were some differences, to be discussed later, between part- and full-timers in the manner in which the facets of job satisfaction related to life satisfaction. These two findings do lend some support to the idea that the intrinsic aspects of the work itself are more important to full-timers than to part-timers.

An examination of the canonical correlations shows that organizational commitment and job involvement were the largest explanatory factors in separating the groups according to number of hours worked. Time boundaries, satisfaction with coworkers, opportunities for promotion, and pay also produced moderate to low canonical correlations, but the univariate F-tests were not significant. The full-time group (more than 35 hours per week) and the part-time group (fewer than 25 hours per week) appeared to have adopted frames of reference which differed, but which both included an acceptance of the conditions under which they worked, and this acceptance was reflected in their involvement, commitment, and satisfaction with coworkers, pay, and promotion, as well as the time boundary between work and nonwork. The middle group appears to have

had a more ambivalent view which may be the result of an uncertain and vacillating frame of reference.

The middle group was nearly evenly divided between those who considered themselves part-timers and those who considered themselves full-timers, an indication of the ambivalence and uncertain status associated with this group. In previous research, these people have been incorporated into the part-time group, and may be responsible for some of the differences found between part- and full-timers.

Thus, the important finding concerning the number of hours worked seems to involve the middle group of workers. There appear to be stresses associated with being in this difficult-to-classify situation. There are several possible dynamics at work. Many individuals in this group perceived themselves as part-timers, and yet have been forced, either by organizational structure, the demands of the work, and/or personal considerations, to work more hours than they preferred to work. It seems likely that these people are juggling multiple commitments (Knight and Downey, 1989), and when they are required to work more than they wish, they lose what they most desire -- more time away from work. In addition, these part-timers may feel underrewarded by the organization for their "extra effort" on the organization's behalf.

Conversely, those in the middle group that perceived themselves as full-timers may actually be perceived by the

organization as part-timers, and may be treated accordingly. Many organizations do not value or treat their part-time employees as well as their full-time employees (Simpson, 1986), and incongruities between worker and organizational perceptions regarding the employee's status could lead to perceptions of mistreatment on the employee's part. Roberts and her colleagues posed that knowledge of one's job status (part- or full-time) is a central feature of the frame of reference which is adopted. Employees who are clearly part-time incorporate this knowledge into their frame of reference, and may accept their second-class citizenship as a necessary condition of their part-time employment. Whatever the underlying dynamic, the people in the middle group, however they perceive themselves, are less than pleased with the organizations for which they work, and this fact should be of concern to those organizations.

The failure to find the expected association between number of hours worked and levels of life satisfaction and interrole conflict raises doubts about the assertion that part-time work is the magic answer to enhanced work/nonwork balance. The results of this study suggest that factors such as satisfaction with the number of hours spent at work, control over work schedule, and the motivation which underlies the decision to work are more closely related to optimal work/nonwork balance than are actual hours spent at work. We turn now to the first of these factors --

satisfaction with number of hours worked -- and follow that with discussions of control over schedule, and of motivation for work.

Actual number of hours worked was shown to have important effects for one group of workers, but it is also necessary to consider how people feel about the number of hours they are working. This was alluded to by Knight and Downey (1989) in the distinction they drew between voluntary and involuntary part-time workers. In this sample, respondents who preferred to work more hours than they were currently working (involuntary part-timers) were too few in number to analyze, and were dropped from all analyses. There is currently no shortage of work in the nursing profession, so most nurses can work as much as they like. The focus of this section is instead a twist on the distinction drawn by Knight and Downey -- the distinction here involves voluntary and involuntary full-timers.

Satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) with the number of hours worked, as evidenced by a preference for working the same number of hours as currently working (or fewer hours than currently working) proved to be an important explanatory variable. Satisfied respondents were higher than dissatisfied respondents in organizational commitment, life satisfaction, and satisfaction with supervision, pay, opportunities for promotion, and the work itself. Satisfied respondents were also lower in interrole conflict than

dissatisfied respondents. An analysis of the demographics of the two groups found that they differed in one main respect -- those who were dissatisfied reported working longer hours (mean=40.11 hours per week) than those who were satisfied (mean=34.59 hours per week).

Interrole conflict produced the greatest canonical loading (.90) on the canonical variate associated with satisfaction with hours spent at work. There were also significant correlations associated with all the other univariate effects, as well as significant correlations associated with job involvement and time boundaries. Examination of the correlations suggests that there is a very broad underlying construct that revolves around conflict and the interference of work and nonwork commitments. It appears that people were dissatisfied with their work hours for two reasons. First, they were actually working longer hours than satisfied workers. Second, it is apparent that they had other commitments in their lives that were difficult to balance with working long hours. As mentioned above, the idea of multiple, sometimes conflicting commitments in these workers' lives was posed by Knight and Downey (1989) and was supported by these findings. These findings also support the contention that involuntary participation in a work schedule, whether it be part-time, as Knight and Downey suggested, or full-time, as suggested here, is associated with negative job attitudes.

It is possible that there were more involuntary full-timers in this largely female sample than would be found in a sample of male workers, and that the issue of involuntary full-time employment is gender-related. Men and women may have very different frames of reference concerning this aspect of work. Men do not generally question the necessity of working full-time, although there is evidence that this is changing (Harriman, 1982; McCarthy, 1987). It is clear that satisfaction with the number of hours spent at work is a very important aspect of a person's frame of reference, and is an aspect that could be addressed by organizational policy.

In addition to the actual number of hours worked and satisfaction with those hours, the degree of control that nurses reported they had over the scheduling of those hours also proved to be a powerful explanatory factor, a finding which has been suggested by several areas of past research (Greenberger et. al., 1989; Knight & Downey, 1989; Langer, 1983). The importance of perceived control has been investigated in such diverse settings as nursing homes (Langer, 1983) and workplaces (Golembiewski & Proehl, 1978; Greenberger et. al., 1989). The absence of perceived control has been linked with many devastating outcomes such as depression, a sense of helplessness, and even premature death (Seligman, 1975). "Indeed, perceiving control apparently is crucial not only to one's psychological well-

being but to one's physical health" (Langer, 1983. p. 13). Greenberger and his colleagues (1989), in recently conducted field research in two different organizational settings, found that personal control was related to job satisfaction, and to job performance. One of the samples studied consisted of nursing services employees at a large hospital. As noted by Greenberger et al.(1989), "nursing personnel...are professional, career oriented, and in a field which has seen control becoming increasingly salient" (p. 36).

Knowledge of the potentially profound benefits of perceived (or actual) control has led some organizations to offer employees the opportunity to choose their own hours of full-time work, an innovation generally known as flextime. Although the research literature on flextime is relatively small and in a primitive state (Golembiewski & Proehl, 1978), the available evidence suggests that flextime may have very positive effects. The nurses in this study who reported that they had a lot of control over their schedules can be viewed as participating in a form of flextime (although, to my knowledge, their work scheduling did not go by that formal designation), and the effects were very positive.

An examination of the canonical correlations shows that all of the significant univariate effects were associated with a single underlying dimension. Control over work

schedule was associated with a general satisfaction with work and with life which is reminiscent of the generalization theory of work and nonwork (Kabanoff, 1980; Kornhauser, 1965). Perceptions of control are a central aspect of the frame of reference with which one approaches work (and life).

In addition to its main effects, control over schedule also appeared to be involved in several interactions with number of hours worked, but analysis was complicated by the relatively small number of respondents in the 25 to 35 hours per week group, and by the small number of respondents who reported that they had no say at all over their schedule. The following findings must be interpreted with caution because they are based on analyses with collapsed cells.

The interactions that emerged from the collapsed analyses suggest that control over the work schedule had a much greater impact on organizational commitment and interrole conflict for full-timers than for part-timers. Full-timers with a lot of control were very high on organizational commitment, and low on interrole conflict; full-timers with no or some control over their schedules were very high on interrole conflict, and low in organizational commitment. These differences were not as strong among part-timers. There are several potential explanations for this effect. Perhaps part-time work is itself a form of control over the work schedule, and more

control is simply redundant; however, this interpretation is not consistent with the findings of Knight and Downey (1989), who found that control was particularly salient for part-timers who were juggling multiple commitments in their lives. An alternative explanation for this effect involves the frame of reference concept. Part-timers may have a frame of reference which includes an expectation of control over their schedule, so they feel no particular gratitude to the organization when the control is present. When the control is not as high as expected or desired, part-timers are still able to adapt to the multiple and competing commitments in their lives because of the reduced number of work hours. It seems likely that the frame of reference of full-timers would include a lower expectation of being able to control one's work schedule, and hence, when high levels of control are present, gratitude to the organization is expressed in the form of increased organizational commitment. These results suggest that part-timers are not the only ones who have multiple commitments in their lives, and that the ability to control the schedule under which one works can greatly allay conflicts between work and nonwork for full-timers as well.

Interestingly, in the abbreviated model (Model 2), it appears that part-timers were significantly more satisfied with their lives than full-timers, but this effect did not reach significance in either of the full models. An

examination of the canonical correlations associated with the interaction suggests, however, that life satisfaction did play a role, as did interrole conflict. When full-timers had a lot of control over their schedules, the decrease in life satisfaction and increase in role conflict that appeared to be associated with full-time work were alleviated. These nurses probably had more control over their schedules than many other professional-level workers, and this has probably influenced the findings in a unique way.

It was also found that a lot of control over work schedule was associated with decreased job involvement in part-timers, but with increased job involvement in full-timers; however, this effect was only marginally significant. Given the effect size and the problems associated with the measurement of job involvement discussed below, this finding must be viewed with caution.

Another marginally significant finding suggested that part-timers displayed more tightly drawn time boundaries between work and nonwork than full-timers, except among part-timers who enjoyed a lot of control over their schedule, who had more permeable time boundaries than any other group. It seems likely that part-timers who have a great deal of control over their schedules simply find it unnecessary to draw firm boundaries between work and life outside of work.

It should be noted that there is no way to determine from this study the congruence between the amount of say that respondents perceived and reported, and the amount of say over their schedules that they actually had. It is clear that perceived and/or actual control over work schedules has very positive personal and organizational consequences.

Differing motivations for work also produced group differences. The majority of respondents reported that they were motivated to work because they needed money, but there was a small group of people who reported that they were working for enjoyment. As might be expected, people who reported working for enjoyment were higher in organizational commitment, and more satisfied with the work itself. They were also more satisfied with their pay than people who were working because they needed the money, but were not significantly more satisfied than those who reported working for extra money.

Examination of the canonical correlations reveals that, in addition to the important contributions of organizational commitment and satisfaction with work itself, contributions are made by job involvement, interrole conflict, life satisfaction and satisfaction with other facets of the job. The construct that emerged again seems to be that of generalized work and life satisfaction, the same construct that was found to underlie the division of groups based on

control over schedule, and which, as with control over schedule, again seems to be reflected in strong organizational commitment. People who work, whether part- or full-time, because they enjoy working are a very select group of employees in terms of their attitudes regarding their work and their lives. This conclusion is consistent with findings by Knight and Downey (1989). It seem likely that these employees are valuable additions to any organization. It is interesting to note that, in this study, nearly one-third of those who reported that they worked for enjoyment were classified as part-timers, who made up only 21% of the total sample. The expansion of part-time opportunities may bring many more such workers into the workforce.

The analyses regarding the effects of the presence or absence of children in the home disconfirmed my original hypothesis, and provided two surprising findings. First, only a main effect for job involvement differentiated the children versus no children groups, and this effect may reflect more on our conceptualization and measure of job involvement than on any actual group differences. The following discussion of this effect includes an extensive analysis of the problems surrounding the construct of job involvement. Second, an interaction (between the presence of children and satisfaction with number of hours spent at work) uncovered a distinct and previously unrecognized group

of employees who hold a particular set of attitudes towards their work, and this interaction and the group which it involved is discussed following the digression on job involvement.

It was hypothesized that the presence of children would be an important factor in the balance which was achieved between work and nonwork. Many have suggested that living in a family situation, particularly if there are children in the home, constitutes a major source of interrole, work/nonwork conflict (Piotrkowski, 1979). Some empirical support for this contention has been found (Staines & Pleck, 1983), and this assumption pervaded the scale which was used to measure interrole conflict. The scale was comprised primarily of items referring to conflict between work and family responsibilities -- only two of the twelve items referred to conflict with "personal interests" or "leisure activities." Even with the scale apparently stacked in favor of the hypothesis that family responsibilities exacerbate interrole conflict, the hypothesis was not verified. There were no significant differences in interrole conflict found between those who had children living in the home and those who did not. It is possible that this is due to the availability of part-time work in the nursing profession, allowing people who perceive conflict to reduce it by working fewer hours.

As mentioned above, the only significant main effect found for the presence of children in the home was that those with children scored lower on the job involvement scale than those who had no children. (The alternative full model also produced this effect, along with a significant main effect for satisfaction with pay -- those with children were less satisfied with their pay.)

An examination of the canonical correlations suggests that job involvement was indeed the largest explanatory factor in the separation of the sample into the children/no children groups; satisfaction with pay emerged as the second largest correlation. The time boundaries scale, the work ethic scale, and satisfaction with supervision also produced significant canonical correlations. Inspection of means shows that the presence of children was related to a less firm boundary between work and nonwork, a lower work ethic, and less satisfaction with supervision. The underlying construct seems to relate to the necessity, when children are present in the home, of work (and money) despite the lack of job involvement and the lack of satisfaction with certain aspects of work.

The finding that those with children were lower in job involvement was not consistent with results obtained by Saal (1978), who found no relationship between number of dependents and job involvement. There are two possible explanations for this inconsistency. First, it is possible

that the larger sample size in this study has revealed a small effect that was present in the Saal sample but did not reach statistical significance. The small but significant correlation (-.10) in this study between job involvement and children in the home supports this explanation, as does the finding of Graddick and Farr (1983) that men and women employed at professional levels did not differ in their levels of job involvement. A second explanation is that the difference in findings may be due to the fact that Saal's sample was primarily male, and this sample was primarily female in composition. As postulated below, our conceptualization and measurement of job involvement is based on a traditional, male approach to work, and may be inappropriate for female samples. This alternative explanation will now be expanded.

As will be shown, the construct of job involvement, as it is commonly conceived and measured, has flaws which are made evident by consideration of job involvement among women. To set the stage for presentation of this argument, a brief history of the way in which researchers have viewed job involvement versus family involvement is in order.

Researchers in the area of job involvement have raised the question of whether high family involvement necessarily reduces job involvement. Rabinowitz and Hall (1977, p. 273) presented two possibilities: "Perhaps a married person with family responsibilities should be less involved in his (sic)

job than an individual who is single with no family responsibility. On the other hand, family responsibilities may force the person to become more serious about work."

Hall and Rabinowitz called for more research to establish the relationship between job involvement and marital status. In this study, as in the seminal work on job involvement by Lodahl and Kejner (1965), no relationship between job involvement and marital status was found. The early research and theorizing on job involvement did not, however, pay much attention to the relationship between job involvement and the presence of children in the home, perhaps because the theory and research were conceived and executed by male researchers, and usually employed male subjects.

The results of this study would seem to support the hypothesis that the increased family involvement which is necessitated by the presence of children in the home does reduce job involvement -- at least among women. But the alternative explanation involves our conceptualization and measurement of the construct of job involvement. It may be that the current approach is inappropriate for women with children, and does not tell us very much about the extent to which women are psychologically identified with their work. (It may not even be appropriate for the measurement of job involvement among women without children, to the extent that they fail to conform to the male model of job involvement.)

An examination of the type of questions typically used to measure job involvement lends support to the second conclusion. Most women who have children accord those children a special importance in their lives that is not matched by any other possession or activity. They are unlikely to say that work is the most important thing in their lives, even if work is indeed very important to them. The three questions that were added to the job involvement scale for this research (Items 22-24, Section I) were an attempt to deal with this shortcoming in the Lodahl and Kejner items, but are only a small step in the right direction. We must attempt to devise items that measure psychological identification with roles and activities without requiring a hierarchical ranking of what is important in life.

The way in which job involvement has been conceptualized is particularly germane to issues of part-time work because we often informally assess a person's level of involvement in an activity by the amount of time spent at that activity. To some extent, this linking of time with involvement is justified. Time (in the ordinary sense) is surely finite. To the extent that involvements require time, our capacity for them is indeed limited; however, linking time with the construct of involvement leads to a view of our capacity for involvement as also finite. From this point of view, increased involvement in

one area necessarily lowers commitment or involvement in others areas. If, on the other hand, we conceptualize the capacity for involvement as a relatively unlimited psychological capacity, we can imagine a project, activity, or even a career in which an individual engages only part-time, but which is, during that time, the focus of high involvement and commitment. This view is supported by research findings (Gannon & Hendrickson, 1973) which suggest that people "are simultaneously capable of showing high interest and concern both for the job and the family" (p. 340).

Kanungo (1982, p. 341) recognized that research "in the area of job involvement is fraught with problems of conceptual ambiguities and measurement inadequacies." Kanungo's work attempted to address the problems, but the questionnaire items suffer from the same shortcomings as those of Lodahl and Kejner. In addition to questionnaire items, Kanungo also devised a semantic differential scale for the measurement of job involvement which does seem to hold promise for measuring psychological identification without requiring a rank ordering of areas of involvement, but recommended that it be used only with highly educated samples due to its abstractness. Kanungo also proposed a graphic method of measuring job involvement that may prove to be useful, but has not been accepted into use. The one thing that is clear is that the construct of job involvement

(and perhaps involvement in general) remains as Kanungo saw it -- fraught with conceptual and measurement difficulties. These difficulties are particularly evident when job involvement is measured in women. Perhaps when these issues are successfully addressed, the expected but elusive link between job involvement and performance will emerge. Next, we turn to a discussion of the interaction between presence of children in the home and satisfaction with number of hours worked.

Instead of the expected finding that the presence of children would be related to difficulties in balancing work and nonwork spheres of life, an unexpected set of interactions was found which involved those respondents who did not have children in the home. When those without children were satisfied with the number of hours they were working, they scored higher than all other groups on organizational commitment and satisfaction with supervision, and lower on interrole conflict and time boundaries. But when those with no children preferred to work fewer hours than they were working, they scored lower on organizational commitment and satisfaction with supervision, and higher on interrole conflict and time boundaries than all other groups (recall that a high time boundary score means that the boundaries between work and nonwork are firmly drawn).

An examination of the canonical correlations suggests that, in addition to the effects just discussed,

satisfaction with work itself and with opportunities for promotion also played a role -- those with no children who preferred fewer hours also scored lower than all other groups on these scales. This group, rather than those with children, evidenced the greatest signs of conflict between work and nonwork. This finding lends support to the premise advanced by Knight and Downey (1989) that many people who work part-time do so because of multiple commitments in their lives. It appears that this group of respondents may have compelling interests and commitments in the nonwork spheres of their lives, perhaps the sort of interests and commitments that are not feasible to pursue when there are children in the home. Again, the negative personal and organizational consequences of working more than the desired number of hours can be seen.

The relationships between job satisfaction and life satisfaction in this study were, overall, moderate and positive, a finding which is consistent with the generalization hypothesis of work/nonwork relationships, and consistent with much previous research. Recent research (Shaffer, 1987; Tait et al., 1989) has suggested that the often-found positive relationship between work and nonwork may be even stronger than previously thought, and that it has been obscured in past research by ignoring individual differences.

A perusal of this past research reveals that one factor that has been ignored is the amount of time spent at work. Thus, a moderated regression analysis, regressing the five facets of job satisfaction onto life satisfaction, was performed to explore the possibility that the relationship between job and life satisfaction was moderated by the number of hours spent at work. Adding the moderators (each of the JDI scales multiplied by the number of hours worked) to the regression equation increased R^2 from .19 to .22, a gain of .03. Tiegs, Tetrick, and Fried (1989) proposed that a set of predictors be judged "as having substantive importance if its entry into the regression equation increased R^2 by more than 0.01" (p. 5). Satisfaction with the work itself, number of hours worked, and the moderator term composed of satisfaction with work itself and number of hours worked were the only significant predictors of life satisfaction. The correlation between satisfaction with present work and life satisfaction was .02 for part-timers (nonsignificant), and .39 ($p < .001$) for full-timers. There were moderate, positive, and significant correlations between the other facets of job satisfaction and life satisfaction for both part- and full-timers. It appears that the relationship between work and nonwork is different for part-timers than for full-timers, and that this difference involves only satisfaction with the work itself.

Contrary to past research (Miller & Terborg, 1979), there were no significant differences found in this study in mean levels of satisfaction with the work itself between part-timers and full-timers; however, satisfaction with the intrinsic aspects of work -- the work itself -- seems to have more far-reaching effects in the lives of full-timers. As mentioned earlier, past research (Logan, et al., 1973) has found that part-timers seem to respond more to the contextual aspects of the job -- the pay and the people with whom they work -- than do full-timers.

The results of this study support the proposal that part-timers and full-timers approach work with differing frames of reference. These results seem also, as mentioned above, to offer overall support for the generalization hypothesis of work/nonwork relationships, but different aspects of work are involved in the "spillover" of work into the nonwork lives of part- and full-timers.

Research on part-time employment has not kept pace with the expanding interest in part-time work. Nearly half of this predominately female sample reported that they would prefer to work fewer hours than they were currently working, supporting the claim that substantial numbers of professional people are interested in reducing the amount of time spent at work (Harriman, 1982). There is much for future research to accomplish. Some particular issues for research are presented and expanded on below.

One of the most important findings of this study involved the group of people who worked 25 to 35 hours per week, and who displayed signs of stress associated with their work schedule. This was a small group relative to the "over 35 hour" and "under 25 hour" groups. An attempt should be made to replicate this finding with a larger group of subjects, and with other types of workers.

Future research should seek to determine the generalizability of the findings of this research to other professional occupations. There are several aspects of the nursing profession that may have influenced the results of this study, and that may limit the generalizability of these findings to other professional-level workers. First, nursing involves shift work, and provides greater opportunities for part-time work than most other professions -- part-time work seems to be more acceptable in nursing than it is in most other professions. Second, the average pay level in nursing is lower than in many other professions which require comparable levels of training and professional commitment, a fact which was repeatedly and eloquently lamented by respondents in the section of the survey which provided for free-form comments. Third, nursing as a profession does not enjoy the respect that is given to many other professions, a problem that was also lamented in many of the written comments of respondents. Fourth, the vast

majority of people in nursing are women, a fact which is probably related to the lack of adequate pay and respect which are accorded the profession.

Perceived control has become an important focus of research in clinical and health psychology, and in social psychology, but has just begun to be recognized as important in work settings. It is a promising avenue of further research. The following unanswered questions could be addressed: What is the relationship between perceived and actual control? What type of organizational structure would foster the benefits associated with increasing employee control? Is there an optimal amount of control beyond which control is overwhelming or detrimental? Are there individual differences in the tendency to perceive control in a given situation, and do these differences translate to performance differences? The work on the role of perceived/actual control in work settings is just beginning.

The literature on part-time work is replete with attitudinal measures and notably lacking in behavioral measures, with the exception of two studies that measured job tenure (Gannon & Nothorn, 1971; Katerberg, Hom, & Hulin, 1979). For the most part, it is not known whether, or how, attitudinal differences are reflected in actual behavior on the job among part-timers. To redress this situation, future research on part-time work should include measures of job performance whenever possible.

The recently demonstrated link between organizational commitment and job performance (Meyer et. al., 1989) is a particularly intriguing finding, and one that should be of great interest to organizations. An attempt should be made to replicate this link in part-timers, and to work toward establishing other such attitudinal/behavioral links. In the process of achieving this goal, we must clarify our conceptualization and measurement of important job attitudes such as job involvement.

Solid empirical work is lacking on the relationship between part-time employment and productivity. If a positive relationship could be demonstrated, such research would do much to encourage the expansion of part-time opportunities. The focus of the push for part-time opportunities has been one of enhanced personal effectiveness for employees. This is a worthy goal, but we should not lose sight of the importance of productivity and enhanced organizational effectiveness when we design our future research.

Organizations often hire nonprofessional employees to work a clearly set number of hours, but hire professional employees to accomplish certain tasks regardless of the time that the tasks require. It is necessary to address the contradiction that seems to inhere in the terms "part-timer" and "professional" if we wish to increase opportunities for

professional part-time employment.

Although many questions await answers, there is also much that is known right now that could be utilized by organizations in pursuit of increased effectiveness. This study examined five factors which appeared to impact greatly on attitudes concerning work, and attitudes toward life in general. These factors were: number of hours spent at work; satisfaction with those hours; perceived control over work schedule; motivation for working; and presence of children in the home. It is important to note that, of these five factors, four (number of hours spent at work, satisfaction with those hours, and control over work schedule, and motivation for working) are potentially open to organizational control, either directly or indirectly. It would be beneficial for organizations to attempt to formulate policies which take into account, whenever feasible, the needs and wishes of their employees in regard to these aspects of their employment.

It may be difficult to see how all of these factors are open to organizational control. An example may help to demonstrate how they can be altered. Motivation to work will be used as the example because it is the factor that may seem least malleable to organizational control. In the most direct sense, motivation to work may be enhanced by altering the conditions under which people work. Based on the many open-ended comments which respondents provided, I

concluded that many of these people entered the field of nursing because they enjoyed the type of work that nursing offered, but their enjoyment in their work has been destroyed, or least tempered, by the conditions under which nurses today must work. In a more indirect sense, the lack of professional part-time work opportunities may keep some people whose primary motivation to work is enjoyment, out of the workforce entirely. The findings of this study, and those of Knight and Downey (1989), regarding employees who work for enjoyment suggest that this situation is potentially a great loss to organizations.

This research has made an important contribution to our knowledge of professionally employed people who choose to work part-time. It is hoped that the results of this study will be a first step in effecting a change in the way we think about part-time work, and will be instrumental in diminishing the negative stereotypes of part-time workers. The study has suggested areas in which part-time nurses make valuable contributions to the organization, and more importantly, has pointed to areas in which organizations can effect changes that will enhance the effective utilization of this valuable and growing human resource.

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APPENDIX A
THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

NURSES ATTITUDE SURVEY

My name is Jeanne Phelps and I am a graduate student in Industrial Psychology at Kansas State University. I am currently conducting research for my Master's thesis on the job attitudes of nurses. The results will help us to better understand this important work group. Your hospital has agreed to take part in this research by allowing me to distribute this survey on work-related attitudes. Your participation, by filling out the survey, is greatly appreciated. The survey should take approximately 30 minutes to complete, and your help on any part or all of the survey is totally voluntary.

Your responses to the questions on the survey will be completely confidential. Please do not put your name on the survey. The completed surveys will not be seen by anyone in the hospital. Only group results will be reported. Please return the completed survey directly to me in the attached, addressed and stamped envelope. If you have comments, or would like to expand on your answers to the questions, please write your comments in the space provided on the last page of the survey. If you would like to have a summary of the results of this research, please send me a separate request and include your name and address. If you have questions regarding this project, you may contact me, or Dr. Ronald G. Downey, through the Psychology Department, Bluemont Hall, Manhattan, KS 66506 (Phone # 913-532-6850).

I very much hope that you will take time from your busy schedule to complete and return the survey. If, however, you decide not to participate, please return the survey and envelope to the head of your department so that I may collect and reuse them. Thank you.

SECTION I: ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE

THE FOLLOWING SECTION ASKS YOU TO RESPOND TO QUESTIONS CONCERNING THE PLACE (ORGANIZATION, HOSPITAL) IN WHICH YOU WORK. THERE ARE ALSO SOME QUESTIONS ABOUT WORK IN GENERAL. PLEASE INDICATE THE EXTENT OF YOUR AGREEMENT WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS BY GIRGLING THE APPROPRIATE NUMBERS, USING THE FOLLOWING RESPONSE FORMAT:

1=STRONGLY DISAGREE; 2=MODERATELY DISAGREE; 3=SLIGHTLY DISAGREE;
4=NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE; 5=SLIGHTLY AGREE; 6=MODERATELY AGREE; 7=STRONGLY AGREE

- | | |
|--|---------------|
| 1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great place to work. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| *3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 5. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| *7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 8. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| *9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |

1=STRONGLY DISAGREE; 2=MODERATELY DISAGREE; 3=SLIGHTLY DISAGREE;
4=NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE; 5=SLIGHTLY AGREE; 6=MODERATELY AGREE; 7=STRONGLY AGREE

- * 11. There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- * 12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 13. I really care about the fate of this organization. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 14. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- * 15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 16. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 17. The most important things that happen to me involve my work. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 18. I'm really a perfectionist about my work. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 19. I live, eat, and breathe my job. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 20. I am very much involved personally in my work. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- * 21. Most things in life are more important than work. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 22. In my life, work and activities outside of work are of approximately equal importance. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 23. I am very involved with my work, and very involved with my family as well. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- 24. I am usually very focused on the task at hand, whether it is job related, or having to do with things outside the job. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

FOR THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS, PLEASE USE THE RESPONSE FORMAT WHICH FOLLOWS:
1=STRONGLY DISAGREE; 2=DISAGREE; 3=NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE; 4=AGREE; 5=STRONGLY AGREE

- * 25. People usually expect to take their work home with them. 1 2 3 4 5
- 26. People expect to leave at end of the day without worrying about their work. 1 2 3 4 5
- 27. People rarely get work-related calls during hours when they are not at work. 1 2 3 4 5
- * 28. When people go on vacation, they are expected to tell their supervisor how to reach them. 1 2 3 4 5
- * 29. When the workday is finished, people should forget their jobs and enjoy themselves. 1 2 3 4 5
- 30. Hard work makes a man or woman a better person. 1 2 3 4 5
- * 31. The principal purpose of a person's job is to provide them with the means for enjoying their free time. 1 2 3 4 5
- 32. Wasting time is as bad as wasting money. 1 2 3 4 5

1=STRONGLY DISAGREE; 2=DISAGREE; 3=NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE; 4=AGREE; 5=STRONGLY AGREE

- *33. Whenever possible a person should relax and accept life as it is, rather than always striving for unreachable goals. 1 2 3 4 5
34. A good indication of a person's worth is how well they do their job. 1 2 3 4 5
35. If all other things are equal, it is better to have a job with a lot of responsibility than one with little responsibility. 1 2 3 4 5
- *36. People who "do things the easy way" are the smart ones. 1 2 3 4 5

THE FOLLOWING ITEMS ASK ABOUT YOUR WORK, AND YOUR LIFE IN GENERAL. PLEASE USE THE FOLLOWING RESPONSE FORMAT TO DESCRIBE HOW OFTEN YOU HAVE THE FEELINGS DESCRIBED IN EACH STATEMENT:
1=NEVER; 2=SELDOM; 3=SOMETIMES; 4=FREQUENTLY; 5=ALWAYS

37. My work schedule often conflicts with my family life, or my other activities. 1 2 3 4 5
38. After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do. 1 2 3 4 5
39. On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests. 1 2 3 4 5
40. My family and/or friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am not working. 1 2 3 4 5
41. My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with my family and/or friends. 1 2 3 4 5
42. Because my work is demanding, at times I am irritable at home. 1 2 3 4 5
43. The demands of my job make it difficult to be relaxed all the time at home. 1 2 3 4 5
44. My job makes it difficult to be the kind of spouse or parent I'd like to be. 1 2 3 4 5
45. My responsibilities outside work often keep me from doing my best job at work. 1 2 3 4 5
46. My commitments to my work and to family and/or friends often conflict with each other. 1 2 3 4 5
47. My job does not leave me enough time for leisure activities. 1 2 3 4 5
48. The hours I work differ from the hours worked by other people in my life. 1 2 3 4 5
- *49. Do you feel restless, wanting to be on the move doing something but not knowing what? 1 2 3 4 5
- *50. Do you blame yourself and feel bad about things you have done? 1 2 3 4 5
51. Would you say you feel in good spirits? 1 2 3 4 5
- *52. Do you get so discouraged that you wonder whether anything is worthwhile? 1 2 3 4 5
53. Do you have as much chance to enjoy life as you should have? 1 2 3 4 5
54. Overall, are you accomplishing the things you would like to in your life? 1 2 3 4 5
55. Do you expect things to turn out well in the future? 1 2 3 4 5

FOR THE FOLLOWING THREE QUESTIONS, PLEASE CHECK (✓) THE BLANK BEFORE THE ONE PHRASE WHICH BEST DESCRIBES YOUR FEELINGS.

- * 56. Check the phrase which comes nearest to saying how you feel about the way you spend your time when you're not working.
 Completely satisfied well satisfied neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
 A little dissatisfied very dissatisfied
- * 57. Check the phrase which comes nearest to saying how you feel about your life in general?
 Completely satisfied well satisfied neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
 A little dissatisfied very dissatisfied
- * 58. In general, how happy would you say you are?
 very happy happy not very happy unhappy very unhappy

THE FOLLOWING PHRASES DESCRIBE DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF YOUR NURSING JOB. PLEASE FILL IN THE BLANK BEFORE EACH PHRASE WITH "YES" (or Y) IF THE PHRASE FITS OR DESCRIBES THAT ASPECT OF YOUR JOB, "NO" (or N) IF IT DOES NOT FIT. MARK "?" IF YOU CANNOT DECIDE IF THE PHRASE FITS OR NOT. FOR EXAMPLE, IF YOU WOULD DESCRIBE THE PEOPLE THAT YOU WORK WITH AS STIMULATING, YOU WOULD MARK THE FIRST PHRASE LIKE THIS: Stimulating.

59. First, think of the majority of PEOPLE THAT YOU WORK WITH, or the people you meet in connection with nursing. How well does each of the following describe these people?
 Stimulating Boring Slow Ambitious Stupid
 Fast Intelligent Responsible Loyal Smart
 Lazy Unpleasant No privacy Active Narrow interests
 Easy to make enemies Talk too much Hard to meet

60. Now think of the kind of SUPERVISION that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words phrases describe this supervision?
 Asks my advice Hard to please Impolite Praises good work
 Tactful Influential Up-to-date Doesn't supervise enough
 Quick-tempered Knows job well Annoying Stubborn
 Lazy Bad Intelligent Leaves me on my own
 Around when needed Tells me where I stand

61. Now think of your PRESENT WORK. What is it like most of the time?
 Fascinating Routine Satisfying Boring Good
 Creative Respected Hot Pleasant Useful
 Tiresome Healthful Challenging On your feet Frustrating
 Simple Endless Gives sense of accomplishment

62. Next think of the OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION that you have now. How well does each of the following describe these?
 Good opportunities for promotion Opportunity somewhat limited
 Dead-end job Promotion on ability
 Good chance for promotion Unfair promotion policy
 Infrequent promotions Regular promotions
 Fairly good chance for promotion

63. Think of the PAY you get now. How well does each of the following describe your present pay?
 Income adequate for normal expenses Barely live on income
 Insecure Bad
 Income provides luxuries Less than I deserve
 Highly paid Underpaid

SECTION II: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

YOUR CAREFUL CONSIDERATION OF THESE ITEMS IS APPRECIATED. DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ON THE SURVEY. YOUR RESPONSES ARE COMPLETELY CONFIDENTIAL AND WILL NOT BE SEEN BY ANYONE IN THE HOSPITAL. RETURN YOUR COMPLETED SURVEY DIRECTLY TO KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY IN THE ATTACHED ENVELOPE.

1. What is the name and location of the hospital in which you are now working? _____
2. Check (✓) the one response below that best describes your current level of educational attainment:
 () 1 year of vocational training () 2 year Associate Degree () 3 year Diploma
 () 4 year Bachelor of Science () Master of Science in nursing () Ph.D. in nursing
 () Other--Describe: _____
3. What license do you hold?
 () R.N. () L.P.N. () Other _____
4. Check (✓) the one response below which best describes the type of nursing position you currently hold:
 () staff nurse () head nurse () shift supervisor () director of nurses
 () Clinical nurse specialist () Hospital In-service education
 () Other--Describe: _____
5. How many years have you been working in the nursing profession? (Exclude any time you have not worked.) _____
6. In your current position, do you supervise other people? () YES () NO
 If yes, how many people do you supervise? _____
7. How many years and months have you held your current position? _____
8. Do you currently hold any other jobs? () YES () NO
 If yes, describe your other job(s): _____
9. Marital status? () Married () Single () Other
10. Number of children currently living in your household: _____
11. Is your income the only income in your household? () YES () NO
12. What is your major reason for working (check one)?
 () Need money () Extra money () Enjoyment
13. In general, is your work schedule:
 () the same from week to week () different from week to week .
14. Which shift do you usually work?
 () Day () Evening () Night () Rotate on a schedule
 () Other--Describe _____
- *15. How satisfied are you with the shift you usually work?
 () satisfied () I don't care which shift I work () dissatisfied
16. How satisfied are you with the fringe benefits in your current job?
 () very dissatisfied () slightly dissatisfied () don't know
 () slightly satisfied () very satisfied
17. How much say do you have in your work schedule?
 () I have no say () I have some say () I have a lot of say

APPENDIX B

TABLE 9: UNIVARIATE AND MULTIVARIATE
EFFECTS FOR HOSPITAL ENTERED IN MANOVA
AS INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

Table 9

Univariate and Multivariate Effects for Hospital

Entered in MANOVA as Independent Variable

| <u>Dependent variable</u> | <u>F(2,366)</u> |
|----------------------------|-----------------|
| Org. commitment | 3.26* |
| Job involvement | 6.07** |
| Interrole conflict | 0.35 |
| Life satisfaction | 2.09 |
| Pro work ethic | 0.43 |
| Time boundaries | 0.87 |
| JDI coworkers | 0.31 |
| JDI supervision | 0.42 |
| JDI work itself | 2.61 |
| JDI promotion ^a | 4.58** |
| JDI pay | 14.64** |

Multivariate effect: Wilks' Lambda=.81,
 $F(22,712)=3.94, p<.01$

Note. Means were not reported due to the confidentiality which was assured to participating hospitals.

^a Duncan multiple-range post hoc test did not reveal a significant difference among means for this item.

* $p <.05$ ** $p <.01$

AN EXAMINATION OF PROFESSIONAL PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT
FROM A WORK/NONWORK PERSPECTIVE

by

JEANNE ANN PHELPS

B.S., Kansas University, 1967

AN ABSTRACT OF A THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Psychology

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1989

Abstract

Past research on part-time employment has been sparse, and largely limited to part-timers in lower-level jobs. The present study focused on professional-level part-time employment. A survey was distributed to nurses in three midwestern hospitals. The survey measured organizational commitment, job involvement, five facets of job satisfaction, work ethic beliefs, conflict between work and nonwork, time boundaries between work and nonwork, and life satisfaction. Significant differences between full- and part-time nurses were found on organizational commitment and job involvement. Nurses working more than 35 hours per week and those working fewer than 25 hours per week were higher in organizational commitment than nurses who worked 25 to 35 hours per week. Nurses working more than 35 hours per week were higher in job involvement than those working fewer than 35 hours per week. Problems in the conceptualization and measurement of job involvement are discussed. In addition to number of hours spent at work, several other variables were measured which also explained variance in the attitudinal measures. Control over schedule, satisfaction with the number of hours spent at work, motivation for working, and presence of children in the home also produced significant effects. These effects are discussed in the context of a work/nonwork framework. The results suggest that part- and full-timers approach work with different frames of reference.