NON-WORK PARTICIPATION & WORK ATTITUDES: A TEST OF THE EXPANSION MODEL OF PERSONAL RESOURCES MEDIATED BY SELF-EFFICACY

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Maurice James Jennings

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ABSTRACT

This study attempted to provide support for Marks' (1977) 'expansion' model as applied to the work-family relationship. Essentially, the model predicted that participation in the non-work domain would enrich our personal resources such as time, energy and commitment. It was also hypothesized that these resources would be positively associated with four work attitudes (i.e., organizational commitment, occupational commitment, job satisfaction, and job involvement). Moreover, it was further hypothesized that the resource enrichment - work attitude link would be mediated by self-efficacy. The four work attitudes however, were not correlated with time spent, and involvement in three non-work domains (i.e., parenting, community and recreation/hobby), although the work attitudes were positively correlated with the resource provided by participation in non-work activities. With the failure of self-efficacy to mediate the relationship between resource enrichment and the work attitudes, The overall conclusion therefore, was that the 'expansion' model of the work-family link was not supported. A number of reasons were put forward and discussed, as to why the data failed to support the hypotheses, this included the identification of several limitations. Suggestions for future research into the work-family relationship were then put forward.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

"Work gives us direction, purpose and status and identifies us with the rest of society"

J. Forrest, *U.S. Office of Vocational Rehabilitation*

Work is central to our lives. For some, like J. Forrest, work is so important that all the other aspects of our lives are excluded. An extreme view, but nevertheless, work is considered to be a defining characteristic of who we are, as the author Samuel Butler so aptly wrote, "Every man's work [sic]... is a portrait of himself." (Butler, *The Way of the Flesh*, Ch. 14).

But not everybody shares this primacy of work. Life outside of the workplace is equally important, activities such as parenting, sports teams and community groups are also defining characteristics of who we are. Traditionally, researchers have treated these two domains as separate and independent phenomena, studying one domain, in isolation to the other. However we do not shed our non-work roles, relationships and experiences the moment we enter the workplace. Although some organizations would prefer that we all did just that, such a requirement is clearly unrealistic. Our work and non-work experiences are intimately entwined, interacting and influencing each other.

What then, is the nature of this relationship? The contemporary view is the spillover hypothesis. The spillover hypothesis will be dealt with in more detail in chapter two, but briefly, it refers to the reciprocal relationship where the effects of work or family spillover from one to the other. That is the involvement in the non-work domain spills over into the work domain (or vice versa), influencing attitudes and behaviour.

Early research has found a negative relationship between non-work involvement and work attitudes and behaviour. That is, non-work activities are hypothesized to rob the individual's commitment to work, making the workplace difficult and unsatisfactory for that employee (Crouter, 1984). Likewise, the increase of inter-role conflict research provides evidence supporting the notion that the roles, relationships and experiences in the workplace negatively influence the individual's attitudes and behaviours in his or her non-work life (e.g., Burke, 1982; Cook & Rouseau, 1984; Coser, 1974; Goode, 1960; Kanter, 1977; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Indeed, Crouter and Garbarin (1982) explain that this is the reason why many organizations decide to offer family support programmes such as day care, maternal leave, medical care and flexible working hours, to their employees. By facilitating an employees ability to handle family matters, the organization hopes to enhance the individual's work performance and job satisfaction.

Notwithstanding the volume of inter-role research, much of the focus has been on how work has impacted upon non-work life. Although research has contributed to our knowledge of the relationship between work and home, more questions have been raised, than answered. This clearly indicates that knowledge in this area is still rudimentary. As Kanter (1977) lamented "No equally compelling and tested framework exists for reversing the relationship and looking at the effects of family patterns on work systems" (p. 53).

In general, the literature on multiple role participation, be they work or non-work roles, indicates a negative association with attitudes and behaviour, for example, high involvement in family life is negatively associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Crouter, 1984). This implies a relationship that is full of conflict, strain and discord, although, anecdotal evidence informs us that this is not always the case.

Recent research however, has pointed towards a positive association between non-work participation and work attitudes such as organizational commitment (Romzek, 1989; Steffy & Jones, 1988), and job satisfaction (Chusmir, 1986; Crosby, 1984; Near & Sorcinelli, 1986; Pietromonaco, Manis, & Frohardt-Lane, 1986). This suggests that the

spillover from non-work involvements to work attitudes can also be positive in nature (e.g., Crouter, 1984; Kirchmeyer, 1992). That is, non-work roles can strengthen an employees attitudes and behaviours at work.

SUMMARY & CONCLUSIONS

In summary, work is considered to be central to our lives, which is not surprising, considering the amount of time we spend at work. Yet, with the increasing pace and intensity of work, what we do outside of work is of equal importance. Research investigating the relationship between non-work role participation and work role participation has traditionally focused on the influence of work role demands on non-work attitudes and behaviours, such as marital satisfaction. The general finding being that the relationship between work role participation and non-work attitudes and behaviours, is negative. Recently though, a few studies have revealed favourable associations between non-work participation and work attitudes, some even propose a positive relationship (Kirchmeyer, 1992; Marks, 1977). That is, participation in non-work activities may "support, facilitate or enhance work life" (Crouter, 1984, p. 430).

Assuming that a positive inter-domain relationship is possible, there are important implications for human resource management. First, when prospective employees are being assessed, the organization should look not only at the applicant's work performance but also the applicant's non-work activities. Certain activities may provide resources and skills that could assist the applicant in performing the job successfully.

Secondly, if non-work roles are positively associated with work attitudes, or provide resources and skills that could assist an employee's job performance, organizations should therefore look at taking an active interest in their staff's non-work activities. As Kanter (1977) suggests "family situations can define work orientations, motivations, abilities, emotional energy, and the demands people bring to the workplace" (p. 54). Therefore organizations should go so far as to encourage their employees to get involved and participate in activities outside of work.

Thirdly, it seems that to truly understand the individual at work, researchers and managers alike must not only consider the individual's life at work, but also that person's life *outside* the workplace (Jans, 1989; Randall, 1988; Steffy & Jones, 1988). More importantly, with a better understanding of the processes that link work and non-work life, it is easier to identify strategies for helping workers balance the two. Therefore it is vital that social scientists test the validity of models and the assumptions they make about domain relationships. Consequently, it is the general aim of the present study to investigate a model that accounts for the positive relationship between non-work participation and work attitudes.

To this end, chapter two details a theory of multiple role accumulation developed by Marks (1977). The theory has two opposing models: (1) the 'expansion' model which states that role accumulation (e.g., non-work activities) increases a person's resources and energy which in turn is hypothesized to be positively associated with attitudes and behaviour in other roles (e.g., work), and (2) the 'scarcity' model which states that an individual's personal resources are limited and role accumulation uses vital reserves, resulting in tension, stress and conflict.

These models are the focus of the present study, and are important for two reasons. First, because of the need to find a theoretical rationale for the relationship between work and non-work role participation (Lambert, 1990; Rain, Lane, & Steiner, 1991). Secondly, to develop effective strategies for workers to balance their work and non-work lives. The literature examining Marks' theory is critically evaluated, resulting in the focus of the present study being directed towards the 'expansion' model.

As a prelude to considering work related attitudes, chapter three offers a definition of attitudes, and considers attitude formation and modification. This is followed by a series of subsections describing four work attitudes: job involvement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and career commitment. The next subsection details how these work attitudes relate to non-work participation and the 'expansion' model.

Chapter four deals with the concept of self-efficacy, and how self-efficacy may act as a mediator between non-work participation and work attitudes, thus further developing the 'expansion' model. The final chapter will summarize the introduction, recount the aim of the present study and put forward the hypotheses to be tested.

CHAPTER TWO

THE WORK-FAMILY LINKAGE

There are three main hypotheses used by scholars to characterize the work/family linkage, each of which will be discussed in turn: (1) segmentation: the view that the work and non-work domains are separate and independent of each other, (2) compensation: the idea that the lack of satisfaction in one domain is compensated by increased satisfaction in the other domain, and (3) spillover: the notion that involvement in one domain flows over, influencing the attitudes and behaviour in the other domain. Recently, two new hypotheses have also been articulated, the conflict and instrumentality hypotheses. The conflict hypothesis states that the work and non-work domains are incompatible. The instrumentality hypothesis proposes that one domain is used as a means to obtain something in the other domain (Evans & Bartolome, 1986).

The segmentation theory is the earliest approach. Work and non-work life are viewed as segmented and independent, that is, work and non-work participation are separate spheres of life, neither one impacts upon the other. The reasons being that the two domains are either inherently independent or because workers actively keep them that way (Lambert, 1990).

The notion that workers may actively respond to both domains, led to the view that workers may attempt to compensate for the lack of satisfaction in one domain (e.g., work), by trying to find more satisfaction in the other domain (e.g., non-work life). Consequently the theory of compensation has predominantly been used to explain responses to unsatisfying jobs, and provides an explanation for why some workers become more involved in their work when experiencing family difficulties.

The most popular view, is the spillover theory. Researchers have suggested "... that workers carry the emotions, attitudes, skills, and behaviours that they establish at work into their family... and *vice versa*" (Lambert, 1990, p. 242). That is the effects of one domain spill over into the other domain.

Moreover, the nature of the spillover can be negative or positive. Crouter (1984) provides a good illustration of positive spillover, in which workers in jobs requiring their participation in decision-making began to use their newly developed skills at home to deal more effectively with their children. An example of negative spillover is the frustrated assembly line worker who displaces the job generated aggression on family, friends and strangers with obvious negative consequences.

The literature is clear in the degree of the relationship (i.e., correlation magnitudes) between the work and non-work domains, and in the nature of the correlation (i.e., positive or negative. But, the literature is unclear as to the nature of the relationship between the work and non-work domains. Traditionally the three main hypotheses (i.e., segmentation, compensation, spillover) have been viewed as competing processes. However, in a review of the work-family linkage, Lambert (1990) doubted whether the three main theories of the work family relationship (segmentation, compensation and spillover) are competing processes. Instead she proposed that they are overlapping and complimentary. Consequently Lambert identified a need to clearly specify the models that distinguish the different processes. Similarly, Rain, *et. al.*, (1991) pointed out that researchers have done little to consistently test a theoretical position or model of the work-family linkage.

All is not lost. There is a theory from the spillover approach that does hold promise, offering an explanation for the positive and negative correlations identified in the research on the relationship between work and non-work role participation. The theory was presented by Marks (1977), and involves the two opposing models cited earlier, namely the 'expansion' and 'scarcity' models.

THE EXPANSION & SCARCITY MODELS OF PERSONAL RESOURCES

Marks (1977), proposed two opposing models based on the spillover hypothesis: (1) the 'expansion' model, which provides a rationale for the positive association between the non-work and the work domain, and (2) the 'scarcity' model, which provides an account for the negative relationship between the two domains.

The 'scarcity' model states that the energy, time and commitment an individual has is a scarce personal resource, and therefore valuable. These limited personal resources must accordingly be rationed out, among the various activities an individual accumulates. Consequently, with each new role, more valuable energy is expended to perform the activities required of each role. The individual's reserves of energy are therefore used, increasing the likelihood of role strain occurring. Hence multiple role participation is viewed as dysfunctional.

In contrast the 'expansion' model claims our energy or personal resources to be abundant: "Some roles may be performed without energy loss, they may even create energy for uses in that role, or in other roles" (Marks, 1977, p. 926). This assumption was derived from the work of Emile Durkheim (1953), who argued that our social involvements leave us enriched and vitalized. Hence Marks (1977) argued that: "Abundant energy is found for anything to which we are highly committed, and we often feel more energetic after having done it" (p. 927). That is, participation in non-work roles may have a positive impact upon our work attitudes and behaviour.

Marks' (1977) models of multiple role accumulation have only been tested twice. In a sample of university employees, Randall (1988) used the models to explore the influence of non-work participation upon organizational commitment. She found no strong evidence suggesting organizational commitment was associated with non-work participation. Neither was organizational commitment associated with the importance of specific non-work activities (e.g., family, religious groups, and hobby groups). This finding seems odd, given that other researchers have demonstrated organizational commitment to be strongly associated with non-work factors, (e.g., Cherniss, 1992;

Steffy & Jones, 1988). Randall (1988) inferred that individuals managed their work and non-work domains separately, and that organizational commitment was "relatively immune from the influence of outside work claimants" (p. 309), leading to the conclusion that the 'scarcity' model was supported.

However, Steffy and Jones (1988) found that commitment outside of work is associated with high organizational commitment. Similarly Cherniss (1992) found that factors outside of work were significantly associated with the levels of career commitment. Moreover, Kirchmeyer (1992) pointed out that Randall's (1988) data showed small positive correlations between organizational commitment and non-work participation. This suggested to Kirchmeyer (1992) that the 'expansion' model was supported, albeit weak support, and thus contrary to Randall's (1988) initial conclusion.

An alternative explanation for the weak correlation between non-work involvement and organizational commitment, may be the possibility of another process, other than the spillover hypothesis in operation, such as the concept of accommodation. The accommodation hypothesis is characterized by workers restricting their involvement in the work or non-work domain so that they can accommodate the demands of the other An illustration of this hypothesis is the employee who has to restrict his or her involvement at work to accommodate the demands of raising a young child, thus weakening his or her commitment to the organization.

In a replication of Randall's (1988) study, Kirchmeyer (1992) sampled recent business graduates, measuring job satisfaction *and* organizational commitment. Both correlated positively with the time spent in, and the resources provided by, non-work activities. Kirchmeyer also tested which of the two domains, work or non-work, best predicted the work attitudes. The results indicated that non-work factors made a significant contribution to the prediction of organizational commitment. Job satisfaction was also predicted by these factors but not significantly so. The conclusion naturally reached was that the 'expansion' model was in operation. However, Kirchmeyer realized that it was unknown whether the relationship between resource enrichment and work attitudes was a common experience among the sexes, age groups and occupational groups.

In Lambert's (1990) review of the work-family linkage she pointed out that the relationship between work and non-work life requires that gender role socialization to be taken into account. She doubted whether men and women respond similarly when presented with different stimuli. Therefore, the resource enrichment experienced by men and women should also be different. However, the research in this area suggests more similarities than differences (e.g., Kirchmeyer, 1992; Mottaz, 1986).

In terms of age, Crouter (1984), Crosby (1984), and Pietromonaco (1986) suggested that the experience of enrichment is common regardless of age and different occupational groups. Age, however, was reported by Kirchmeyer (1992) to be positively associated with resource enrichment and negatively related with the strength of the work attitude (e.g., Steffy & Jones, 1988). However Kirchmeyer did not speculate as to why this maybe so, and it remains to be seen whether the finding is consistent across samples.

Another variable Lambert identified as important in the work-family linkage were children. An inspection of the literature reveals Steffy and Jones (1988) reported that the number of children was negatively correlated with the level of organizational and occupational commitment. That is, greater commitment to career and the organization decreased with the number of children a parent had. Similarly, Kirchmeyer (1992) also reported that family size had a strong negative relationship with organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Lambert (1990) concluded therefore, that the number of children, their age and whether they are living at home seemed likely to have an impact upon the relationship between non-work participation (i.e., the resource enrichment experienced) and work attitudes.

EXPLAINING THE PERSONAL RESOURCE-WORK ATTITUDES LINK

Kirchmeyer (1992) took Sieber's (1974) four outcomes of multiple role participation to represent the means by which non-work participation enriches the resources available to an individual for work. Like Marks, Sieber (1974) argued that role accumulation does not necessarily lead to the dire consequences predicted by role theorists (e.g., Coser,

1974; Goode, 1960). Instead, Sieber (1974) asserted that there were four positive outcomes of multiple role participation: (1) privileges gained, (2) status security, (3) status enhancement, and (4) personality enrichment.

Privileges gained refer to the privileges or rights built into every role. For example, inherent in the role of a manager, may be the authority to allocate the organization's financial resources. Such privileges serve as the inducements for recruitment to new roles, or as reinforcement for the continuation of role performance. Hence privileges gained can be considered as a motivational force. Sieber (1974) then generalized that the greater the number of roles, the greater the number of privileges enjoyed by the individual performing those roles.

Status security derives from the notion that multiple roles form a buffer against the strain produced by participation in other roles. Thus the individual is able to compensate for failure in a role by falling back on other roles. For example, in a field study, Crouter (1984) found that through participation in non-work activities, an individual can buffer the failures and strains of work, gain valuable contacts, develop skills and perspectives and gain information useful for work. Moreover, by keeping alternative roles open, the individual affords a sense of security, which improves role performance and compensates for failure (Sieber, 1974).

Status enhancement refers to the by-products of role involvement not inherent in the role itself, such as information, invitations to social gatherings and personal contacts. Another outcome is that these by-products will in turn increase the value of that role to other people. These same by-products may also increase with improved role performance, encouraging the individual to accumulate additional roles.

Personality enrichment occurs when participation in multiple roles, leads the individual to increase his or her tolerance of others due to discrepant view points that the individual's own roles may induce. Furthermore boredom may be reduced and flexibility and adaptability increased, because of the need to satisfy the demands of multiple roles.

To test how non-work participation influenced work attitudes, Kirchmeyer (1992) categorized non-work life into three areas, each encompassing common social roles, these domains were: (1) the domain of parenting, (2) the community domain, covering involvement in political organizations, charities, religious groups and volunteer organizations, and, (3) the recreation/hobby domain, which includes involvement in sports teams, social clubs, and hobby groups.

The resource enrichment each of these domains was hypothesized to provide, was measured by a fifteen item questionnaire that addressed Sieber's (1974) four benefits of multiple role participation. Each item reflected the resource available through participation in one of the three specified domains. The results of Kirchmeyer's (1992) study, supported the 'expansion' model and the use of Sieber's four outcomes as the means by which non-work participation positively influences work attitudes.

The conclusion Kirchmeyer (1992) arrived at was that: "Overall, the findings provide considerable support for the expansion model, and no support for the scarcity model" (p. 785). For example, all of the correlations between the work attitudes and the resource enrichment variables were positive. In particular, greater resource enrichment was significantly correlated with organizational commitment and job satisfaction in the community and recreation domains, but not the parenting domain. Positive correlations between job satisfaction and the hours spent in the community and parenting were also reported. One set of hypotheses was not supported, i.e., the correlations between organizational commitment, time spent in, and personal involvement in the non-work domain were inconsistent in direction, and magnitude varied, although none of the correlations indicated support for the 'scarcity' model.

SUMMARY & CONCLUSIONS

Early research has predominantly reported that non-work participation and work attitudes are negatively associated. Recently however, studies have revealed a positive association between non-work role participation and work attitudes, such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

Marks (1977) advanced two opposing models that may account for the two different relationships. The 'scarcity' model which accounts for the negative relationship, and the 'expansion' model which provides an explanation for the positive relationship between non-work participation and work attitudes. In particular the 'expansion' model suggests that individuals have unlimited resources or energy. This energy can be derived from anything that a person is committed to, e.g., parenting or community involvement. The result is either more roles can be acquired, or the performance of existing roles is improved (e.g., work), which demonstrates how participation in non-work activities may positively influence attitudes at work.

However, only two studies have directly tested this. Randall (1988) found no support for the 'expansion' model, and suggested that the 'scarcity' model was supported. She concluded that people treated the work and non-work domains of life independently. Kirchmeyer (1992) disagreed with Randall, citing weaknesses in Randall's study.

Kirchmeyer's test of the two models revealed support for the 'expansion' model. However, Kirchmeyer (1992) doubted whether these results would generalize across gender, age and occupation. A brief glance in the literature indicated age and children would be likely to have an effect on the relationship between work and non-work participation.

Kirchmeyer modified Marks' original 'expansion' model by utilising the four outcomes of multiple role accumulation proposed by Sieber (1974). Sieber believed that role accumulation could have four positive consequences, namely, privileges gained, status security, status enhancement, and personality enrichment. Kirchmeyer believed that this

was the resource enrichment gained from non-work participation. By achieving these outcomes, the individual could improve not only his or her ability to take on further roles or activities, but also gain resources that could be beneficial to an individual's work performance. This would lead to the individual being valued more at work and consequently incur a positive impact on the individual's work attitudes. The results of Kirchmeyer's (1992) study supported the 'expansion' model and Sieber's (1974) four outcomes, suggesting that non-work participation is positively associated with work attitudes.

Clearly then, non-work participation is associated with attitudes at work. However, to gain a better understanding of Marks' (1977) theory of multiple role accumulation as an explanation of the work-family linkage, the next chapter will review a number of important work attitudes by firstly providing a brief outline on what attitudes are and how they are formed. This will be followed by four sub-sections describing the principal work attitudes, namely, organizational commitment, occupational commitment, job satisfaction, and job involvement. Finally, the link between work attitudes and non-work participation will be detailed, providing further argument for the present study.

CHAPTER THREE

ATTITUDES

The term 'attitude' is widely used in daily speech. This has led to a plethora of definitions offered by psychologists and the public alike. Each definition reflects a particular theoretical position, accepted by some, rejected by others, however, a detailed review of attitude research is beyond the scope of this thesis.

The definition submitted by Deaux and Wrightsman (1988) will be employed as a useful framework, "Attitudes serve as an index of an individual's thoughts and feelings about the people, the objects, and the issues in their environment. In addition, they provide clues to future behaviour, predicting how people will act when they encounter the objects of their belief" (p. 160). By "*serve as an index*", it means to designate a range of evaluations over which the attitude extends, i.e., from good to bad, or positive to negative. Moreover, this definition covers the three essential components of an attitude, the affective, the cognitive, and the behaviourial.

The affective component consists of the emotional feelings about the attitudinal object. It is noted in the phrase "*charged with emotion*". The emotional aspect is considered to be the critical feature of attitudes, and is reflected in statements such as "I like...", "I hate...", and "I hope...". The cognitive component consists of the beliefs and ideas a person has about the object of attention, for example, the beliefs that an employee has about his or her supervisor, that management is out to exploit the staff, or that accountants lack personality. The important feature here is that it makes no difference whether or not the belief is based on information that is empirically real or correct. The behavioural component refers to an individual's predisposition to act in a particular way. For example, an individual who believes their job offers no opportunity for promotion

(cognitive aspect). This person may therefore consider the job to be dissatisfying (affective aspect). Consequently, she or he may begin to search for another job (behavioural aspect).

ATTITUDE FORMATION

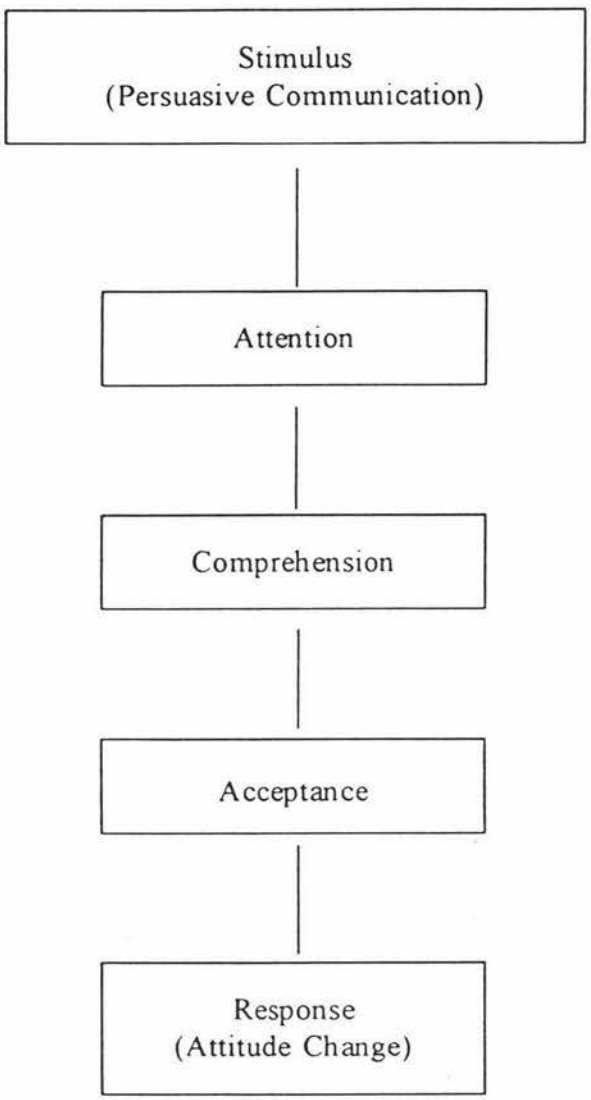
Attitudes are learned and the seed of that learning comes from three sources, direct experience, social communication, and emotional conditioning.

Direct experience and involvement with objects in the environment affects attitudes both positively and negatively. For example, it is difficult to like a supervisor who ignores you or is overbearing, and it is difficult to dislike the co-worker who is warm and responsive to you. Alternatively, a lack of contact may develop negative attitudes. The general principle being that repeated or simple exposure to an object having no strong prior emotional value is sufficient to enhance ones attitude towards the object. Social communication refers to the process where attitudes develop indirectly. For example, few have actually met the Prime Minister of New Zealand. Yet all of us have attitudes towards this person based on messages transmitted to us by others, e.g., television, friends and newspapers. Emotional conditioning is "the physiological arousal resulting from neutral stimulus being paired with a positive or negative event" (Deaux & Wrightsman, 1988, p. 162). This implies that attitudes are sometimes formed for irrational reasons, such as believing an attractive employee to be a good worker.

ATTITUDE CHANGE

People are constantly trying to change our attitudes, including, advertisers, politicians, counsellors, and employers. The process of change involves five key steps:

Figure 3.1 **The Five Steps In Attitude Change.**



SOURCE: Deaux & Wrightsman (1988, p. 187).

In addition, four factors are involved in attitude change: the source, the message, the medium, and the audience (Vecchio, *et. al.*, 1992). Source factors refer to characteristics of the individual or object that is used to change an attitude(s). People respond better to sources that seem more expert, and more attractive. People also respond better to sources that they can easily relate to. Consequently supervisors or co-workers are often used to endorse a company's culture, for more often than not, they are people employees can relate to.

Message factors refer to the specific structure and content of what is being transmitted, such as the playing on people's fears, as in scare campaigns. Furthermore, the conclusions in an appeal seem to be more persuasive when the are made more explicit (i.e., stated for the audience) than implicit conclusions (i.e., unstated, but inferable from the arguments made in the appeal). Medium factors are associated with the channel that is used to change the attitude (e.g., face-to-face, printed material, etc). Spoken appeals seem more persuasive than written appeals, and other mass media channels appear to be relatively ineffective in altering attitudes (Vecchio, *et. al.*, 1992). Lastly, audience factors deal with the influence of the individual's personality such as age, self-esteem, and gender. For example, younger people are more suggestible than older people, and more intelligent people appear to have a greater degree of attention and comprehension, but not in the degree of yielding (Vecchio, *et. al.*, 1992).

Organizations spend millions of dollars on advertising, trying to persuade people to buy a certain brand of product, or impressing upon new employees the corporate culture In doing so, there is an implicit assumption that in changing attitudes, behaviour will also change. Unfortunately people are not always congruent in what they say and do. Nonetheless the bottom line is that attitudes do have the potential to influence Behaviour. One category of attitudes are work attitudes, and in particular, organizational commitment, career commitment, job satisfaction and job involvement.

FOUR PRINCIPAL WORK ATTITUDES

Organizational Commitment: Organizational commitment has been subjected to intense empirical investigation, including several critical reviews (e.g. Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Morrow, 1983; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Reichers, 1985). The result is several different ways in which organizational commitment can be defined and measured. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) argue that these operationalizations of organizational commitment all share a common theme: Organizational commitment is a bond, linking the individual to the organization. It is in the nature of the bond that Mathieu and Zajac (1990) believe the differences lie.

How this bond between the individual and organization develops can be arranged into three broad theoretical approaches. The first is the calculative approach, where organizational commitment is the "... result of individual - organizational transactions and alterations in side-bets or investments over time" (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972, p. 556). Drawn from the work of Becker (1960), organizational commitment occurs when the employee is bonded to the organization through a series of investments, or side-bets, such as a superannuation schemes, medical schemes, or shareholdings. Because of these investments, the individual has too much to lose if she or he leaves the organization.

The second approach is the normative approach, where organizational commitment refers to "... a process whereby organizational actions (e.g., selection, socialization procedures) as well as individual predispositions (e.g., personal-organizational value congruence and generalized loyalty or duty attitudes) lead to the development of organizational commitment" (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p. 173). That is, the individual employee feels an obligation to remain loyal to the organization.

The attitudinal approach views organizational commitment as an affective attachment to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Stemming from the work of Porter and his colleagues, organizational commitment refers to "... the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in a particular organization. Conceptually it can be characterized by at least three factors: a) a strong belief in, and acceptance of, the organizations goals and values; b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization" (Mowday, *et. al.*, 1982, p. 27).

The attitudinal approach is the most popular one, it is the least disputed and the most well researched approach, hence the attitudinal approach will be adopted for the present study. This point is important because over the years, there have been calls to find a recognized and agreed upon conceptualization of organizational commitment, which enables easy comparison of studies.

Occupational Commitment: The importance of occupational commitment has rapidly increased. As companies strip out the layers of management, the expectation that people will follow the path mapped out for them by the organization has undergone a fundamental shift. The expectation now, is that individuals will take care of their own career development. Therefore an individual's commitment to a career, will have a greater priority than commitment to the organization.

As early as 1971, career commitment was conceptually distinguished from other work commitments. Hall (1971) was defined as "... the strength of one's motivation to work in a chosen career role" (p. 59). More recently, career commitment can be defined as "... ones attitude towards one's vocation including a profession" (Blau, 1988, p. 295).

Career commitment has been investigated as professional commitment (e.g., Tuma & Grimes), and occupational commitment (e.g., Aranya & Jacobson, 1975). However, in this study, the term 'occupational commitment' will be used. The term 'professional commitment' will not be used because research has demonstrated that there are many individuals in both professional and non-professional occupations that have strong commitment to the work that they do (Blau, 1988; 1989). In addition, not all participants in the present study were in a profession (e.g., accountants), therefore the term 'professional commitment' would be too specific, whereas 'occupational commitment' has a broader application.

The term 'career' will also be avoided, because Meyer, Allen, & Smith, (1993) argued that the concept of career has an ambiguous meaning "... career can be defined as a planned pattern of work from entry into the work force to retirement or as an involvement in a particular job organization, occupation or profession" (p. 540). Therefore to clarify the operationalization of this commitment, the focus in this study will be on commitment to a specific line of work or occupation. Consequently, Blau's (1988) definition now reads as "... one's attitude towards ones occupation, including a profession". This is not to say that the operationalization of the concept has changed. On the contrary, all it does is broaden the definition to include the various careers or occupations that people are committed to.

There are two approaches to the conceptualization of occupational commitment. The behavioural approach focuses on determining the amount and frequency of the individual's behaviour associated with professional activities, such as reading the professional literature or involvement in professional associations (Price & Meuller, 1981). On the other hand, the attitudinal approach is an affective attachment to ones occupation.

The literature does not provide support to indicate that either the behavioural or the attitudinal approach is best. However, in the present study, Blau's attitudinal approach to occupational commitment shall be used. This is because the behavioural aspect of the multi-dimensional approach can be argued to be the manifestation of the attitude. That is, it is the occupational commitment *attitude* that drives the behaviour, not the behaviour driving the attitude. Therefore the focus is on the work attitude, and not work behaviour derived from the attitude.

Job Satisfaction: Job satisfaction, is generally recognized as the most important and frequently studied attitude in organizational behaviour (Mitchell & Larson, 1987). Although the construct varies in its operationalizations there appears to be general agreement that "Job satisfaction is an affective (that is emotional) reaction to a job that results from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired (expected, deserved and so on)" (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992, p. 2). Like all attitudes it is a learned experience, not only through the job itself, but also through other employees, supervisors and managers. Furthermore, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) points out that as an attitude, job satisfaction is likely to be consistent over time, be it a favourable or unfavourable disposition towards the job.

The literature on job satisfaction features two approaches to its study and measurement. The first, which is characteristic of early research is the global approach, where job satisfaction is seen as an overall reaction to ones job in its entirety (e.g., Herzberg, 1958). More recently, a faceted approach to studying job satisfaction has emerged (e.g., Smith *et. al.*, 1985. In Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989, p. 194). While the global approach attempts to measure an individual's feelings of satisfaction about the

job as a whole, the faceted approach instead, attempts to measure the individual's reactions to various specific aspects of the job, such as pay, promotion and more abstract aspects, such as security, status, task achievement and self-esteem.

The facets of job satisfaction can be categorized into two groups, (1) intrinsic, and (2) extrinsic. The intrinsic facets of job satisfaction originate from within the individual and are psychologically valuable, i.e., the satisfaction is felt from within the individual. Examples of intrinsic satisfaction include autonomy, a sense of recognition or challenge.

Extrinsic satisfaction develops outside the individual. That is, satisfaction originates from the environment in which the individual works. Such satisfactions are therefore beyond the control of the individual. Sources of extrinsic satisfaction include working conditions, job security and fringe benefits. Some sources of job satisfaction, can also be both intrinsic and extrinsic, an example, is higher salary. This has obvious extrinsic satisfaction, but it may also be intrinsically satisfying, in that it may represent a sense of recognition or status.

Although there are literally thousands of articles on job satisfaction the results throughout the literature have tended to point to much the same conclusions (Vecchio, *et. al.*, 1992). Certain key variables are consistently related to job satisfaction. These variables have been grouped under two main headings: personal attributes, and work place characteristics. In brief, the work place characteristics include: decision-making involvement, interdependencies with others, job level, organizational size and uncertainty in the job. The main personal attributes found to have an influence on job satisfaction are life satisfaction (which refers to the degree to which individuals are content with their lives overall), self-esteem, gender, age, tenure and education.

Although all these factors are important in determining an individual's job satisfaction, we should recall, that job satisfaction is a perception made by the individual. Therefore, although personal and work place variables influence job satisfaction, they are ultimately determined by the individual's expectations. For example, a new employee may have unrealistic expectation about a job she or he is to be promoted to. After a few days in

the new job the employee experiences a shock when confronted with the reality. They may have found the job to be unpleasant and extremely stressful. Thus what initially seemed to be a satisfactory job would now become a source of dissatisfaction.

Job satisfaction is of vital importance to organizations, for several reasons. First, given that most people spent most of their time at work, Vecchio *et. al.*, (1992) argue that employers have a moral obligation to make work personally rewarding. Secondly, serious dissatisfaction, manifested as job stress and tension, has been linked to a variety of physiological illnesses, including ulcers and heart attacks. Thirdly, Vecchio *et. al.*, (1992) point out that job satisfaction can have an important role in an organization's ability to attract and retain employees. Finally, job dissatisfaction has been correlated with several organizational problems, including turnover (Arnold & Feldman, 1981), absenteeism (Breaugh, 1981), and the number of grievances raised (Dunham & Smith, 1979). These problems have the potential to disrupt the organization, in addition to being extremely costly. Thus job satisfaction cannot be ignored

Job Involvement: The last of the work attitudes is job involvement, which refers to "... the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his [or her] work" (Morrow, 1983, p. 488). Thus job involvement describes attachment to a job as opposed to an organizational or career commitment, which describe employee attachments to the organization or career, respectively.

Moreover, job involvement is to be distinguished from the concept of work involvement. Where job involvement is specific to a particular job context, work involvement is more of a generalized work context (Kanungo, 1982). Furthermore, Kanungo identified job involvement as a belief that is descriptive of the *present* job and tends to be a function of how much the job can satisfy an individual's present needs. Whereas work involvement is described as a "... normative belief about the value of work in ones life, and is a function of ones past cultural conditioning or socialization" (Kanungo, 1982, p. 342). Job involvement therefore focuses on the present, referring to a specific job, while work involvement is a normative belief, taking a historical approach to work.

Rabinowitz & Hall (1977), identified several antecedents of job involvement, including: individual differences or personality variables (e.g., age, locus of control, higher order need-strength, and type-A behaviour), and the work situation (e.g., participation in decision-making, job stimulation and job challenge), noting later that some antecedents are similar to work motivation, like job assignments and job designs that consider individual differences and characteristics (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1981). However, Morrow's (1983) review of work attitudes reported that the research concerning the causal factors of job involvement is inconsistent. Thus Morrow concluded that the means for affecting job involvement were "rather speculative" (p. 495).

Typically job involvement has been used as dependent variable, as an indicator of other relationships, as it is in the present study. This is how Kanungo intended the concept and measurement of job involvement to be used. In particular Kanungo had in mind the use of job involvement in research attempting to relate alienation and involvement in different spheres of life, such as work and family relationships, a use ideal for the aim of this study. Like the other work attitudes job involvement also has consequences for organizations, such as turnover, absenteeism, job satisfaction, and commitment, and is consequently of substantial importance to organizations.

EMPIRICAL & THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In addition to the assumptions discussed above, there are a number of other issues which are important in the assessment of work attitudes. Since work attitudes refer to subjective experience, the only alternative to assess them is via self-report measures. There are however criticisms that may be raised, such as people cannot report on their attitudes, they use the same word with different meanings, they lie about what they feel, and they do not know what they feel. However, most of these objections can be overcome to a certain extent by developing appropriate questionnaire formats, and the impact of these weaknesses can be reduced by careful interpretation of data and employing reliability and validity techniques.

For example, assuring participants that their answers remain anonymous and confidential can reduce the incentive for lying, although such assurances do not guarantee that participants will not lie. Standardizing questions, restricting replies to such phrases as agree, disagree, etc, couching questions in a reading level that most participants can understand, are also techniques in overcoming the difficulties of self-report measures.

Furthermore offering no answer phrases like 'no opinion', helps prevent participants selecting irrelevant options. Andrews and Withey (1976) reported that less than 3% of subjects select "off scale" responses, suggesting that most are able to label their attitudes and feelings, contrary to the objection raised earlier.

Another objection to self report is that people cannot identify factors determining their attitudes and feelings. In the present study however, participants are asked questions of direct perception of how strongly they agree or disagree with a certain attitude. That is, respondents only report their attitudes towards a concept or thing, not to supply the 'reasons' for that attitude.

The other main criticism of self report is that of method variance. "An artifact of measurement that biases results when relations are explored among constructs measured in the same way" (Spector, 1987, p. 438), such as halo effects in ratings and response sets in questionnaires, e.g., social desirability and acquiescence. Although Spector later argues that well developed measures of work attitudes such as those employed in the present study, are relatively resistant to difficulties associated with test method effects. In line with other researchers (e.g., Cronbach, 1950; McCrae & Costa, 1983; Flett, 1986), biases associated with social desirability and response acquiescence are not seen as significant problems for the measures employed in the present study.

A more important criticism is that of conceptual redundancy among the various work attitudes. Reviewing the literature on role theory, reference groups and dual allegiance, Reichers (1985) concluded that individuals experience multiple attachment to multiple foci. That is, a person may experience the affective response of attachment to several things (or foci), such as the organization, union, family, etc. Reichers was thus

advocating a global concept of commitment, of which there may be several foci, which in turn explains why many of the work attitudes correlate so well. Similarly Mathieu and Zajac (1990) concluded that the overlapping nature of the various work attitudes could just be that they have shared linkages at an abstract, conceptual level. Hence it is important that clearer definitions are developed, to allow clearer specification of the inter-relationships between the various work commitments.

Organizational commitment therefore, refers to devotion and loyalty to the employing organization. Whereas job involvement can be viewed as commitment to a specific job, within a specific context. Occupational commitment also refers to devotion and loyalty, but only to a person's career or occupation, and is associated with a broader set of referents (e.g., profession and career) than either job involvement or organizational commitment. That is, occupational commitment refers to commitment to an entire occupational field as distinguished from commitment to the job or organization.

An illustration of these differences is a school teacher. This person's 'job' is that of a primary school teacher for a specific e.g., St. Johns. This person's occupation is a teacher, and the organization that the teacher works for is St. Johns. To each of these things the teacher will be committed in varying degrees which in turn varies different people.

Job satisfaction is however quite different in that it refers to an individual's satisfaction with a job. This may include aspects of the organization (St. Johns), occupation (teachers), and the job (primary school teacher), i.e., extrinsic factors, or aspects within the individual such as autonomy, challenge and self-worth, i.e., intrinsic factors.

NON-WORK PARTICIPATION & WORK ATTITUDES

There are many studies investigating the relationship between work and non-work participation (e.g., Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Hoffman, 1986; Romzek, 1989; Smith, 1981: Yogev & Brett, 1985). Generally, the finding that the relationship is a negative, is being challenged by a series of studies which have demonstrated a positive association between non-work participation and work attitudes.

For example, Steffy and Jones (1988) found high commitment to the outside community was associated with high organizational commitment. Moreover, it was found that extra-work factors strongly predicted occupational commitment and moderately predicted organizational commitment. Likewise, Cherniss (1991) found that attitude towards life, age and job satisfaction were positively correlated with occupational commitment. In addition, married individuals were found to have stronger occupational commitment than singles participants.

Chusmir (1986) in a sample of male and female managers and professionals, focused on gender difference in variables affecting job involvement. With other variables held constant, she reported that family pressure, marital status, number of children and job satisfaction were significant predictors of job involvement in men, but not in women. Similarly, the number of children was strongly correlated with job satisfaction. Crosby, (1984) also found that a full family life was strongly related with more job satisfaction.

However, very few of these studies have adopted or attempted to develop a model or theoretical framework to explain this positive association between non-work participation and work attitudes. This is surprising given that non-work factors have been demonstrated in some situations to explain a significant amount of variance in some work attitudes such as occupational and organizational commitment (e.g., Randall, 1988; Steffy & Jones, 1988). With the growing number of findings supporting a positive relationship between non-work participation and work attitudes, there is a need to develop and test a framework that provides an adequate rationale for this relationship. To that end, Marks' (1977) model of multiple role accumulation holds promise.

In spite of its promise, only two studies have investigated Marks' (1977) model of multiple role accumulation. Randall (1988) proposed that Marks' (1977) 'expansion' and 'scarcity' models of multiple role accumulation could be viewed as possible explanations for either the positive and negative relationship respectively, between non-work participation and work attitudes. The conclusion Kirchmeyer (1992) reached however, was that the scarcity model of multiple role accumulation was supported.

In contrast, Kirchmeyer (1992) reported evidence supporting the Marks' (1977) 'expansion' model of multiple role accumulation and concluded that involvement in non-work domains enriched the resources an individual has, some of which are directed to the work domain, which ultimately improves attitudes at work.

The important underlying issue recognized by these studies is that explaining job attitudes strictly in terms of work conditions and experiences is very limiting (Jans, 1989; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Randall, 1988; Steffy, & Jones, 1988). Non-work factors do play an important role in determining attitudes at work. Managers and researchers alike cannot ignore the influence of outside work claimants. They cannot focus on work related factors alone. Therefore, a wider approach should be adopted.

SUMMARY & CONCLUSIONS

To recap, the nature, formation and modification of attitudes were outlined as a prelude to the description of four principal work attitudes. Each work attitude was described, with the main issues commonly raised about the work attitudes also being outlined.

In terms of the work attitudes and the work-family linkage, a literature review has revealed a significant relationship between work and non-work participation. More recently, this association has been identified as being positive in nature. However, an anomaly was identified: very little has been done to develop and test a model to account for this positive relationship between non-work participation and work attitudes. One model holds promise, but this has been tested only on two occasions.

The two attempts made and their findings were detailed. Randall (1988) concluded that our work and non-work spheres of life are treated as separate. However, Kirchmeyer (1992) criticised Randall (1988) for not considering the small positive correlations between non-work participation and organizational commitment. In repeating the study, Kirchmeyer (1992) found evidence supporting Marks' (1977) 'expansion model', and the link between non-work participation and resource enrichment. This in turn was correlated with organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Therefore it seems likely that non-work participation has a *positive* relationship with work attitudes, and it is the aim of this study to test this theory and extend Kirchmeyer's (1992) study.

Clearly the lack of research highlights the need to expand the research into work attitudes beyond work related factors, and include non-work related factors (Cherniss, 1992; Jans, 1989; Randall, 1988; Steffy, & Jones, 1988). It seems clear that the relationship between the non-work domain and the work domain is like an open system, interactive and reciprocal. Consequently, for researchers to consider work attitudes as independent from non-work life is extremely limiting.

Undoubtedly, participation in non-work activities is significantly related to work attitudes. Another important factor alluded to by Kirchmeyer (1992), is the concept of self-efficacy. Kirchmeyer (1992) suggested that resource enrichment may lead to an improved sense of personal competence, which in turn has been identified as an antecedent of work attitudes (e.g., Cherniss, 1992; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). This suggests that self-efficacy may play a mediational role between the positive outcomes of non-work participation and work attitudes. This is the focus of the next chapter, in which the concept of self-efficacy and its relationship to the present study is outlined.

CHAPTER FOUR

SELF-EFFICACY

Bandura (1986) argued that there is a phenomenon that underlies much of the recent theory and research on self-referent thought, namely "... an individual's sense of personal efficacy to exercise some control over the events that affect their lives" (p. 391).

According to Bandura (1977a), behaviour and behavioural change is mediated mainly by expectations of personal efficacy, which are expectations that one can successfully perform a given behaviour. These expectations determine whether or not behaviour will be initiated, how much effort will be expended, and how long the behaviour will be maintained in the face of challenges and obstacles.

Efficacy expectations and their consequences are proposed to vary in their level, strength and generality. The level of efficacy expectations refers to the degree of task difficulty that an individual feels she or he is able to attempt. The strength dimension refers to the durability of efficacy expectations when the individual is faced with experiences she or he is unable to confirm or establish. Generality refers to the degree to which efficacy expectations transfer to different behavioural domains (Bandura, 1977a & b; 1978; Bandura, Adams, & Beyer, 1977).

Bandura (1977b), emphasized that efficacy expectations are different from outcome expectations. An efficacy expectation is a belief concerning the *performance* of a behaviour. Whereas outcomes expectations are beliefs about the *consequences* of behaviour. For example, an individual may be prevented from performing a task because of having a low self-efficacy, even though she or he maybe certain that in completing the task, a desired outcome would result. Bandura (1986) therefore identified the

construct of self-efficacy as being related to the concept of subjective probability of success found in the literature on achievement motivation and decision-making (e.g., Atkinson, 1958; 1964; Horan, 1979).

The explanatory value of the self-efficacy concept is in its ability to initiate and maintain behavioural change. Bandura (1977b) argued "... that any psychological procedures, *whatever their form*' (own emphasis), serve as a means of creating and strengthening expectations of personal efficacy" (p. 193). To achieve this, Bandura identified four sources of information: (1) performance accomplishment, (2) vicarious experience, (3) verbal persuasion, (4) and emotional arousal.

Performance accomplishments are the most influential source of efficacy information. This is because they are based on personal mastery experiences (Bandura, 1977b). After several successes, the occasional negative impact of a failure is reduced. Once established, enhanced self-efficacy begins to generalize to other situations (Bandura, Adams, & Beyer, 1977). For example, a person who has a fear of snakes and spiders, and then successfully handles a spider without fear, is likely to increase his or her expectations of being able to perform that behaviour again. After doing so on several occasions, the individual may generalize the efficacy expectations to being able to handle snakes as well.

Vicarious experience is another source of information. Through observing others performing a behaviour, e.g., handling a snake without negative effects, the phobic individual is likely to modify his or her efficacy expectations.

Verbal persuasion or encouragement from others that one can successfully engage in a specific behaviour can also increase self-efficacy, as can methods of decreasing an individual's level of emotional arousal, i.e., anxiety in regard to the behaviour to be performed. However, any specific source of information may draw, to varying degrees, on one or more of the other sources, and the individual may draw on several sources of information simultaneously.

There are however some criticisms of the self-efficacy concept. First, there are some who claim that self-efficacy is a redundant concept. For example, there is an alternative explanation for the findings that self-efficacy predicted progress in therapy for phobias. Eysenck (1978) argued that changes in conditioned anxiety and fear could also be the reason, and argues that this is a more parsimonious explanation. However, Bandura and Adams (1977) demonstrated that even with phobic clients who had eliminated their anxiety, efficacy expectations still predicted the behaviour the clients were able to perform. Furthermore, Williams and Watson (1985) have shown that self-efficacy is a better predictor of phobic's behaviour than is anxiety or perceived danger.

The second criticism by Leary and Miller (1988) is whether self-efficacy has a causal impact on behaviour, or whether it is the outcome of witnessing one's own actions. However, research by Bandura, Reese and Adams (1982) demonstrated self-efficacy to directly influence behaviour. But Bandura (1984) also pointed out that self-efficacy is influenced by performance. Leary and Miller (188) therefore concluded that the causal link between self-efficacy and behaviour is reciprocal, with each partially determining the other.

The third and final criticism, is that efficacy theory has neglected the importance of outcome expectancies in directing behaviour. In the extreme it means that self-efficacy is an unnecessary construct. Operant behaviour can explain behaviour change, we do not need to have cognitive mediators like self-efficacy (Borkovec, 1978). At best it means that self-efficacy does have effects, but the theory overlooks just how important these effects are. It seems that its conceptual links to other determinants of behaviour need clarification, and it is only one cause of several causes of a person's behaviour (Leary & Miller, 1986) something which Bandura (1984) has repeatedly emphasized. Still, efficacy expectations are important to the cure of dysfunctional behaviour, as in the cure of phobias. Even if a person has the ability to do something, they do not complete the task because they believe that they cannot do it. Leary and Miller (1988) concluded confidently that self-efficacy appears to be fundamentally important to a person's attitudes and behaviours.

NON-WORK PARTICIPATION, SELF-EFFICACY & WORK ATTITUDES

While Bandura's concept of self-efficacy has been applied primarily to the treatment of various phobic syndromes in a clinical setting, it also has direct relevance to the understanding and modification of work related behaviour and attitudes.

Kirchmeyer (1992) considered the means by which involvement in non-work domains could enrich an individual's personal resources and argued that not only is the individual more valuable to the organization through resource enrichment, but also his or her self-efficacy is enhanced. Since it is likely that the resource enrichment gained through non-work participation may increase performance accomplishments at work, it is likely that self-efficacy is related to work attitudes in some way.

In addition, research has also demonstrated self-efficacy to be significantly related to various work attitudes like organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), and occupational commitment (Chemiss, 1992), suggesting a direct link between self-efficacy and work attitudes. It seems that self-efficacy is associated with work attitudes, and there is a possibility that self-efficacy is an outcome of the personal resources gained from non-work participation. The question is *how* self-efficacy fits into the non-work participation-work attitude linkage.

On the one hand, the relationship Kirchmeyer (1992) proposed suggests that self-efficacy acts as a mediator. That is, self-efficacy intervenes in the relationship between non-work participation and work attitudes, and helps explain how the physical involvement in non-work domains takes on a psychological significance in the workplace.

An additional step in the process from being involved in non-work activities to the enhancement of work attitudes is therefore being advanced. The resource enrichment gained from non-work participation may build the individual's self-efficacy which in turn enhances the employee's work attitudes. The question then, is whether the role that self-efficacy plays is the relationship between non-work participation and work attitudes is moderational or mediational. Unfortunately Kirchmeyer (1992) did not directly test this

hypothesis, rather she tested the notion that greater resource enrichment, gained through non-work participation, was linked with greater job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Near, Rice and Hunt (1980) did find evidence which suggested that subjective reactions (e.g., self-efficacy), mediate the relationship between objective conditions in one domain (e.g., non-work life) and the outcomes in the other domain (i.e., the workplace). Furthermore, this direct role, is also consistent with Bandura's social learning theory, where self-efficacy has been shown to operate as a mediating variable in phobia studies (e.g., Bandura & Adams, 1977). Consequently there is the suggestion that self-efficacy plays a mediating role.

On the other hand, self-efficacy may instead act as a moderating variable. Although Cherniss (1992) identified self-efficacy to be the theme underlying his qualitative research, this by no means proves conclusively that self-efficacy is in fact a moderator. A similar concept however, namely self-esteem (Cherniss, 1992), often plays moderating role, e.g., Aryee and Debrah (1993) found that self-esteem, was linked with increased career commitment. Applying this notion not only to career commitment, but also organizational commitment, job satisfaction and job involvement, it may be that self-efficacy is a moderating variable between non-work participation and work attitudes.

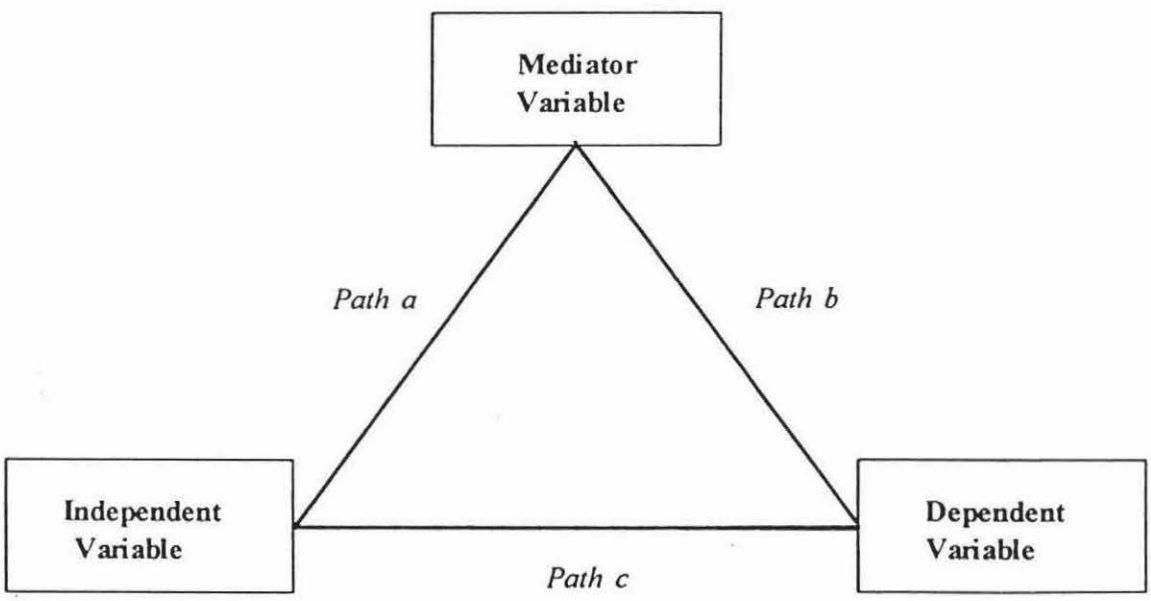
However, Baron and Kenny (1986), identified that one condition of a moderating variable is that it should be uncorrelated with both the predictor and the dependent variable. The research findings demonstrating self-efficacy to be associated with work attitudes indicate the two are linked. Moreover, although it has yet to be tested, Kirchmeyer (1992) suggested that non-work participation was related to self-efficacy. Therefore it seems self-efficacy does not meet the conditions for a moderating variable as set down by Baron and Kenny (1986).

Another property of the moderator variable (e.g., self-efficacy) is that it functions as an independent variable, whereas a mediating variable (i.e., self-efficacy) shifts roles from outcome variable to a causal variable depending on the focus of the analysis. Certainly

the research on self-efficacy suggests it is not independent of work attitudes or resource enrichment gained from multiple role participation in the non-work domain.

Therefore with the relationships that have been demonstrated in the literature, it seems unlikely that self-efficacy is a moderating variable, but rather it is has a mediating role in the relationship between non-work life and work attitudes. Consequently, the present study will test the mediating hypothesis. However, to further understand the nature of the mediating relationship, Baron and Kenny's (1986) model of a mediating variable is presented below in figure 4.1:

Figure 4.1 **Baron & Kenny's Mediational Model.**



SOURCE: Baron & Kenny (1986, p. 1176).

In diagram 4.1, there are two causal paths feeding into the outcome variable (i.e., work attitudes). *Path c* is the direct impact of the independent variable (i.e., personal resource enrichment), and *Path b* is the direct impact of the mediator variable (i.e., self-efficacy). There is also a path from the independent variable to the mediator variable (*Path a*).

To test these relationships four hierarchical regression, with each of the four work attitudes acting as the dependent variable, will be performed. Of interest are the standardized regression coefficients (or Beta coefficients) across the steps in the regression. If mediation does occur, then the coefficients will reduce in magnitude with each new variable or block of variables that is added to the regression equation. In the present study therefore, the mediating effect of self-efficacy should result in the resource enrichment coefficients decreasing in size when self-efficacy is added to the equation in step three.

SUMMARY & CONCLUSIONS

In summary, this chapter outlined Bandura's (1977) concept of self-efficacy. The first section identified self-efficacy as being dependent on efficacy expectations which were distinguished from efficacy outcomes. The expectations vary on three dimensions: level, strength and generality, and derive from four sources of efficacy information: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. Criticisms however, were raised in respect to self-efficacy as a concept, they have been dealt with in the literature and are of no great concern.

The next section detailed the link between work attitudes, self efficacy and non-work participation. A review of the literature demonstrated that a link between self-efficacy and work attitudes seems likely. Kirchmeyer (1992) suggested a link between resource enrichment and work attitudes, that was mediated by self-efficacy. Although this link was not directly tested in her study, and so it remains to be seen whether the resource enrichment-work attitude relationship is mediated by self-efficacy.

Evidence was presented suggesting that self-efficacy may be instead a moderating variable. However, it was concluded that self-efficacy acts as a mediator between non-work participation and work attitudes. Therefore the mediating hypothesis is to be tested in the present study. A model of a mediator variable was then outlined, describing its nature and the method of testing it.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY & RESEARCH GOALS

Researchers studying work behaviours and attitudes have tended to investigate only work related correlates of these attitudes and behaviours. Non-work life however, is also associated with these work behaviours and attitudes. When inspecting the literature on the interplay between the two domains, the general finding is a negative relationship full of tension and stress. Recently, a few studies have revealed favourable associations between non-work participation and work attitudes, some even proposed a positive relationship (e.g., Steffy & Jones, 1988). Even less have tested why this may occur.

In 1977, Marks advanced a model that may offer a justification for this relationship. Only two studies however, have investigated this model. The first found no support for the expansion model, and suggested that the 'scarcity' model was supported. That is, personal resources and energy are not abundant, but limited, and scarce (Randall, 1988). The second in contrast, concluded the 'expansion' model to be supported citing two weaknesses in Randall's study (Kirchmeyer 1992). Moreover, Kirchmeyer utilised the four positive outcomes of multiple role accumulation submitted by Sieber (1974).

Sieber believed role accumulation could have four positive consequences, namely, privileges gained, status security, status enhancement, and personality enrichment. Kirchmeyer believed that these four positive consequences represented the resource enrichment gained from non-work participation, i.e., multiple role accumulation. By achieving these outcomes, the individual could improve not only his or her ability to take on further roles or activities, but also improve the individual's work attitudes and behaviour. This would lead to the individual being valued more at work and consequently incur a positive impact on the individual's work attitudes.

As stated earlier, if non-work activities can be shown to have a positive association with work attitudes (such as job satisfaction), without compromising the individual's commitment or involvement to the job or organization, then there were some important implications to be considered by managers and researchers alike: (1) when selecting staff, the organization should look not only at the applicant's work performance but also the applicant's extra-curricular activities. Certain activities may provide resources and skills that could assist the applicant in performing the job successfully, (2) organizations should consider taking an active interest in their staff's non-work activities. Even to the point of encouraging employee involvement and participation in non-work activities, (3) to truly understand the individual at work, researchers and managers alike must not only consider the individual's life at work, but also that person's life *outside* the workplace.

Clearly then, the expansion model is important, not only in academia, but also for business. To establish the validity of the model requires the proposed relationships to be submitted as hypotheses, and subjected to rigorous empirical testing.

HYPOTHESES ONE & TWO

The assumption underlying the 'expansion' model of multiple role accumulation, is that individual's possess an unlimited supply of personal resources, such as time, energy and loyalty (Marks, 1977). The implication is that if an individual allocates resources to one domain (e.g., non-work activities), she or he can also distribute equivalent resources to another domain (e.g., work). Hence, the amount of time and involvement an individual spends in the non-work domains, need not deprive other domains of the individual's commitment and supply of personal resources.

Although Randall (1988) concluded that the 'scarcity' model was supported, Kirchmeyer (1992) noted that Randall's data in fact indicated some weak support for the expansion model in the form of small positive correlations. Moreover, Kirchmeyer (1992) herself, found evidence supporting the 'expansion' model of non-work participation. She reported positive associations between time and involvement in non-work domains, and

organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Like Kirchmeyer (1992), to test the implications of the 'expansion' model the first and second hypotheses to be advanced are similar to those proposed by Randall (1988):

Hypothesis 1: More time spent (i.e., time commitment) in the non-work domains will be associated with greater:

(a) Organizational commitment.
(b) Occupational commitment.
(c) Job satisfaction.
(d) Job involvement.

Hypothesis 2: Greater personal involvement in non-work domains will be associated with increases in:

(a) Organizational commitment.
(b) Occupational commitment.
(c) Job satisfaction.
(d) Job involvement.

HYPOTHESIS THREE

Kirchmeyer (1992) used Sieber's (1974) expansion type model of domain relationships to represent the means by which non-work participation may positively influence work attitudes. The four benefits gained from multiple role participation were: (1) privileges gained, (2) status security, (3) status enhancement, and (4) personality enrichment.

To test the association between Sieber's (1974) means of enrichment and work attitudes, Kirchmeyer's (1992) hypotheses will adopted:

Hypothesis 3: Greater resource enrichment from non-work participation will be associated with greater:

(a) Organizational commitment.
(b) Occupational commitment.
(c) Job satisfaction.
(d) Job involvement.

HYPOTHESES FOUR

Finally, Kirchmeyer (1992) hinted at an additional step in the relationship between resource enrichment and strengthening our work attitudes, that is self-efficacy. In her study, Kirchmeyer suggested that "... resource enrichment involves enhancing not only the individual's capacity to meet work demands and his or her value to the employing organization, but also his or her sense of personal competence. It is through such enhancements that non-work participation could favourably influence attitudes toward the organization and the job" (p. 779).

Kirchmeyer (1992) suggested that self-efficacy may fit into the non-work participation-work attitude relationship as a mediating variable. In addition, the mediational role is also consistent with Bandura's social learning theory. As a mediator, self-efficacy is therefore postulated to intervene in the relationship between non-work participation and work attitudes. This serves to explain how being physically involved in activities takes on a psychological significance (i.e., enhance our work attitudes).

To test the mediation effect for each on the work attitudes, four hierarchical regressions will be performed to test whether self-efficacy is a mediator between resource enrichment and work attitudes, hence:

Hypothesis 4: With demographic variables controlled for, resource enrichment will be reduced with the introduction of self-efficacy.

The purpose of the present study is to test an expanded version of Marks' (1977) model of multiple role accumulation. If the hypothesized relationships are established, then this will suggest that participation in non-work activities such as community groups, parenting or recreation/hobby groups, may indeed influence attitudes at work, via self-efficacy. To this end, the works of Marks (1977), Randall (1988) and Kirchmeyer (1992) were utilized, as the conceptual foundation for this study. In particular, the methodology used by Kirchmeyer was for the most part adopted for this study. The results of which are detailed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

METHOD

PARTICIPANTS

Members from five Rotary clubs, the YWCA, a women's business group, and four Lion clubs were invited to participate in the present study. 31% responded to the invitation to participate, a rate consistent with most mail out surveys (e.g., Kirchmeyer, 1992). The sample itself consisted of 55 men, and 38 women, ranging in occupation (including, managers, professionals, sales, service and clerical occupations) and in age (from 28 to 64 years), with the majority falling between the ages of 39 and 57 years. On average the men and women worked 43.7 hours per week, earning $56,000, working with 33 people in a large local organization (e.g., hospital, university or city council) for approximately 10 years. The large representation of participants in the 39 to 57 age range and the extremely high income, is likely due to the fact that many of the organizations sampled (e.g., Rotary and Lions) are generally comprised of middle aged to older members employed in high earning occupations. The finings of the present study therefore, are really only applicable to mid to late aged professionals.

MEASURES

The questionnaire contained measures of each of the four work attitudes: job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational and career commitment. In addition, self-efficacy, resource enrichment gained from the three non-work domains, and selected demographic information, were also measured. A complete list of the items for each of the scales used in the present study are reproduced in the Appendices.

Organizational Commitment: Mowday *et. al.'s* (1979) fifteen item scale was used in the present study to measure organizational commitment, which is the strength of identification in a particular organization. Item responses were recorded on a seven point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Sample items from the questionnaire include: "I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar", "I really care about the fate of this organization", and "For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work". A total score was calculated by summing the scores of the individual items to produce a total score for each participant. Price and Meuller (1986) reported an internal consistency coefficient of .89 which is consistent with previous research. In terms of discriminant validity, low correlations between this instrument and other measures were also reported (e.g., job satisfaction). Similarly Morrow and McElroy (1986) conducted a factor analysis of Mowday *et. al.'s* (1979) measure alongside other commitment measures (e.g., Porter *et. al.'s* Organizational Commitment Questionnaire), and found that this measure to be distinct from job involvement, work ethic endorsement and other forms of work commitment.

Occupational Commitment: Occupational commitment, the attitude a person has towards his or her occupation, was measured using Blau's (1988) seven item scale. Participants responded on a five point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree), however, the items in Blau's instrument were re-worded. Previously, a specific occupation (e.g., banker, lawyer, manager, etc) was the focus of each item, in this study the broader term "field" replaced specific occupations, so as to be applicable to the wide range of careers participants were likely to be employed in. The resulting items were as follows: (1) "If I could go into a different occupation other than the one I am in now, which paid the same, I probably would do so" (reverse scored); (2) "I definitely want a career for myself in the field I am now"; (3) "If I could do it all over again, I would not choose to work in the field I am currently in" (reversed scored); (4) "If I had all the money I needed without working, I would probably still continue to work in the field I am in now"; (5) "I like the vocation I am in now, too well to give it up"; (6) "The vocation I am in now, is the ideal vocation for a life work"; and (7) "I am disappointed that I ever entered the field I am currently working in" (reversed scored).

Previous research has demonstrated the measure to be reliable and valid across a variety of samples. For example Blau (1988) found occupational commitment to have an internal consistency of .83 in a sample of newspaper employees, and .84 in a sample of insurance employees. In terms of discriminant validity, in the insurance sample, it was found that the relationship between occupational commitment and job withdrawal cognitions was non-significant (-.11), weaker than the relationship between job involvement and job withdrawal cognitions (-.21). In terms of convergent validity, occupational commitment demonstrated a stronger relationship with career withdrawal cognitions (-.36) than with job withdrawal cognitions (-.11).

Additional reliability and validity evidence was reported by Blau (1989) in a sample of bank tellers. The reported internal consistency estimate was .84, over a period of six months. Discriminant validity was also longitudinally tested, revealing a relationship between occupational commitment and job withdrawal cognitions that was not significant (-.14). Moreover, the variance shared with job involvement and organizational commitment was only 10% and 8%, respectively, thus indicating minimal redundancy with these work attitudes. Finally with respect to convergent validity evidence, Blau (1989) reported that occupational commitment was significantly correlated with job withdrawal cognitions (-.36), while job involvement (-.10) and organizational commitment (-.11) did not. Items were summed to create a total score for the scale.

Job Satisfaction: Job satisfaction, the perceived relationship between what an individual wants from work, and what the work is perceived to offer, was measured using Warr, Cook, and Wall's (1979) scale. A short and robust measure, this scale was designed to cover extrinsic and intrinsic job features. Moreover, the two sets of items could be used as separate sub-scales of extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction. The fifteen item questionnaire uses a seven point Likert scale to record responses (1 = extremely dissatisfied, 7 = extremely satisfied). In a pilot study Warr *et. al.*, (1979) drew two samples from a variety of locations, within the manufacturing industry. The internal consistency estimates were .85 and .88 for the two samples. Similarly, in a study of 574 employees in an engineering company Clegg and Wall (1981) found an internal consistency of .92. The test-retest reliability was .63 over a period of six months. The

extrinsic sub-scale had an internal consistency score of .74 and .78 for the two samples, while the internal consistency estimate for the intrinsic sub-scale was .79 and .85, respectively. The intercorrelation between the sub-scales was strongly positive, .72, a figure that was reported to be similar to the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Clegg & Wall, 1981).

Divergent validity evidence was demonstrated by the two instruments being associated with a measure of job involvement. The correlation between job involvement and the intrinsic/extrinsic job satisfaction sub-scales were .30, and .30, respectively, while overall job satisfaction correlated .27 with job involvement. Convergent validity evidence revealed that job satisfaction correlated with organizational commitment (.58). The items were linearly summed to produce a total score for the scale.

Job Involvement & Time Commitment: For this study, Kanungo's (1982) ten item measure was used to estimate job involvement, which refers to the degree to which a person identifies with his or her work. Responses were recorded on a six point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree). Many of the items are based on Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) original job involvement measure (e.g., "I am very much involved in my work", and "The most important things that happen to me involves my work").

Although very popular, the Lodahl and Kejner measure was not used for three reasons. First, Blau (1985a) reported difficulties in demonstrating the internal consistency of Lodahl and Kejner's instrument. Secondly, Kanungo's measure of job involvement is a purer operationalization of job involvement, in that Kanungo focused the concept making it more easily distinguishable from other work attitudes (Blau, 1985a). Lastly, Blau (1988) reported high internal consistency estimates across different occupational groups: .85 (clerical), .87 (Administrative), .85 (faculty), and .86 (service and maintenance personnel). The items were linearly summed to produce a total scale score.

The amount of time committed to the non-work and work domains was measured simply by asking the participants to report the number of hours they typically spent per week in activities from that domain.

Non-Work Involvement: In accordance with the approach adopted by Kirchmeyer (1992), the present study also separated non-work involvement into three domains which held many of the common social roles (Kirchmeyer, 1992), they were: (1) the parenting domain, (2) the community domain, which includes political, religious, charities, and volunteer groups and (3) the recreation/hobby domain, which includes involvement in sports teams, social clubs, and hobby groups.

Non-work involvement was measured by adapting Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) job involvement measure to reflect the particular non-work domain. Thus, the statement "I am very much involved in my job", was altered to read "I am very much involved in the community" for the community domain. Responses were recorded on a five point Likert scale. Kirchmeyer (1992) reported the following internal consistency estimates for each of the non-work domains: .73 (parenting), .65 (community), and .77 (recreation/hobby), using an altered Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) scale to measure non-work involvement. With respect to divergent validity evidence, the correlations between non-work involvement and work involvement were -.10 (parenting), .24 (community), and .05 (recreation/hobby). Good support for Kirchmeyer's adaptation of Lodahl and Kejner's (1969) job involvement questionnaire is therefore available. Once again, a total scale score was calculated by linearly summing the items.

Resource Enrichment: Kirchmeyer (1992) developed a fifteen item questionnaire to assess Sieber's (1974) four benefits of multiple role participation, i.e., privileges gained, status enhancement, status security, and personality enrichment. Drawing on Crouter's (1984) and Piotrkowski's (1979) work on the experiences of workers involved in multiple domains, Kirchmeyer developed the content of the measure, so as to reflect the resources gained through involved in non-work activities. The resulting instrument had three sets of five items, with each set focusing on a particular non-work domain, i.e. parent, community groups and recreation/hobby groups, with each item beginning with the phrase "being a parent...", "being involved in the community...", or "being involved in recreation/hobby groups...", depending on which domain the set of items were focusing on. Each participant was therefore asked to complete only those sections that

pertained to the domains in which she or he was involved in. A six point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree) constituted the response format.

The internal consistency reported by Kirchmeyer (1992) for each of the non-work domains ranged from .87 to .90. A factor analysis of the fifteen items by Kirchmeyer revealed that those items in the same set, i.e., status security, status enhancement, personality enrichment, and privileges gained, generally loaded together on a common factor (i.e., four factors), thus supporting Sieber's (1974) four outcomes of multiple role participation. The high internal consistency scores indicated to Kirchmeyer that the scores of the fifteen items could be summed into a single score.

Self-Efficacy: Self-efficacy, the belief that on can perform a task or specified behaviour (Bandura, 1982), was measured by Sherer, Maddux, Mercante, Prentice-Dunn, Jacobs, and Roger's (1982) 17 item general self-efficacy scale. Responses were recorded on a five point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Woodruff and Chasman (1993) found an internal consistency estimate of .84, for the general self-efficacy sub-scale, which was similar to Sherer *et. al.'s* finding of .86. Woodruff and Chasman (1993), reported the measure to significantly correlate with other personality measures, including self-esteem, internal locus of control and sense of mastery. For example, like Sherer *et. al.* (1982), Woodruff and Chasman (1993), reported a significant negative correlation between the general self-efficacy scale and the self-esteem scale (r = -.539). The negative correlation occurred because a low score on the self-esteem scale indicates high self-esteem, whereas high self-efficacy is indicated by a high score. Similarly the correlation with the I-E scale that Sherer *et. al.* (1982) reported was also significantly negative (r = -.287). Sherer *et. al.* (1982) also found general self-efficacy to be a good predictor of past performance in vocational and military samples. Likewise, Woodruff and Chasman (1993) provided additional support for the criterion validity of the efficacy scale. Item scores were linearly summed to obtained an overall score for the scale.

Personal Characteristics: Personal characteristics were assessed via self-report, including, education (1 = non-school qualification to 5 = university degree, diploma or certificate), age (years), sex, marital status (single, married, divorced, and widowed), number of children (their ages, and how many lived at home), ethnic group (Maori, European, Pacific Islander, and other), and personal gross income (per year). In addition, occupation (ranging from 0 = armed forces, to 9 = elementary occupations), tenure, the type of organization the participant is working for (from large international organizations to small local businesses or self-employed), and the number of people within the organization.

PROCEDURE

In the Winter of 1994, the secretaries of several Rotary clubs, the YWCA, a women's business group, and several Lion clubs were contacted, asking whether the members would complete a questionnaire investigating how being involved in activities outside of work can influence our attitudes at work. In order to secure the participation of the various group members, an appeal was made to the practical implications the present study had for organizations. For example, organizations should encourage their present employees to be actively involved in activities outside of work, due to the possibility that it may enhance job performance. For the same reason, organizations should also look at what prospective employees do outside of work, in addition to work related factors.

Consent was obtained through the participant signing a consent form (see Appendix 10), which was mailed separately from the questionnaire. The participant was also sent an information sheet which included who the researchers were, the aim of the study, what the participant had to do, and what she or he could expect from the researcher, and that their responses were guaranteed to be anonymous and confidential. In addition, the participant was informed that she or he could refuse to answer any question, withdraw from the study at any time, provide information on the understanding that it is in confidence, will not be identified in any reports about the study, and that written

feedback is available on request to the researcher. Anonymity was further guaranteed by allocating each questionnaire with a code number, and getting the participant to mail the questionnaire and consent form in separate envelopes. Follow-up reminders were conducted by phoning the secretaries of the various groups, three weeks after the initial mail out. The response rate was 31.3%, with 93 usable questionnaires returned.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RESULTS

Of the 93 participants in the present study, there were 55 men and 38 women, ranging in age from 28 to 64 years old (M = 48.76, SD = 7.70). The majority of the participants were of European origin, married and employed in a diverse range of occupations, including managerial, professional, sales, retail and clerical professions. In terms of educational level men and women on average, held a trade certificate or professional diploma even though more participants had a university degree or diploma (N = 44), than those who had a trade certificate (N = 27). Furthermore, participants worked between 6 to 70 hours per week (M = 44.29 hrs, SD = 12.69 hrs), earned between $6,000 and $150,000 per year ($M$ = $56,000, SD = $32,000), and on average worked in a large local organization (e.g., hospital, university or city council) with 33 other employees, for nearly 10 years.

With respect to non-work domain involvement, 79 of the total sample, were parents, 81 were involved in the community (e.g., charities, political organizations, religious groups, volunteer groups, etc), and 78 participants were involved in recreation/hobby groups (e.g., sports teams, social clubs and hobby groups). In particular, participants who were parents, on average, had 2.84 children, with one child living at home, and spent 31.84 hours per week parenting. Those participating in the community domain, spent up to 50 hours per week involved in such activities (M = 5.543, SD = 6.49), while those participating in recreation/hobby domain, spent between 0 and 58 hours per week in such activities (M = 7.28, SD = 8.41).

The intercorrelations among the four work attitudes and self-efficacy presented in Table 7.1, ranged from r = -.14 to r = .58, indicating that the five constructs are empirically distinct. Even the significant correlations between job satisfaction and job involvement with occupational commitment, r = .30, p =.004, and r = .31, p = .003, respectively, can be considered as separate and distinct constructs (Morrow, 1983). Furthermore, all of the alphas are well above the standard of .60 set down by Nunnally (1960) as the minimum requirement for psychological research.

Table 7.1

Work Attitude & Self-Efficacy Intercorrelation Matrix[a]

VARIABLES N =79	MEAN (SD)	1	2	3	4	5
1. Occupational Commitment	25.18 (5.16)	***.84***				
2. Organizational Commitment	71.49 (29.57)	.27*	***.97***			
3. Job Satisfaction	67.43 (17.95)	.30**	.58***	***.91***		
4. Job Involvement	34.19 (8.68)	.31**	.10	.11	***.80***	
5. Self-Efficacy	44.10 (4.44)	-.06	-.14	-.05	.17	***.78***

Note[a]: Cronbach alphas are shown on the diagonals in bold italics.

* $p < .05$, * $p < .01$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed tests).

However, the significantly high correlation between job satisfaction and organizational commitment r = .58, p = .000, is contradictory to correlations reported in the literature (e.g. Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Although this throws doubt on the conceptual distinctiveness of the two work attitudes, it is more likely to be a consequence of the instruments used. Thus it seems that Mowday *et. al's* (1979) organizational commitment

measure and Warr *et. al's* (1979) job satisfaction measure, draw on similar conceptual space. Due to the extensive research supporting the validity of Mowday *et al's* organizational commitment measure, it seems likely that Warr *et. al's* job satisfaction instrument measures organizational commitment more than it does job satisfaction. The consequence for the present study is that although the two constructs have been measured reliably, they have not been measured accurately. This means that correlations and regression coefficients involving job satisfaction will be underestimated due to the poor measurement of job satisfaction.

The intercorrelations among the non-work domain variables are presented in Table 7.2, and range from $\underline{r}$ = -.13 to $\underline{r}$ =.42, with all the alphas well above Nunnally's standard of .60. Like Kirchmeyer (1992), the intercorrelations are all positive with one negative correlation between time commitment and resource enrichment in the parenting domain. Most of the remaining intercorrelations reach significance which to Kirchmeyer (1992), were acceptable associations between the non-work domain variables, although intercorrelations in the present study are slightly smaller in magnitude compared to those in Kirchmeyer's (1992) study. However, like Kirchmeyer, it is concluded that in the present study, the participants perceive that involvement in the three non-work domains enriches their resources for work.

Table 7.2

Non-Work Domain Intercorrelation Matrix[a]

VARIABLES	MEAN (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
PARENTING										
1. Resource Enrichment	58.63 (14.03)	***.98***								
2. Time Commitment[b]	31.84 (31.06)	-.13								
3. Involvement	16.30 (4.59)	.19^{+}	.14	***.91***						
COMMUNITY										
4. Resource Enrichment	58.89 (12.58)				***.98***					
5. Time Commitment	5.54 (6.49)				.23^{+}					
6. Involvement	14.05 (4.31)				.33***	.21^{+}	***.84***			
RECREATION										
7. Resource Enrichment	53.74 (11.92)							***.98***		
8. Time Commitment	.28 (8.41)							.05		
9. Involvement	13.56 (3.09)							.42***	.04	***.83***

Note[a]: For parenting, N = 79, for community, N = 81, for recreation N = 78, total N = 93. Cronbach alphas are shown on the diagonals in bold italics.

Note[b]: Time commitment refers to hours spent per week involved in the non-work domain.

$^{+}$ $p < .05$, * $p < .01$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed tests).

Of the correlations between the dependent variables and the various demographic variables presented in Table 7.3, several were significant. Age was negatively correlated with time committed to parenting, $\underline{r}$ = -.22, p = .034, i.e., the older the individual the less time spent parenting, which is not surprising given that children grow up and become less dependent on their parents. Education was negatively correlated with time spent in the community domain, $\underline{r}$ = -.26, p = .018, and the level of involvement in the recreation/hobby domain, $\underline{r}$ = -.21, p = .050. This means that with higher education, less time is spent in community activities and a lower level of involvement in recreation activities. Income however, was positively correlated with job satisfaction, $\underline{r}$ = .40, p = .000, which meant that greater satisfaction with the individual's job was associated with a higher income, a relationship consistently demonstrated in the literature.

Not surprisingly, longer tenure and more hours worked per week were significantly related to greater job involvement, $\underline{r}$ = .24, p = .018, and $\underline{r}$ = .35, p = .001, respectively. Furthermore, hours worked per week correlated significantly, but negatively with involvement in the recreation/hobby domain, $\underline{r}$ = -.28, p = .014, which means that the more hours worked per week, the less involvement the participant felt he or she had in recreation activities. It was therefore decided, that because of the various significant relationships between age, education, tenure, and hours worked per week with the four work attitudes, the demographic variables should be controlled in the subsequent hierarchical regressions by entering them first in the equation, together as one block.

Table 7.3

Correlations Between Demographic Variables & Work Attitudes, Self-Efficacy & Non-Work Domain Variables[a].

VARIABLES	Age	Education	Income ($1,000)	Hours Worked (per week)	Tenure
Occupational Commitment	-.06	-.01	.13	-.02	.04
Organizational Commitment	-.09	.04	.18	.06	.15
Job Satisfaction	-.02	-.09	.42***	.18	.03
Job Involvement	-.13	.18	.38***	.35***	.24+
Self-Efficacy	.01	-.13	.18	-.03	.14
PARENTING					
Resource Enrichment	.00	-.12	.00	.03	.07
Time Commitment	.22+	.04	-.17	-.16	-.03
Involvement	-.05	.07	-.01	-.08	-.02
COMMUNITY					
Resource Enrichment	.00	-.12	.02	-.07	-.08
Time Commitment	.12	-.26+	-.10	.01	-.13
Involvement	.08	.03	-.14	-.16	-.19
RECREATION					
Resource Enrichment	-.25+	-.20	.15	-.03	-.12
Time Commitment	-.01	-.09	.26+	.03	-.03
Involvement	.09	-.21	-.02	-.28+	-.08

Note[a]: For parenting, $N = 79$, for community, $N = 81$, for recreation $N = 78$, total $N = 93$. Cronbach alphas are shown on the diagonals in bold italics.

+ $p < .05$, * $p < .01$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed tests).

To ascertain whether sex should be included as a control variable in the subsequent hierarchical regressions, a series of t-tests were conducted to examine sex differences in the dependent variables (i.e., work attitudes and resource enrichment). An *F*-test of sample variances was performed for each comparison. If the probability of *F* was > .05, then is was presumed that the sample variances were equal and the *t* statistics established on pooled variance estimates were employed. If the probability of *F* was < .05, then it was presumed that the sample variances were not equal and *t* statistics based on separate variance estimates were employed (Snedecor & Cochran, 1980). The results of the *t*-tests are summarized below in Table 7.4.

Although no predictions were formally presented, some significant differences were found between men and women. In particular men were more involved in their jobs than women (p = .003), and women spent more time parenting than men (p = .002), while no significant differences were found between men and women for resource enrichment in the recreation/hobby domain. Nevertheless, the breakdowns of all the variables by sex revealed some significant differences between men and women, and so sex shall be entered in the first block of the hierarchical regressions.

Table 7.4.

Results of the T-Tests Between Sex & Dependent Variables[a].

VARIABLES	MEANS (SD) Males	Females	T-VALUES
Occupational Commitment	24.70 (5.36)	24.63 (5.37)	0.12
Organizational Commitment	69.56 (32.43)	67.39 (27.86)	0.34
Job Satisfaction	68.15 (19.35)	65.05 (16.77)	0.80
Job Involvement	36.25 (7.83)	30.39 (7.88)	3.54**
Self-Efficacy	44.27 (4.07)	44.54 (5.28)	-0.27
Time Commitment (Parenting Domain)	23.88 (18.28)	46.32 (42.80)	-3.25**
Resource Enrichment (Recreation/Hobby Domain)	43.53 (23.16)	47.32 (22.06)	-0.79

Note[a]: Only time commitment (parenting) and resource enrichment (recreation) were used in the t-tests as there were the only non-work domain variables to significantly correlate with sex.

df = 91

* $p < .01$, ** $p < .005$ (two-tailed tests).

HYPOTHESIS ONE TO THREE

Hypothesis one to hypothesis three, was tested by examining the Pearson product-moment correlations to determine first, whether more time spent in the non-work domain (i.e., parenting, community or recreation) would be positively associated with greater work attitudes (i.e., occupational commitment, organizational commitment, job

satisfaction, and job involvement). Secondly, whether increased personal involvement in the three non-work domains is associated with an increase in work attitudes, and thirdly, whether increased resource enrichment from non-work participation is associated with increases in the four work attitudes.

HYPOTHESIS ONE

The first hypothesis in this section was concerned with the relationships between the four work attitudes and the time spent in the three non-work domains, the results of which, are presented in Table 7.5. Occupational commitment was negatively, and significantly related to time spent the recreation/hobby domain, $r = -.27$, $p = .01$, but not with time spent in either the parenting or community domain. Thus, greater occupational commitment was associated with less time spent in recreation and hobby activities. Organizational commitment however, was not significantly related to time spent in any of the three non-work domains (i.e., parenting, community and recreation/hobby).

A significant negative correlation was found between job satisfaction and time spent parenting, $r = -.25$, $p = .01$, although no other significant associations were found with the community, and recreation/hobby domains. In other words, greater job satisfaction was associated with less time spent in the parenting domain. Similarly, job involvement was significantly, but negatively associated with time spent in the parenting domain, $r = -.30$, $p = .005$, meaning that greater job involvement was associated with less time spent parenting.

The number of negative correlations, and the lack of significant positive correlations implied that the data did not support the first hypothesis for any of the work attitudes. Therefore more time spent in the non-work domain was not associated with stronger work attitudes, which was inconsistent with the 'expansion' model of the work-family linkage.

Table 7.5

Correlations Between Time Spent in the Non-Work Domain & Work Attitudes.

	TIME SPENT IN THE NON-WORK DOMAIN		
VARIABLES	Parenting	Community	Recreation
N	77	79	75
Occupational Commitment	.03	.03	-.27*
Organizational Commitment	.08	-.16	.03
Job Satisfaction	-.25+	-.07	.04
Job Involvement	-.30**	.18	-.07

+ $p < .05$, * $p < .01$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed tests).

HYPOTHESIS TWO

Hypothesis two tested the link between involvement in the three non-work domains, and the level of the four work attitudes. The correlations are presented in Table 7.6, where the only significant and positive correlations were between occupational commitment and personal involvement in the parenting domain, $\underline{r} = .27$, $p = .008$. That is, greater personal involvement in the parenting domain was associated with greater occupational commitment. Once again organizational commitment was not significantly associated with any of the non-work domains.

The only significant correlation involving job satisfaction was with involvement in the recreation/hobby domain, $\underline{r} = .35$, $p = .001$, which meant that greater involvement in recreation and hobby groups was associated with greater job satisfaction. Meanwhile, Job involvement, was correlated with involvement in the community domain and with the recreation/hobby domain, $\underline{r} = .24$, $p = .015$ and $\underline{r} = .19$, $p = .05$, respectively. Hence

greater involvement in the community and in recreation and hobby groups was associated with greater job involvement.

The correlations between organizational commitment and personal involvement in the three non-work domain were all negative, suggesting that the data did not fit the second hypothesis. However, the positive correlations between occupational commitment and job involvement with the three non-work domains (three of which were significant) did provide some support for the second hypothesis. Nonetheless, the correlations between job satisfaction and personal involvement in the three non-work domains were equivocal, which does not support the hypothesis. The mixed results therefore, suggest that the second hypothesis was supported by the data, but only in two circumstances. That is, greater personal involvement in the non-work domains seemed to be associated with greater occupational commitment and job involvement, but not associated with greater organizational commitment and job satisfaction, which was not surprising given the significant correlation between these two work attitudes. Overall then, there is partial support for the 'expansion' model of multiple role participation.

Table **7.6**

Correlations Between Personal Involvement in the Non-Work Domain & Work Attitudes.

	PERSONAL INVOLVEMENT IN THE NON-WORK DOMAIN		
VARIABLES N	Parenting 77	Community 79	Recreation 75
Occupational Commitment	.27*	.18	.08
Organizational Commitment	-.13	-.14	-.06
Job Satisfaction	-.08	.17	.35***
Job Involvement	.03	.24+	.19+

$^{+}$ $p < .05$, * $p < .01$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed tests).

HYPOTHESIS THREE

Table 7.7 presents the results of the third hypothesis, which tested the relationship between the resource enrichment obtained from participation in the three non-work domains, and the four work attitudes. The correlations between occupational commitment and resource enrichment in the three non-work domains were all positive, and significant: parenting domain, $\underline{r} = .29$, $p = .005$; community domain, $\underline{r} = .43$, $p = .000$; recreation/hobby domain, $\underline{r} = .32$, $p = .002$. Consequently, greater resource enrichment obtained from the three non-work domains was associated with greater occupational commitment.

Organizational commitment however, was only significantly related to the enrichment gained from the recreation/hobby domain $\underline{r} = 23$, $p = .02$, and not significantly associated with enrichment from the parenting and community domains. Therefore only greater resource enrichment form recreation and hobby groups was associated with greater organizational commitment.

The correlations between job satisfaction and resource enrichment revealed a significant relationship with the community domain, $\underline{r} = .27$, $p = .009$, and the recreation/hobby domain, $\underline{r} = .30$, $p = .004$, but not with the parenting domain. Thus greater resource enrichment from the community and recreation/hobby domains was associated with more job satisfaction. Like occupational commitment, job involvement was significantly associated with all three non-work domains: parenting, $\underline{r} = .32$, $p = .002$; community $\underline{r} = .24$, $p = .017$; recreation/hobby, $\underline{r} = .26$, $p = .013$. Consequently, more resource enrichment from the non-work domains was associated with increased job involvement.

The data to pertaining organizational commitment is equivocal and hence does not support the third hypothesis. However, occupational commitment, job satisfaction and job involvement without a doubt, did support the third hypothesis. Therefore, the overall conclusion is that there is strong support for the hypothesis that greater resource enrichment gained from participation in the three non-work domains is associated with greater work attitudes. This in turn provide some evidence for the 'expansion' model.

Table 7.7

Correlations Between Resource Enrichment in the Non-Work Domain & Work Attitudes.

	RESOURCE ENRICHMENT IN THE NON-WORK DOMAINS		
VARIABLES	Parenting	Community	Recreation
N	77	79	75
Occupational Commitment	.29**	.43***	.32**
Organizational Commitment	-.10	.10	.23+
Job Satisfaction	.18	.27*	.30**
Job Involvement	.32**	.24+	.26+

+ $p < .05$, * $p < .01$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed tests).

HYPOTHESES FOUR

Hypotheses four was concerned with the mediating effect that self-efficacy was hypothesized to have, between resource enrichment and the four work attitudes. To test these relationships a series of four hierarchical regressions were performed, with one work attitude as the dependent variable for each regression. Although Baron and Kenny (1986) suggested a series of three separate multiple regressions, as stated earlier a hierarchical regression was far more parsimonious as the statistical method to assess the mediating effect of self-efficacy.

In the first step, the demographic variables (i.e., sex, age, education, tenure, income and hours worked per week) were entered into the equation as a block so their effect could be controlled for in the second and third steps of the regression. The next block of variables entered into the equation was the resource enrichment obtained from the three non-work domains (i.e., parenting, community and recreation). In the third step self-efficacy was added to the regression equation.

As Tables 7.8 to 7.11 indicate, only steps two and three for the occupational commitment regression, step one for the job satisfaction regression, and all three steps in the job involvement regression, explain a significant amount of the variance in the work attitude. Changes in R^2 are signified by $\blacktriangle R^2$, which indicates the unique contribution of each variable or block of variables, in explaining the variance over and above that provided by the variable or blocks of variables in the previous step.

However, of particular interest is the examination of the standardized regression coefficients or Beta coefficients across the steps, as these demonstrate the effects of the individual variables within the blocks, and also the extent to which the blocks mediate each other. In particular, mediation occurs when there is a reduction in the magnitudes of the coefficients when the next variable or block of variables are added to the regression equation. Hence the mediating effect of self-efficacy should result in the resource enrichment coefficients decreasing in size when self-efficacy is added to the equation in step three.

For example, an examination of step 3 in the fourth hierarchical regression (Table 7.11), indicates that the initial significant effects of resource enrichment from parenting as a significant variable in explaining the variance in job involvement (step 2) is mediated by the introduction of self-efficacy (step 3), as demonstrated by the change of the beta coefficients from 0.150 to 0.088 in step 3.

Table 7.8

Hierarchical Regression Testing the Mediating Effect of Self-Efficacy on Resource Enrichment & Organizational Commitment[a].

PREDICTORS	STEPS 1	2	3
Age	-0.133	-0.168	-0.172
Sex	0.026	0.100	0.097
Education	0.008	-0.016	-0.017
Tenure	0.173	0.203	0.207
Income	0.450	0.082	0.075
Hours Worked	0.031	0.024	0.026
Resource Enrichment			
Parent		-0.063	-0.059
Community		0.333^{+}	0.325^{+}
Recreation		-0.053	-0.053
Self-Efficacy			-0.024
Total R^2	0.042	0.126	0.127
▲ R^2	0.042	0.085	0.000

Note[a]: All entries are standardized regression coefficients, except the total R^2 that represents the amount of variance that is explained by the variables in each step, and the change in R^2 that represents the contribution of the variable or block of variables added on a given step, net of the variables included in the previous step.

$^{+}$ $p < .05$, * $p < .01$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed tests).

Organizational Commitment: In the second regression (Table 7.9), the main predictor of organizational commitment was resource enrichment gained from the community at step 2, $\beta = 0.333$, $p = .05$, and step 3, $\beta = 0.325$, $p = .05$. Again the addition of self-efficacy at step three did not dramatically alter the magnitude of the resource enrichment coefficients from steps two to step three. Therefore, the hypothesis that self-efficacy mediates the relationship between resource enrichment and organizational commitment was not supported by the data.

Occupational Commitment: Inspecting the coefficients reveals that the only significant predictor of occupational commitment is the resource enrichment from the community domain at step two $\beta = 0.439$, $p = .001$, and step three $\beta = 0.469$, $p = .005$. Because the enrichment obtained from the community domain was the largest contributor to the variance explained at steps two and three, this suggests that it operated independently of the resource enrichment from the other two domains. When self-efficacy was added to the equation in step three, the variance explained by the resource enrichment block increased, but not significantly so, nor were there any large reductions in the coefficients for the enrichment variables, which suggests that no mediation effect had occurred. Consequently the hypothesis that self-efficacy mediates the relationship between resource enrichment and occupational commitment was not supported by the data.

Table 7.9

Hierarchical Regression Testing the Mediating Effect of Self-Efficacy on Resource Enrichment & Occupational Commitment[a].

PREDICTORS	STEPS 1	2	3
Age	-0.033	-0.155	-0.075
Sex	-0.008	0.128	0.140
Education	-0.056	-0.052	-0.050
Tenure	0.029	0.072	0.055
Income	0.093	0.113	0.139
Hours Worked	-0.105	-0.066	-0.075
Resource Enrichment			
Parent		0.190	0.172
Community		0.439***	0.469***
Recreation		0.003	0.006
Self-Efficacy			0.089
Total R^2	0.0222	0.274^{+}	0.280^{+}
▲ R^2	0.0222	0.252***	0.006

Note[a]: All entries are standardized regression coefficients, except the total R^2 that represents the amount of variance that is explained by the variables in each step, and the change in R^2 that represents the contribution of the variable or block of variables added on a given step, net of the variables included in the previous step.

$^{+}$ $p < .05$, * $p < .01$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed tests).

Job Satisfaction: In the first step when the demographic variables were entered into the equation a significant predictor of job satisfaction was income, which remained significant in subsequent steps, a result consistent with the literature. At no stage did any of the following blocks of variables contribute to the variance explained. Moreover, the lack of change in the enrichment variables from step two to step three when self-efficacy was included in the equation, suggested that the mediation hypothesis did not apply to job satisfaction, and so the hypothesis was not supported.

Job Involvement: At each stage in the regression a significant amount of variance was explained, with the full model explaining 38% of the variance in job involvement. The dominant contributors being income $\beta = 0.302$, $p = .05$ (step three), and self-efficacy $\beta = 0.315$, $p = .01$ (step three), which resulted in a large reduction in R^2 and a reduction in the coefficients for resource enrichment from the parenting domain, (from $\beta = 0.150$ to $\beta = 0.088$). Therefore, there is weak evidence that self-efficacy may mediate the relationship between resource enrichment from parenting, and job involvement. But, the overall finding is that the mediation hypothesis does not hold for job involvement.

Table 7.10

Hierarchical Regression Testing the Mediating Effect of Self-Efficacy on Resource Enrichment & Job Satisfaction[a].

PREDICTORS	STEPS 1	2	3
Age	-0.034	-0.046	-0.033
Sex	0.040	0.071	0.084
Education	-0.204	-0.215	-0.213
Tenure	-0.012	0.007	-0.011
Income	0.427**	0.447**	0.474***
Hours Worked	0.072	0.064	0.054
Resource Enrichment			
Parent		-0.057	-0.076
Community		0.180	0.212
Recreation		0.005	0.007
Self-Efficacy			0.095
Total R^2	0.178+	0.203	0.210
▲ R^2	0.178+	0.025	0.007

Note[a]: All entries are standardized regression coefficients, except the total R^2 that represents the amount of variance that is explained by the variables in each step, and the change in R^2 that represents the contribution of the variable or block of variables added on a given step, net of the variables included in the previous step.

+ $p < .05$, * $p < .01$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed tests).

Table 7.11

Hierarchical Regression Testing the Mediating Effect of Self-Efficacy on Resource Enrichment & Job Involvement[a].

PREDICTORS	STEPS 1	2	3
Age	0.144	0.105	0.149
Sex	-0.072	-0.016	0.027
Education	0.070	0.077	-0.083
Tenure	0.042	0.048	-0.010
Income	0.212	0.211	0.302^{+}
Hours Worked	0.114	0.142	0.111
Resource Enrichment			
Parent		0.150	0.088
Community		0.105	0.213
Recreation		-0.036	-0.027
Self-Efficacy			0.315*
Total R^2	0.260**	0.299**	0.377**
▲ R^2	0.260**	0.039	0.078*

Note[a]: All entries are standardized regression coefficients, except the total R^2 that represents the amount of variance that is explained by the variables in each step, and the change in R^2 that represents the contribution of the variable or block of variables added on a given step, net of the variables included in the previous step.

$^{+}$ $p < .05$, * $p < .01$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed tests).

SUMMARY

The first three hypotheses were aimed to test whether Marks' (1977) 'expansion' model of multiple role participation provided an explanation for the work-family linkage. The first hypothesis (i.e., more time spent in the three non-work domains would be positively associated with stronger work attitudes), was not supported by the data. The second hypothesis (i.e., increased personal involvement in the three non-work domains is associated with stronger work attitudes), was partially supported by the data in two circumstances, namely greater personal involvement in the non-work domains seemed to be associated with greater occupational commitment and job involvement. Involvement in the non-work domains were not significantly associated with greater organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The third hypothesis, (i.e., increased resource enrichment from non-work participation is associated with increases in the four work attitudes), was well supported, greater resource enrichment gained from participation in the three non-work domains was associated with greater work attitudes. Overall then it seems that there is little support for Marks' (1977) 'expansion' model of multiple role participation as a possible explanation of the work-family linkage.

With respect to the four hierarchical regressions, the aim was to explore whether self-efficacy mediated the relationship between resource enrichment and the four work attitudes. The regressions in general were not consistent with the hypothesis, only with job involvement as the dependent variable did self-efficacy mediate the relationship, albeit moderately so. Therefore it seems that self-efficacy does not mediate the relationship between the resource enrichment experienced from the three non-work domains, and the four work attitudes.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION

The present study focused on whether Marks' (1977) 'expansion' model provided a rationale for the positive relationship between participation in three non-work domains (i.e., parenting, community, and recreation/hobby) and four work attitudes (i.e., job involvement occupational commitment, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction). It was hypothesized that non-work participation resulted in increased personal resources that could be useful for work. It was also speculated that self-efficacy would mediate the relationship between resource enrichment and the work attitudes.

However, in the first hypothesis (that greater time commitment in the three non-work domains would be associated with stronger work attitudes), only three correlations reached significance, with two of them being negative associations. It seems then, that the level of the work attitudes were either significantly reduced by increasing amounts of time spent outside work or not significantly relatedat all and therefore the first hypothesis was not supported by the data.

Hypothesis two tested the relationship between personal involvement in the non-work domains and the four work attitudes. The results were partially supported: only job involvement and occupational commitment significantly increased with the level of personal involvement in the non-work domains. That is, occupational commitment and job involvement grew stronger as personal involvement in the non-work domains increased, while organizational commitment and job satisfaction decreased with greater involvement in the non-work domains.

The third hypothesis by contrast was supported by the data. The four work attitudes were all significantly and positively associated with the resource enrichment gained from participation in the non-work domains. In other words, the resource enrichment gained from participation in the non-work domain was associated with stronger work attitudes.

It appears then, that participants were fairly active in the three non-work domains (i.e., parenting, community and recreation/hobby domains), and did not perceive the resources gained from the non-work participation as being scarce. That is, the participants perceived they obtained Sieber's (1974) four benefits of multiple role participation (i.e., increasing their privileges, providing security against the failures and strains of work, enhancing their status at work and developing new skills and perspectives). Moreover, with the significantly positive associations between the work attitudes and the resource enrichment variable, it also appears that four benefits were useful for work. The question remains though, whether the 'expansion' model was supported by the data.

It could be argued that there is weak support for the 'expansion' model. Recalling that Kirchmeyer (1992) drew attention to the small positive correlations in Randall's (1988) study, which Kirchmeyer believed to provide weak support for a positive relationship between work attitudes and participation in the non-work domains. Kirchmeyer further surmised that this was enough to confirm the 'expansion' model.

Similarly, this argument could also be applied to the present study. The small, positive correlations in the first two hypotheses could indicate support for the 'expansion' model. However, none of these "small positive correlations" are significant and in fact may simply be measurement error. Furthermore, because the first two hypotheses are decisive in directly testing the 'expansion' model as the rationale for the non-work participation-work attitude relationship, this emphasizes the importance of obtaining significant correlations before concluding that the 'expansion' model is supported. An examination of the correlations in hypothesis one and two reveal only two significantly positive correlations out of a possible twenty four correlations, therefore the only logical conclusion is that hypotheses one and two failed to support the 'expansion' model as the rationale for the work-family relationship.

The third hypothesis however, contradicts the first two by supporting the 'expansion' model as the process that explains the work-family relationship. That is, the resource enrichment gained from non-work participation was associated with greater work attitudes It was assumed that if hypotheses one and two were not supported, then hypothesis three would also failed to be supported. This was not the case which suggests that resource enrichment is gained simply by participating in the non-work domain, regardless of the amount of time and level of involvement in the non-work domains. In other words, the relationship between resource enrichment and work attitudes (i.e., hypothesis three), is independent of the association between work attitudes and the time spent in, and involvement in the three non-work domains. It follows therefore, that the 'expansion' model is supported, but it is inconclusive as to whether or not this requires a significant amount of time spent and involvement in the non-work domains, which suggests a future line of inquiry.

A plausible explanation for the results of this study is that other processes were at work. As Lambert (1990) pointed out, alternative processes of the work-family relationship are possible and may in fact overlap, rather than compete against one another. For example, the accommodation hypothesis of the work-family relationship predicts that an employee limits his or her involvement in one domain (e.g., work) so that she or he can accommodate the demands of the other domain (e.g., non-work). This may explain why organizational commitment increased as personal involvement in the non-work domains decreased, and so failing to support the second hypothesis. As the employee became more committed to the organization, this increase may have been accommodated by reducing his or her involvement in the non-work domain. This in turn also explains why the outcome of hypothesis two was not congruent with the outcome of hypothesis three. This however, is only one approach to the work-family relationship, there are alternatives, such as the compensation or instrumentality approaches that also may have been related to the results of the present study, which requires further investigation.

Another explanation for the findings of the present study was alluded to by Kirchmeyer (1992). She noted that the resource enrichment from non-work participation should occur regardless of whether the nature of the relationship between work and family is

compensatory, spillover, accommodation, etc. This suggests that participants were always going to perceive that their personal resources would be enriched (i.e., the 'expansion' model was always going to be supported). The only difference being, the process under which the enrichment is gained, e.g., compensatory, etc.

What may be affected then, is the relative importance of the different dimensions of resource enrichment (i.e., status security, status enhancement, personality enrichment, enhanced right and privileges). For example, when the nature of the relationship between work and non-work is compensatory, greater organizational commitment may be more related to a combination of high status enhancement, high status security, low personality enrichment and more privileges gained than when the nature of the work-family relationship is explained by the accommodation approach. However, these hypotheses require further investigation and should be adopted as a future line of inquiry.

Another plausible explanation for the outcome of the first three hypotheses is that "other factors" were significantly associated with the relationships tested in the present study. The question is then, "what factors *were* associated with the reported findings?"

One possibility could be individual differences, such as a person with a specific personality, like Type A. This individual may simply display only favourable attitudes to work activities and not to non-work activities. In conjunction with the findings that resource enrichment occurs regardless of the nature of the work-family relationship, this would explain the negative relationships between time commitment and personal involvement in the non-work domains and work attitudes (i.e., hypothesis one and two), and still allow the positive relationship between resource enrichment and work attitudes.

The fourth hypothesis by contrast was not supported, it seems that self-efficacy does not mediate the relationship between resource enrichment and the four work attitudes. Only in the relationship between resource enrichment from the three non-work domains and job involvement was there a weak mediating effect. This finding is surprising given that the hypothesis testing the mediation relationship made an implicit assumption that the

participants believed their personal resources to be abundant and expandable, and that the benefits gained from the participation in the non-work domains contributed to their behaviour and attitudes at work. In other words, the 'expansion' model is the rationale behind the non-work participation-work attitude link, this was clearly the case, and yet the mediation hypothesis was not supported. What then did happen? There seems to be two alternative explanations.

If different approaches were operating as well as, or instead of the 'expansion' model, then it seems likely that these other approaches would have confounded the mediation effect of self-efficacy on the resource enrichment-work attitude relationship. An example could be the compensation approach, which claims that workers compensate for what they lack in one domain (e.g., community activities), by over-compensation in another domain, (e.g., work). If the involvement in the non-work domain was significantly lower or higher than the level of job involvement, then this would have indicated that the compensation hypothesis was at work. If the compensation approach was operating simultaneously with the 'expansion' model, then it is likely that the mediation effect of self-efficacy would have been confounded. Even so, other approaches could also have been underlying the work-family relationship, such as the instrumentality and the segmentation hypotheses and it cannot be established however, from the data whether this post hoc hypothesis is correct, which offers a further line of inquiry.

The second alternative concerns the self-efficacy measure itself. In a recent article by Woodruff and Cashman (1993), doubt was cast over whether Sherer *et. al.'s* (1981) general self-efficacy scale actually measured the concept of self-efficacy. Although Woodruff and Cashman pointed out that the self-efficacy instrument was related to self-esteem and sense of mastery, they also mentioned that this did not necessarily mean that the instrument measured self-efficacy. Instead, they suggested that the scale in fact measures social self-efficacy, because of a statement made by Sherer *et. al.* (1981) that explained the general self-efficacy measure to be based on "areas such as social skills or vocational competence" (p. 665). Certainly Bandura (1977a) referred to self-efficacy at the general level, but he also referred to self-efficacy as being domain linked (e.g., feelings of efficacy in terms of a specific occupation or activity).

It may be that the self-efficacy measure employed may have been either too broad or in did fact measured social self-efficacy (Woodruff & Cashman, 1993), and hence was not directly relevant to the context of the present study. A more domain specific measure of self-efficacy, may have been necessary to adequately test the fourth hypothesis (such as the work performance domain, or alternatively, a measure of self-efficacy specific to an occupation such as law or architecture). Sherer *et. al.* (1981), however, did attempt to measure self-efficacy also in terms of "vocational competence", which in the context of the present study is extremely relevant. The conclusion therefore, is equivocal, there is not enough evidence to confidently state whether the measure of self-efficacy measures general self-efficacy as intended or is more domain specific. What is certain, is that there are some measurement issues that require clarification through further testing and empirical study. Nevertheless, the outcome with respect to the present study remains the same: self-efficacy did not act as a mediator between the resource enrichment gained from the non-work domain and work attitudes.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings of the present study has several implications for future lines of inquiry which should be investigated. First, it was mentioned earlier that the resource enrichment from non-work participation occurs regardless of the nature of the inter-domain relationship. What variables then, are necessary or associated with resource enrichment for it to be positively associated with stronger work attitudes, i.e., the identification of antecedent variables.

A second line of inquiry, revolves around the notion that resource enrichment occurs regardless of the nature of the work-family relationship. It seems that the level of the participants work attitudes may be associated with the extent to which they experienced these forms of resource enrichment from all three non-work domains. That is, do the different approaches to the work-family link impact on the levels of the four dimensions of resource enrichment (i.e., status enhancement, status security, greater privileges, and personality development). Would a compensation approach produce higher or lower

status security in a person as opposed to an accommodation approach. Equally important is the impact that this has on work attitudes. These hypotheses require further investigation and may be adopted as a future line of inquiry.

The third area for future research concerns the possibility of alternative processes that describe the nature of the work-family relationship (Lambert, 1990). Lambert recognised the need to accurately define the circumstances in which the various work-family processes operate. These circumstances may include such factors as income level, occupation, the effects of children, and marital satisfaction. The importance of identifying these factors is because of the possibility that the different approaches to the work-family relationship may overlap (e.g., compensation, accommodation, instrumentality, etc), making it difficult to identify which process is predominant.

It is reasonable therefore, to assume that certain combinations of job and non-work factors will be associated with one approach to the work-family link over another approach. That is, certain circumstances in a person's life may be associated with a specific approach that explains the work-family link in that individual's life. For example, the work-family link for a certain person from a particular occupational group, of a certain age and income, who has children over the age of 23, may be explained by the 'expansion' approach. On the other hand, the work-family link for a younger person, who has a lower income, younger children and is unemployed, may be explained by the conflict approach. There is a real need therefore, to take up Lambert's (1990) call and conduct research that does not just focus on one or two variables, but instead takes a broad approach and measures a wide variety of variables (such as, socioeconomic status, race, age, gender, personality variables, etc), and so obtain a more accurate picture of the work-family relationship.

Fourthly, Although the results essentially replicate Kirchmeyer's (1992) findings, they may well be attributable to different factors that define the sample, such as age and income. Only six percent of New Zealand's salary earning population earned over $50,000 per year (1991 Census), but the mean income of the sample in the present study

was $56,000 per year. Furthermore with respect to age, 90% of Kirchmeyer's (1992) sample was under the age of 40 years old, whereas in the present study the majority (i.e., 68%) were over the age of 40 years old, and therefore an age effect may have occurred when it came to the resource enrichment that each participant experienced. Moreover, with Lambert's (1990) recommendation that different circumstances may determine which approach underlies the work-family link, this emphasizes the need for using a more representative and larger sample as a potential line of inquiry.

LIMITATIONS

The fact that the design of the present study was cross-sectional must be addressed. This study is only a "snap-shot" of what happened at a particular point in time. The only way to truly understand a process is to carefully examine the process over time. Only then can it be clearly defined and the effects on the work-family relationship identified. Lambert (1990) identified only a few studies that did adopt a longitudinal approach to the work-family association, unfortunately none of them actually depicted the process *explaining* the relationship (e.g., Piotrkowski, 1979). A longitudinal approach to the study of the processes underlying the work-family link would enable more confident conclusions regarding the causal relationship proposed in this study and therefore more beneficial suggestions can be developed by researchers for managers.

Another design limitation is that the present study focused only on one aspect of the work-family link, i.e., the resource enrichment-work attitude link. Only by studying the relationship in its entirety, will researchers be able to reveal the intricacies of the work-family link. The present study has made a contribution to this, but, because of the likelihood of extraneous variables confounding the results of the study, this limits the application of the present study.

Another set of limitations is with respect to the selection of the sample which was not random, further restricting it in terms of age, income and sample size. These factors combined, impact upon the generalizability of the results. Taking these factors into

consideration, it seems therefore, that the present study only applies to employed individuals, earning almost double the average salary, and are over the age of forty. What about those unemployed? Is the resource enrichment experience common to other sub-groups with in the overall population? Questions that this study cannot answer, but questions important to the enhanced understanding of the work-family relationship.

An additional limitation on the results of the present study concerns measurement error. In particular there is a lack of variation in methodology used to investigate and test the 'expansion' model which is likely to result in method variance (Spector, 1984), a form of measurement error. Another source of error is likely to come from response sets, such as social desirability and acquiescence which may also have some confounding impact on the results of the present study. Although it remains hotly debated in the literature as to whether this form of variance is actually a form of bias (e.g., Spector, 1984) or a valid reaction to a questionnaire (e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1983). What is certain, is that error occurs in any form of measurement, and it must be considered by every researcher when findings and conclusion are drawn.

More fundamental, are the limitations presented by a restricted definition of the concept of work. In the present study, it was assumed that work was essentially full-time paid employment. Such a narrow definition of work obviously omits a substantial group of other people who all work under a broader definition of the concept. For example, a homemaker or housewife is viewed by some as a full-time job, albeit unpaid, but under the dentition of the concept of "work" in the present study, housework would not be considered as work. Another example is the volunteer worker who gives up his or her time, without monetary gain, and yet still considers what she or he does as work. Yet again, under the limited conceptualization of "work" in the present study, volunteer activities were not considered as work. Therefore, what is considered in the present study to be "non-work", may in fact be work for many people in the sample. This suggests that if the activity an individual performs is considered to be "work", it implies that work attitudes would be appropriate indicators of the affective response to that work the individual does. Moreover, this raises several questions for future lines of inquiry:

Is the concept of resource enrichment only limited to activities considered solely as "non-work". Could it be that resource enrichment is also gained from work?

Furthermore researchers investigating the area of work must take into consideration the individual's definition of "work", as this will define the generalizability of the findings of any research. An individual's conceptualization of work may also place limits on the applicability of the various models of the work-family relationship and in the case of the present study, it may mean for example, that resource enrichment may only be of use in explaining the work-family link when the conceptualisation of "work" is very narrow. Either way it does appear that further investigation into this area is required, as it may assist researchers in identifying the appropriate rationale for the work-family relationship.

SUMMARY & CONCLUSION

Researchers have constantly investigated how non-work life negatively effects our work attitudes and behaviours. Consequently, much of the literature documents that non-work participation is negatively associated with various factors, including work attitudes (e.g., organizational commitment and job satisfaction). Dramatically under-represented is research on the recent discovery of the positive aspects of non-work participation on work attitudes. Furthermore, there has also been calls for more theory development to provide rationales for the work-family domain relationship. One theory that was the focus for the present study was Marks' (1977) 'expansion' theory of personal resources which predicts a positive association between the work and non-work domains.

Previously Randall (1988) had found no support for the 'expansion' model, and instead concluded that the 'scarcity' model was supported by the data. More recently though, Kirchmeyer (1992) did find support for the 'expansion' model. Furthermore she tested a possible explanation for why the model may occur, by adopting Sieber's (1974) four benefits of multiple role participation as the reasons for individuals perceiving their personal resources as abundant and expandable. Likewise, the present study attempted

to test the 'expansion' model, but it was further hypothesized that self-efficacy mediated the relationship between the four benefits and the work attitudes. As predicted, the 'expansion' model was supported by the data, only because resource enrichment was significantly associated with stronger work attitude. Contrary to the predictions were that time commitment nor personal involvement in either of the three non-work domains (i.e., parenting, community and recreation), were positively and significantly associated with any of the four work attitudes.

It was speculated this maybe due to other alternative approaches to the work-family relationship, overlapping with the 'expansion' model, such as the compensation and accommodation approaches. It was also postulated that other 'factors', such as personality or contextual factors were possible contributors to the results of the present study. Although, the need for further research to test these ideas was recognized.

A similar outcome with respect to the mediation hypothesis was also reported. Self-efficacy was not found to mediate the relationship between resource enrichment and work attitudes. Again a discussion of the possible explanations led to two alternative explanations. The first focused on the influence of other approaches to the work attitude, non-work involvement link, while the second alternative raised doubt over the psychometric strength of the self-efficacy measure used in the present study.

A number of limitations were identified which provided additional possibilities the may have contributed to the results reported. For example, the reliance on the use of self-report measures, which have been argued to be susceptible to biases (e.g., Spector, 1984). Similarly, response biases (e.g., social desirability) were also identified as a possible factor in contributing to the results. Limitations with respect to the design of the study, such as the cross-sectional design, and the narrow focus of the present study with respect to the diverse nature of the work-family relationship were also outlined. And on a more conceptual level, the definition of the construct of "work" was raised as holding the potential to distort the results of the present study.

Finally, there are some implications for human resource managers that can be drawn from the findings of the present study. Given that the 'expansion' model was supported, it would appear that managers who view the work-family relationship as negative and conflictual, may find themselves under utilizing their human resources, and failing to take advantage of their full potential. Certainly the proliferation of various fringe benefits and programmes to assist employees deal with the demands of home and work indicate that organizations are aware of the intimate interaction between work and family. This line of thinking however, still emphasizes the negative impact of family on work attitudes and work performance. Rather, organizations should refocus themselves on the rich spring of personal resources that flow forth from participation in non-work activities that may assist the individual in performing his or her job. The implication for organizations is that they should encourage their employees to be active outside of the workplace. In other words a balance needs to be obtained between work and non-work, too much of either appears to be detrimental, in a light hearted sense:

"All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy [sic]"

James Howell, *Proverbs 1659*

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APPENDIX 1: INSTRUCTIONS & DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

WORK & NON-WORK ATTITUDES

RESEARCH PROJECT

Please read the following instructions carefully.

Please do not write your name on this questionnaire. We have put a code number on the first page to provide identification. Please remember that all the information that you provide is confidential, and will be used only for the purposes of this study.

This questionnaire will take approximately 45 minutes to complete. We would like you to find some time, where you will not be disturbed, and to answer all the questions in one session. Please complete this questionnaire at the earliest possible time after you have received this questionnaire.

Remember, please try to answer all the questions and be careful not to skip any pages. It is important that you only give your answers to the questions. Therefore, we would ask that you do not discuss the questions with others.

When you have finished, please return the questionnaire as soon as possible, in the envelope provided. You do not need to put a stamp on it.

First we would like some general background information. Remember that the information you supply is <u>confidential</u>.

What is your age? _____ yrs.

Sex? (Please tick one) _____ male.

_____ female.

Marital status? (Please tick one) ____ single/never married.

____ married/currently partnered

____ divorced/separated

____ widowed.

Do you have any children? _____ Yes/No (Please specify).

If 'yes' - How many children do you have? _____

- What ages are they? _____

- How many currently live at home? _____

What ethnic group do you belong to? (Please circle one)

New Zealander of Maori descent 1

New Zealander of European descent 2

New Zealander of Pacific Island descent 3

Other, please specify _____ 4

What is your highest educational qualification? (Please circle one)

No school qualification 1

School certificate passes 2

School qualifications, University Entrance and above 3

Trade certificate or professional certificate or diploma 4

University degree, diploma, or certificate 5

What is *your* personal gross annual income? $ _____

What is your current occupation? _____

How long have you been employed in your current job? _____ yrs.

How many hours do you work each week (on average)? _____ hrs.

What type of organization/firm do you work for? (Please tick one).

[ ] Large international organization (e.g. IBM, Fletchers, ANZ).

[ ] Large national organization (e.g., Government Department or national chain store).

[ ] Large local organization (e.g., Hospital, University, City Council).

[ ] Medium local organization (e.g., School, Hotel, Retail store).

[ ] Small local business or self-employed (e.g., Coffee bar, G. P.)

How many people in your organization do you come into contact with directly, or work with on a daily/regular basis?

approx _____

APPENDIX 2: ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

We are interested in how you feel about the organization that you work for. The following are a series of statements concerning your feelings about your employing organization, please indicate to us how much you agree with each statement. To do this, chose a number from 1 to 7 and write your response in the space provided. The response choices are:

1 = " Strongly disagree. "
2 = " Moderately disagree. "
3 = " Slightly disagree. "
4 = " Neutral. "
5 = " Slightly agree. "
6 = " Moderately agree. "
7 = " Strongly agree. "

Note, If you are unemployed or self employed, then turn to page #.

	YOUR CHOICE [1 - 7]
1) I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful	[ ]
2) I talk about this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for	[ ]
3) I feel very little loyalty to this organization	[ ]
4) I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization	[ ]
5) I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar	[ ]
6) I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization	[ ]
7) I could just as well be working for a different organization so long as the type of work is similar	[ ]
8) This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance	[ ]

9) It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization . . . . . [ ]

10) I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for, over others I was considering at the time I joined . . . . . [ ]

11) There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely . . . . . [ ]

12) Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees . . . . . [ ]

13) I really care about the fate of this organization . . . . . [ ]

14) For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work . . . . . [ ]

15) Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part . . . . . [ ]

APPENDIX 3: OCCUPATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements about your career or occupation, by circling the appropriate number.

---

1) If I could go into a different occupation other than the one I am in now, which paid the same, I would probably do so.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

2) I definitely want a career for myself in the field I am currently working in.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

3) If I could do it all again, I would not choose to work in the field I am in now.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

4) If I had all the money I needed without working, I would probably still continue to work in the field I am in now.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

5) I like the vocation I am in now, too well to give it up.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

6) The vocation I am in now, is the ideal vocation for a life work.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

7) I am disappointed that I ever entered the field I am currently working in.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

APPENDIX 4: JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Please tell us how you feel about each area of your job, by choosing a number from 1 to 7 where each number has the following meaning:

1 = " I am extremely dissatisfied. "
2 = " I am very dissatisfied. "
3 = " I am moderately dissatisfied. "
4 = " I am not sure. "
5 = " I am moderately satisfied. "
6 = " I am very satisfied. "
7 = " I am extremely satisfied. "

	YOUR CHOICE [1 - 7]
1) The physical work conditions	[ ]
2) The freedom to choose your own method of working	[ ]
3) Your fellow workers	[ ]
4) The recognition you get for good work	[ ]
5) Your immediate boss	[ ]
6) The amount of responsibility you are given	[ ]
7) Your rate of pay	[ ]
8) Your opportunity to use your abilities	[ ]
9) Industrial relations between management and workers in your firm	[ ]
10) The way your firm is managed	[ ]
11) The attention paid to suggestions you make	[ ]
12) Your hours of work	[ ]
13) The amount of variety in your job	[ ]
14) Your job security	[ ]

APPENDIX 5: JOB INVOLVEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

The next set of questions are a series of statements about how central your job is in your life. Please indicate how strongly you agree/disagree with each statement, by writing a number from 1 to 7 in the space provided. The response choices are:

1	2	3	4	5	6
strongly disagree	moderately disagree	disagree	agree	moderately agree	strongly agree

---

	YOUR CHOICE [1 - 6]
1) The most important things that happen to me involve my present job ...	[ ]
2) To me, my job is only a small part of who I am	[ ]
3) I am very much involved personally in my job	[ ]
4) I live, eat, and breathe my job	[ ]
5) Most of my interests are centred around my job	[ ]
6) I have very strong ties with my present job which would be very difficult to break	[ ]
7) Usually I feel detached from my job	[ ]
8) Most of my personal life goals are job-orientated	[ ]
9) I consider my job to be very central to my existence	[ ]
10) I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time	[ ]

APPENDIX 6: NON-WORK INVOLVEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Please circle the answer that best describes how strongly you agree/disagree with how involved you feel in the various non-work activities. The response choices are:

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

NOTE: If any set of activities do not apply to you, then move onto the next set.

1) The major satisfaction in my life is from recreation groups	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2) The most important things that happen to me involve recreation groups	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3) I am very much involved in recreation groups	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4) Most things in life are more important than being in recreation groups	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
5) Recreation groups are an important part of who I am	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
6) The major satisfaction in my life is from being involved in the community	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
7) The most important things that happen to me involve being in the community	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
8) I am very much involved in the community	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
9) Most things in life are more important than being involved in the community	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
10) The community is an important part of who I am	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
11) The major satisfaction in my life is from being a parent	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
12) The most important things that happen to me, involve being a parent	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
13) I am very much involved being a parent	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
14) Most things in life are more important than being a parent	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
15) Being a parent is an important part of who I am	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

APPENDIX 7: RESOURCE ENRICHMENT QUESTIONNAIRE*

* For every domain in which participants were involved in, each item either began with the phrase "Being a parent," Being involved in the community," or "Being involved in recreation/hobby groups", depending on the domain in focus.

We are interested in your feelings about the benefits you gain from being ... Please indicate how strongly you agree/disagree with each statement, by circling the appropriate number. The response choices are:

1	2	3	4	5	6
strongly disagree	moderately disagree	disagree	agree	moderately agree	strongly agree

Please note, if this section does not apply to you, then turn to page #.

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1) Please indicate how many hours you would typically spend per week involved in ... activities:_____ hrs/week.

PRIVILEGES GAINED

2) Being ... earns me certain rights and privileges that otherwise I could not enjoy **1 2 3 4 5 6**

3) Being ... results in rewards that would be difficult to achieve elsewhere **1 2 3 4 5 6**

4) Being ... offers many unique benefits that make any drawbacks seem insignificant **1 2 3 4 5 6**

STATUS SECURITY

5) Being ... gives me support so I can face the difficulties of work **1 2 3 4 5 6**

6) Being ... makes disappointments on the job seem easier to take **1 2 3 4 5 6**

7) Being ... helps me forget the problems at work **1 2 3 4 5 6**

8) Being ... energizes me so I can tackle the challenges of my job **1 2 3 4 5 6**

STATUS ENHANCEMENT

9) Being ... gives me access to certain facts and information which can be used at work **1 2 3 4 5 6**

10) Being ... improves my image at work **1 2 3 4 5 6**

11) Being ... provides me with contacts who are helpful for my work **1 2 3 4 5 6**

12) Being ... helps me be seen as a valuable employee by my company **1 2 3 4 5 6**

PERSONALITY ENRICHMENT

13) Being ... develops skills in me that are useful at work **1 2 3 4 5 6**

14) Being ... helps me understand the people at work better **1 2 3 4 5 6**

15) Being ... shows me ways of seeing things that are helpful at work **1 2 3 4 5 6**

16) Being ... gives me ideas that can be applied on the job **1 2 3 4 5 6**

APPENDIX 8: SELF-EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE

Please circle the number that best describes how strongly you agree/disagree with each of the following statements. The response choices are:

1 strongly disagree	2 disagree	3 neutral	4 agree	5 strongly agree

1) When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work **1 2 3 4 5**

2) One of my problems is that I cannot get down to work when I should **1 2 3 4 5**

3) If I can't do a job first time, I keep trying until I can **1 2 3 4 5**

4) When I set important goals for myself, I rarely achieve them **1 2 3 4 5**

5) I give up on things before completing them **1 2 3 4 5**

6) I avoid facing difficulties **1 2 3 4 5**

7) If something looks too complicated, I will not even bother to try it **1 2 3 4 5**

8) When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick to it until I finish it **1 2 3 4 5**

9) When I decide to do something, I go right to work on it **1 2 3 4 5**

10) When trying to learn something new, I soon give up if I am not initially successful **1 2 3 4 5**

11) When unexpected problems occur, I don't handle them very well . . **1 2 3 4 5**

12) I avoid trying to learn new things when they look too difficult for me **1 2 3 4 5**

13) Failure just makes me try harder **1 2 3 4 5**

14) I feel insecure about my ability to do things **1 2 3 4 5**

15) I am a self-reliant person **1 2 3 4 5**

16) I give up easily **1 2 3 4 5**

17) I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in my life **1 2 3 4 5**

APPENDIX 9: INFORMATION SHEET

PROJECT ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NON-WORK LIFE & WORK ATTITUDES

Who are the researchers?

The study is being conducted by Maurice Jennings, a Masters student in psychology, under the supervision of Dr. Ross Flett, Lecturer in the Psychology Department, Massey University.

Where can they be contacted?

Maurice Jennings: 28 Carroll St. Palmerston North Phone: (06) 359-4393

Dr. Ross Flett: Psychology Department Massey University Phone: (06) 350-4127

What is the study about?

The aim of this study is to investigate the impact of non-work life on work attitudes.

What would I have to do?

As a participant, you will be required to complete a questionnaire which should take only forty minutes of your time. The questionnaire will include questions about your commitment to your career, employing organization, job satisfaction, involvement in your job and personal life, how much time you devote to work and non-work activities and self-esteem.

What can I expect from the researcher?

All participants have the right to:

- Contact the researcher at any time during the research to discuss any aspects of the study

- Refuse to answer any questions, or withdraw from the study at any time.

- Provide information upon the understanding that it is in confidence to the researcher, to be used only for the purposes of the research, and will not be identified in any reports of the results.

- Receive information about the results of the study on its completion.

APPENDIX 10: CONSENT FORM

PROJECT ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NON-WORK LIFE & WORK ATTITUDES

I have read the information sheet about this study and understand the details of the study. I understand that I may ask questions at any time and may decline to answer any questions in the questionnaire. I also understand that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time. I agree to provide information to the researcher on the understanding that it will be treated with the strictest confidence and I will not be identified in any reports from the study.

SIGNED: .....

NAME: .....

DATE: .....

If you would like to receive written feedback about the results of this survey, then please write your name and address in the space below:

NAME: .....

ADDRESS: .....

.....

NOTE: ***Please return the consent form in the smaller envelope provided.***