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The Effect of Changes in Staffing Strategies on Employee Job Involvement

Carol M. Cron

THE EFFECT OF CHANGES IN

STAFFING STRATEGIES

ON

EMPLOYEE JOB INVOLVEMEMT

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for

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Area of Specialization: Human Resource Development

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ABSTRACT

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Purpose. Employee job involvement leads to individual satisfaction within the workplace, and has a positive impact on individual performance. With the implementation of innovative staffing arrangements, many employees are left with undesirable staffing options. The relationship between work status congruence and job involvement is still unclear. Studies on work status and job involvement have been conducted on professional groups, students and educators. This study examined the relationship of work status congruence and employee job involvement for a previously unstudied population of low-income workers.

Method. This correlational study used *t* tests for two independent groups (congruent and incongruent) to examine the difference between the means for individual work status congruence and job involvement. Each respondent completed a self-administered anonymous survey instrument (Kanungo, 1982b) that was used to determine a nominal (categorical) score for work status, and an interval score on a job involvement

questionnaire. Respondents' nominal scores were used to place the respondents into two independent groups and their interval score averages were used to determine their level of job involvement. The *t* test examined the difference by using the mean scores of each group.

Major Findings. This study found that low-income individuals with work status congruence had higher levels of job involvement than low-income individuals whose work status is incongruent.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to some very important people in my life whose encouragement and sacrifices have made this achievement possible. First, I thank my best friend and partner, Kurt Alan Prey, for his never-ending words of encouragement, love, support, and faith that I could achieve this goal. I also thank my sister, Bonnie Sue Keener, for always inspiring me to pursue my dreams, and reminding me what is important in life. My thanks would not be complete without thanking my daughter, Amber Ruiz, for tolerating my absence and fast food so I could complete my education, and for becoming a wife to Jorge, and mother to my two wonderful grandchildren, Xavier and Auria. I want to also mention my research assistants, Muffy, Buffy, Alowishus, Amalgamous, Wolfgang, Amadeus and Alexander, whose never ending hours of attention, dedication, purring and “assistance” made the long hours durable. Thank you to my feline family.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Globalization, competition, and changing market conditions have forced organizations to change their employment practices in an effort to gain a larger share of the marketplace. The transformed workplace has placed the staffing process in a critical role in ensuring both customer satisfaction and corporate profitability (Kogan, Wolff, & Russell, 1995). Handy (1989) is concerned that the increased use of temporary, contractual, or leased workers is ending stable employment relationships and job security for many workers, while Bridges (1994) views the current workplace trends as a necessity if American businesses are to remain competitive in the global markets.

One method used to reduce labor cost has been the reduction of the *permanent* workforce and an increase in the *contingent* workforce, for example, temporary workers, independent contractors, and contracted workers (Befort, 2003; Kogan et al., 1995). As a result of these changes, some employees are unable to find preferred hours of employment.

The ability of an employer to "match employee's preferences for full-time or part-time status, schedule, shift and number of hours" is known as *work status congruence* (Holtom, Lee, & Tidd, 2002, p. 903). Studies on the relationships between work status congruence and work related attitudes and behaviors indicate that work status congruence is positively associated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and employee retention (Holtom et al., 2002). It is

hypothesized that a match between worker preferences and organizational staffing practices will enhance positive employee job involvement (JI) behaviors.

JI is a cognitive identification with one's job (Kanungo, 1982a, 1982b) and has been recognized as a critical determinant of organizational effectiveness (Pfeffer, 1994), specifically, (a) organizational commitment (Randall & Cote, 1991), (b) individual performance (Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin, & Lord, 2002), and (c) individual motivation (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). "These links stem from the theoretical notion that being immersed in your work increases motivational processes which in turn influence job performance and other relevant outcomes (e.g. turnover, absenteeism)" (Diefendorff et al., 2002, pp. 93-94). Recent studies have addressed the need for an improved understanding of the relationship of job involvement and work status congruence in studies that can be generaliazable to other occupations (Holtom et al., 2002).

The Problem

Although organizations have incorporated non-standard staffing strategies, little is known about the impact of work status on the attitudes and behaviors of the employees (Beard & Edwards, 1995). Research (e.g., Deery & Mahoney, 1994; Heyes, 1997) posits that work schedules inconsistent with employee preferences can lead to reduced levels of employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, and have a negative impact on individual performance while work schedules consistent with employee preferences can lead to significantly more favorable attitudes (Morrow, McElroy, & Elliott, 1994). Research showing the relationship between work status and work-related attitudes and behaviors has been the focus of studies for a long time,

but the empirical results have been mixed and conflicting (Holtom et al., 2002). Holtom et al. believe that one explanation for the inconsistencies has been conflicting definitions and operationalizations used in the studies.

Job involvement from an organizational perspective is considered a fundamental basis for establishing a competitive advantage in the business market (Lawler, 1992; Pfeffer, 1994). Job involvement from an individual perspective is considered a link to personal growth and satisfaction within the workplace, as well as a key to motivation and goal-directed behaviors (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Kahn, 1990). Brown's (1996) meta-analyses of job involvement revealed, "organizational level variables have an important effect on job involvement, but few researchers have investigated them" (p. 251). Brown (1996, p. 235) noted, "Increasing job involvement can enhance organizational effectiveness and productivity by engaging employees more completely in their work and making work a more meaningful and fulfilling experience."

The studies examining work status and job involvement have focused on professional workers (Shore, Newton & Thornton III, 1990) and employed undergraduate students (Diefendorff et al., 2002). Limited research exists that explicitly tests work status congruency theory (Holtom et al., 2002) and no research exists that explicitly test work status congruence and job involvement of low-income workers. Research is needed to better understand the relationship between work status congruence and job involvement to aid in the future development of staffing practices.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this correlational study is to fill a void in the work status and job involvement research by focusing on low-income workers. This population has been omitted in prior studies.

The following research questions will guide this study:

1) Do low-income workers who work their preferred number of hours have higher job involvement than workers who do not work their preferred hours?

2) Do low-income workers who do not work their preferred hours have lower job involvement than workers who do work their preferred number of hours?

Studies that explore work status congruence have focused on professional populations. For example, Levanoni and Sales (1990) questionnaireed 129 women employed at a retail organization. McGinnis and Morrow (1990) compared job involvement among full-time and part-time hospital employees. Armstrong-Stassen, Al-Ma'aitah, Cameron and Horsburgh (1998) questionnaireed Canadian and Jordanian nurses. Holtom et al.,'s (2002) study included nurses, hospital administration, maintenance, admitting, cafeteria, medical services and employees of a high-end national retailer.

This study will use Kanungo's (1982a, 1982b) job involvement instrument to examine the relationship between employee work status preferences and job involvement for low-income workers. Kanungo defines job involvement as the psychological involvement with one's job. The job involvement questionnaire (JIQ) consists of 10 items utilizing a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) strongly

disagrees to (7) strongly agrees. This correlational study will examine the relationship between two independent groups, those whose work status is congruence and those whose work status is incongruence, and the group's mean scores on the job involvement questionnaire.

The Job Involvement Questionnaire has been adopted in many research studies and its reliability and validity have been examined extensively (Ayree & Chay, 1994; Elloy, Everett & Flynn, 1995; McElroy, Morrow, Power & Iqbal, 1993; Riipinen, 1997). Kanungo's (1982a, 1982b) scale is given credit for having the clearest and most precise conceptualization of the construct being measured (Cohen, 2003; Elloy, Everett & Flynn, 1995). It "clearly identifies the core meaning of the construct as a cognitive state of the individual… and separates job involvement from antecedents and consequent constructs" (Cohen, 2003, p. 32).

This study is designed to investigate changes in work status and the effect of those changes on job involvement. The research hypotheses are:

H1: Workers employed full-time by choice will show high levels of job involvement.

H2: Workers employed part-time by choice will show high levels of job involvement.

H3: Workers employed full-time preferring part-time will show low levels of job involvement.

H4: Workers employed part-time preferring full-time will show low levels of job involvement.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical frameworks that will inform this study are: (a) work commitment, and (b) congruency. The specific work commitment construct to be studied is job involvement.

Work Commitment

Work commitment is defined as the relative importance of work to one's sense of self (Loscocco, 1989). The concept of work commitment has received growing attention from researchers identifying various facets of commitment including organization, work group, occupation and one's job (Cohen, 1999, 2000; Morrow, 1993; Randall & Cote, 1991). Four common themes have emerged from the studies of work commitment: (1) occupational commitment (e.g., Blau, 1985), (2) work values (e.g. Sagie, Elizur & Koslowsky, 1996), (3) organizational commitment (e.g., Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979), and (4) job involvement (e.g., Kanungo, 1982a, 1982b).

This study will focus on one form of work commitment; namely, job involvement. Research has shown job involvement to be a key moderating variable influenced by work group attachment and Protestant work ethics (work values), while influencing organizational commitment and career salience (career commitment) (Randall & Cote, 1991). Job involvement has been used frequently in both experimental and field studies (Saleh & Hosek, 1976). Job involvement is found to have an impact on job performance (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977; Weiner & Vardi, 1980), organizational effectiveness (Pfeffer, 1994), individual motivation (Hackman & Lawler, 1971), and mental well-being (Riipinen, 1997).

Job involvement is defined as the cognitive state of psychological identification with a job (Kanungo, 1982a, 1982b; Lawler & Hall, 1970). It is a belief illustrative of the current job and tends to be a function of how much the job can satisfy one's present needs (Kanungo, 1982a, 1982b). Kanungo's definition of job involvement, as a psychological identification with one's present job, will be used in this study.

Congruency

The congruency model will also inform this study. Congruence is "the degree to which the needs, demands, goals, objectives, and/or structures of one component are consistent with those of the other" (Nadler & Tushman, 1997, p. 34). The greater the congruence, the higher the performance is within the organization (Russo & Harrison, 2004). Nadler and Tushman (1997) developed a model of congruence that focuses on the relationships and interactions of each part or component of the organization and how those interactions and relationships affect performance and outcomes. They argue that the more organizational strategies, work, people, structures and cultures are aligned, the more the organization will be able to compete and succeed. The Nadler-Tushman model suggests a cause-effect linkage.

The Nadler-Tushman (1997) congruency model is based on earlier work of theorists such as Katz and Kahn, and of Seiler and Lorsch, among others. Three main components are included in Nadler and Tushman's congruency model: 1) input, 2) strategy, and 3) output.

Input includes all of the assets and employees of the company. The environment is also included in this part of the model.

Strategy is defined as the choices a company makes that will distinguish the company from others and will provide a sustainable competitive advantage. Strategy determines the organization's goals and objectives and sets a target of achievement (i.e. some level of productivity). The strategy provides information regarding the skills and knowledge needed for the organization to be successful. The human resource system uses the information gained to determine if the skills and knowledge are being applied to the work. The effectiveness of an organization depends on the alignment among the different elements of the organization's current strategic orientation.

Output is a broad term that "describes what the organization produces, how it performs, and how effective it is" (Nadler & Tushman, 1997, p. 31). The effectiveness is determined by the organization's ability to produce products and services at a certain level of economic return, and by the performance of the individuals and groups working within the organization. The performance of the individuals and groups contribute to the overall performance of the organization. Changes in individual and collective attitudes and capabilities (e.g., satisfaction, morale or acquisition of important experiences) can be seen as output.

The focus of the Nadler-Tushman congruency model is the transformation process. The transformation process draws from the input stage using the available resources and then produces a set of outputs. Work, people, informal organization and formal organization are parts of the transformation process. The *work* and *people* components are important to this study. *Work* is the primary purpose for the organization. If the organization is to be successful, an understanding of the task to be

performed and the skills needed to perform those tasks are necessary. The *people* make the organization. From the standpoint of the organization's success, the core worker's skills, knowledge, experience, expectations and behavior pattern should be looked at and matched to the work design.

When the congruency theory is applied to work scheduling, the model predicts that workers who work their desired number of hours, or desired schedules, will be more satisfied or committed than workers whose hours or schedules do not match with their preferences (McGinnis & Morrow, 1990).

The operational hypotheses will be presented in Chapter Three because an understanding of the instruments is necessary.

Significance of the Study

Findings of this study will provide much needed information to the current literature in the areas of work status congruence and job involvement. The measure of work status congruency is a relatively new construct (Holtom et al., 2002) and the scant research that exists does not look at diverse populations. This study will examine the association between employees' preferences for work status and the relationship of that match to the employees' job involvement with low-income workers.

This study will contribute to the field of HRD by providing a broad understanding of the relationship of work status congruence and job involvement for a growing population of low-income workers. Both job involvement and work status congruence are linked to performance (Diefendorff et al., 2002; Holtom et al., 2002). One of the two core threads of HRD is individual and organizational performance

(Ruona, 2000). With the baby boom generation approaching retirement, organizations need to employ and retain experienced workers. Findings of this study may assist HRD professionals in designing more effective staffing strategies that are strategically aligned with organizational mission and vision/intent. Findings of this study will also provide HRD professionals with a better understanding of the value of changes in staffing strategies in anticipation of the changing workforce.

Limitations

1. This survey is limited to a select group of respondents living in the same housing complex.
2. The anonymous survey may have been mailed to an unoccupied unit. Mail delivered to an unoccupied unit may not be returned. Therefore, the researcher cannot determine the cause of all of the unanswered surveys.
3. The study focuses on examining the difference between part-time and full-time workers and does not include data relevant to conducting more specific analysis.
4. Dichotomizing workers into full-time and part-time may obscure important differences within each group. For example, part-time workers working 30-35 hours may have a different frame of reference than part-time workers working fewer hours.
5. Only one housing complex was studied. Using more than one complex would allow comparisons to be made.

Delimitations

The choices available for conducting this survey were limited. Of the options available (U.S. postal mail, e-mail, phone interviews, or an electronic form on the Web), U.S. postal mail and phone interviews were selected as the two possible options because it was unknown if the respondents had access to computers. U. S. postal mail was selected because of the reduced time (as in the case of phone interviews), and accuracy in writing data to a database. This study will be delimited by the nature and size of the population selected for investigation. Of the two hundred surveys mailed, it is anticipated that 50% will be returned. The response rates will determine the generalizability of the study to other housing complexes with the same income limitations and same demographics.

DEFINITIONS

1. *Job involvement*- the psychological involvement with one's job Kanungo (1982a, 1982b).
2. *Congruence*- "the degree to which the needs, demands, goals, objectives, and/or structures of one component are consistent with those of the other" (Nadler & Tushman, 1997, p. 34).
3. *Full-time (FT) employees*- those employed for a certain number of hours (usually over 35) with benefits such as insurance and/or retirement (U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, 2004).
4. *Low-income*- income limit equal to 80 percent of the median family income for the area, subject to adjustments for areas with unusually high or low incomes or housing costs (U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, 2004).
5. *Part-time (PT) worker*- those employed fewer than 35 hours (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1998).
6. *Work commitment*- the relative importance of work to one's sense of self (Loscocco, 1989). Work commitment has five foci: the organization, the job, the career, the work group, and work values (Blau, 1985).
7. Work *status congruence*- the ability of an employer to "match employee's preferences for full-time or part-time status, schedule, shift and number of hours" (Holtom, Lee & Tidd, 2002, p. 903).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

With increased competition and globalization of the marketplace, the American workforce is changing (Bartkowiak, 1993; Belous, 1989; Cooper, 1995). Lifetime employment and corporate loyalty are no longer a part of the employment contract (Eby & Bush, 1998). Organizations now combine three staffing strategies to meet the individual organizational needs: (a) hiring full-time employees (known as "core workers"), (b) hiring contingent workers (also known as "part-time" workers), or (c) outsourcing the entire function (Allen & Sienko, 1998; Kogan, Wolff & Russell, 1995). As a result of these changes, many members of the contemporary workforce feel less loyal and committed to their employers (Jacoby, 2000). This chapter first reviews the history of the changing American workforce and the trends resulting from changes in staffing practices: contingent, part-time and full-time workers. The structural characteristics of these workers are then described. This chapter continues with a discussion of the theoretical frameworks that will inform this study: (1) congruency, and (2) work commitment. The chapter concludes with an in-depth discussion of job involvement construct, conceptualization, measurement, and significance in the workplace.

History of Work

The workforce of the 1950's had two important characteristics: internal labor markets and long-term employment (Jacoby, 1985). The internal labor market model of the 1950's was designed to encourage careers by adopting competitive wage rates, training and development opportunities, and promotion (Befort, 2003). Employers

accepted the idea that employees should only be discharged for just cause (Jacoby, 1985).

With the rise of the internal labor markets, employee turnover rates were reduced and an expectation of long-term relationships between employees and employers emerged through the development of a "social contract" (Cappelli, Bassi, Katz, Knoke, Osterman & Useem, 1997). Another benefit of the social contract was an understanding that employees would stay employed as long as their job was adequately performed (Kogan et al., 1995). Whyte (1956) referred to the social contract as a relationship between employer and employee that would last forever.

Belous (1989) described this type of employment as a "core" worker system. In this core worker system, the employee had a strong affiliation with the employer and the employer, in turn, treated the employee as an important part of the organization. The core workers were considered members of the corporate family and had long-term attachments to the company. This system dominated the American work relationships well into the 1970's (Befort, 2003).

The 1970's saw the beginning of financial deregulations, technological changes and foreign competition. The global competition forced the American markets to attend to the needs of the customers, improve productivity, and reduce the cost of operations (Harrison & Bluestone, 1988; Kogan et al., 1995). This restructuring (also called total quality management, continuous improvement and business process reengineering) resulted in the elimination of layers of middle management as the organizational structure started to flatten to increase efficiency and improve worker productivity and participation (Hammer & Champy, 1993;

Schonberger, 1994). Employers wanted their employees to be involved in the decision making process of the organization while limiting the employment commitment to the workers (Kogan et al., 1995).

Another key component, in response to increased competitive pressure, was the reduction of core (full-time) workforces in favor of contingent workers (Belous, 1989) and flexible staffing options (Hammonds, Kelly & Thurston, 1994; Segal & Sullivan, 1995). These shifts in employer staffing practices indicated major institutional changes: altered compensation systems, more flexible employee relationships (a growing number of employees no longer staying with one employer) and more flexible long-term relationships with employees based on economic conditions, not social contracts (Belous, 1989).

Staffing Trends

Today, organizations meet their human resource needs by hiring workers for (a) full-time positions, (b) contingent positions, or (c) outsourcing the entire business function (Kogan et al., 1995). The "contingent workforce" is a broad category that has been applied to many employment practices including PT work, temporary help, service employment, employee leasing, self-employment, contracting out, and home based work (Polivka, 1996). Employing contingent workers has affected the percentage of the labor force employed by the largest U.S. corporations (Belous, 1989). Fortune 500 corporations lost 6.7% of American Civilian employment from 1970 to 1986 with the percentage dropping from 18.9% to 12.2% (Belous, 1989). The shift from internal labor markets towards a contingent workforce with increased flexibility has altered labor market behavior (Belous, 1989).

In describing contingent labor, Fernberg (1995) stated that contingent labor is a "concept of interim staffing that has its roots in the just-in-time (JIT) process in which the exact skills (or product or materials) are applied only as needed and only for as long as needed. The skills (or products or materials) are not retained in-house between applications, but are delivered by a third party on-schedule" (p. 21). By this definition, contingent workers are hired with the understanding that the position is not long-term based.

In addition to contingent workers, employers also fill employment positions with temporary workers. A recent questionnaire by the National Association of Temporary and Staffing Services shows that 90 percent of companies now use temporary help services (NATSS, 1999). Olsten Corporation found that "blended" workforces designed to make use of temporary, part-time (PT), outsourced, and independent contractors are being used along with full-time (FT) employees in 49 percent of the manufacturers questioned (cited in *Quality* 1998). Utilization of PT and contingent workers to replace the traditional "40-hour nine-to-five" job is referred to as a *non-standard staffing strategies* (Houseman, 1997). Several national employer questionnaires have identified reasons behind the increasing use of nonstandard employment arrangements (Houseman, 1997; Osterman, 1994, 1999) with the most common reason being to staff peak periods or handle short-term increases in product demands. Other reasons include filling in for a regular employee out for personal reasons.

Houseman (1997) found that employers also used contingent workers on a more permanent basis to reduce wage and benefit costs. This was supported by a

representative questionnaire of establishments in the United Stated to examine the prevalence and correlates of flexible staffing arrangements (Kalleberg, Reynolds & Marsden, 2003.) The results of Kalleberg et al.'s (2003) study were consistent with assertions that flexible staffing arrangements are used to lower labor cost in addition to meeting variable labor demands.

Studies differ in explanations for why employers use flexible staffing arrangements (Kalleberg et al., 2003). Economists examined attempts to maximize efficiency and reduce labor cost (Abraham, 1988). Sociologists examined resource dependency and other institutional processes (Davis-Blake & Uzzi, 1993). Comparing studies is difficult because of the different kinds of samples used and the different labels given to the same work arrangements. For this reason, a closer examination of work arrangements will be defined and discussed in this chapter.

Types of Employment

The literature has focused on several types of employment arrangements: full-time, contingent, part-time, and temporary. The terms *contingent* worker and *part-time* worker have been used to represent the same workforce population. The same is true for the terms *part-time* and *temporary* workers. The following is an in-depth review of the terms used to describe the American workforce.

Full-time Employment

FT employees are those who are employed for a certain number of hours (usually over 35) with benefits such as insurance and/or retirement. FT employees are hired and fired by the organization for which they work and are referred to as "core workers" (Kalleberg et al., 1997).

Total nonagricultural industries employment for the month of December 2004 was 140.2 million up 1.7 million from 2003 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2005)(BLS). Workers working PT who wanted FT totaled 4.3 million. The BLS reported 1.3 million workers working PT because they could not find FT positions and 2.9 million were working PT because of slack work or business conditions.

Contingent Employment

In 1985, Audrey Freedman coined the term "contingent work" at a conference on employment security when describing a method of employing workers to meet an immediate demand. Since then, the term has been applied to a wide range of employment practices to include PT, temporary help services, employment leasing, self-employment, contracting out, and home based work (Polivka, 1996). No universally accepted definition of contingent workers exists (Befort, 2003), but what is accepted is the growing number of workers in this group (Roy, 1995). There is agreement in the literature that contingent workers do not have an explicit or implicit contract for long-term employment (Belous, 1989; Polivka & Nardone, 1989). In 2001, The Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) reported 5.4 million contingent workers who did not expect their work to last. Some studies have included all PT and temporary workers in the contingent worker count which has caused many workers to be misclassified and many analysts to be confused about what is being studied (Polivka, 1996).

Many FT workers became contingent workers when American employers slashed their core work force and increased their use of contingent workers (Freedman, 1982). Between 1979 and 1983, roughly 700,000 managers and

professionals (employed by their firms for three years or more) lost their jobs and an additional 600,000 middle and upper level executives lost their jobs in the 1985-86 period.

Even though contingent workers are a diverse group, they do have some commonalities. They tend to have a weak affiliation with their workplace (Belous, 1989; Middleton, 1996) and many have not voluntarily chosen their work status (Lester, 1998).

Alternative Employment

Employees in alternative work arrangements are not classified as employees of the entity for whom they provide services (Befort, 2003). They are either employed through employment intermediaries (temporary help firms) or individuals whose quantity, time and place of work are unpredictable (independent contractors, contracted workers, leased employees) (Polivka, 1996). Since February 1995, data on alternative employment arrangements has been collected in biennial supplements to the Current Population Questionnaire (CPS) (Bureau of Labor Statistics of the U.S. Department of Labor, 2001). The BLS (2001) identified the following alternative work arrangements: 8.6 million independent contractors (6.4 percent of total employment), 2.1 million on-call workers (1.6 percent of total employment), 1.2 million temporary help agency workers (0.9 percent of the employed) and 633,000 contract company workers (0.5 percent of total employment).

Part-time Employment

According to the Employment Benefit Research Institute (EBRI), the U.S. Department of Labor's definition of a PT worker is based on the number of hours

worked (fewer than 35), not the type of employment contract (independent contractor, temporary employee) held or the number of jobs a person might hold (1994). Some research on PT workers identified the workers as PT if they worked less than 40 hours per week (Krausz, Sagie, Bidermann, 2000; McGinnis & Morrow, 1990; Shockley & Muller, 1994). Many studies on PT workers never stated how PT employment was defined (Barker, 1993; Jackofsky & Peters, 1987).

Using the U.S. Department of Labor's definition, the number of PT workers increased from 10.8 million in 1969 to 20.7 million in 1993 (24.6 percent of the growth in the workforce) compared to an increase from 59.2 million to 89.6 million (75.4 percent of new entrants) for FT employees for the same time period (EBRI, 1994). In analyzing the March 1993 CPS, the EBRI also reported that 70.6 percent of all PT workers were voluntary workers and 29.4 percent classified themselves as involuntary PT workers. The involuntary PT workforce increased from 1.8 million to 6.1 million during the 1969-1993 time frame.

Five PT work arrangements are identified in the literature (Feldman, 1990). They are (a) permanent/temporary, (b) main-job/second-job, (c) voluntary/involuntary, (d) year-round/seasonal, and (e) organization hired/agency hired.

Permanent/Temporary. Permanent PT workers are employed fewer than 35 hours on a continuing basis and temporary PT workers are hired for limited periods of time to cover changes in workloads (Howe, 1986; Moberly 1986; Nollen, Eddy, & Martin, 1978).

Main-job/Second-job. Workers have two jobs. The first job is less than 35 hours per week for salaried income and the second job is for supplemental income (Best, 1981; Owen, 1978).

Voluntary/Involuntary. PT workers are also divided into voluntary/involuntary statuses. The BLS distinguished these two groups of workers by those who work less than 35 hours by choice and those who work less than 35 hours because of the unavailability of FT jobs or because of cutbacks of hours the workers are given during business downturns (Nardone, 1986).

Year-round/Seasonal. Employees who work year round as opposed to a seasonal position. Seasonal positions are created through vacation or holiday absences (Hom, 1979).

Organization-hired/Agency-hired. PT workers are also divided into those hired by organizations or hired by agencies. Those hired by the organizations for which they work are also paid by those organizations. Agency-hired are those hired through agencies such as personnel agencies who then place the worker in a variety of work situations and pays the worker directly (Howe, 1986; Moberly, 1986).

Another grouping by the BLS divides all PT workers into one of three subgroups. Those subgroups are: (1) those who usually work FT but worked less that 35 hours during the referenced week because of holidays, illness, vacations or other reasons, (2) those voluntarily working PT, and (3) those working PT for economic reasons.

Tilly (1991) conceptualized a model also using three categories of PT work: (1) short-time, (2) secondary and (3) retention quality. Short time employment is a

result of temporary reduction in a worker's hours often found during a business downturn in goods-producing industries such as manufacturing, construction and mining. Secondary PT jobs are most often found in the service industry where low pay, lack of advancement and high turnover are normal practices. Professionals with technical and/or advanced degrees, managers or administrators are in the retention quality group.

Since 1970, the growth in secondary PT work has been larger in industries of trades and services with characteristics of low skill and high turnover (Tilly, 1991). Tilly (1991) suggested that this resulted in the growth of involuntary PT employment. Until 1970, growth in PT positions resulted in filling demands by women and young people who wanted PT positions (Tilly, 1991). Since that time, workers seeking PT positions have stagnated and PT positions have expanded (Tilly, 1990). The government collects data on PT workers wanting FT positions, but little data is collected on FT workers wanting PT positions (Shank, 1986). Interest in the PT workforce has increased as managers now see the numbers of PT workers and the impact these workers are having on the organizations' success (Feldman, Doerpinghaus, Turnley, 1994).

Voluntary/Involuntary PT Workers

In facing labor market changes, there has been a substantial growth in non-standard employment arrangements (Dickens, 1992; Norris, 1993). Some workers prefer the flexibility offered by these jobs while others prefer a more stable employment arrangement (Deery & Mahony, 1994; Ellwood, Blank, Blasi, Kruse, Niskanen, & Lynn-Dyson, 2000; Stratton, 1996). Findings from the 1995 and 1997

BLS questionnaires found that 55 to 60 percent of contingent workers preferred non-contingent employment (Stratton, 1996).

Involuntary PT workers have a slightly higher chance of finding FT employment than workers who are unemployed and are trying to find FT employment (Stratton, 1996). Stratton used data from the 1990 Current Population Questionnaire (CPS) to determine if persons classified as involuntary PT workers exhibited characteristics and behaviors consistent with underutilized laborers. Data from the 1990 CPS was then compared to data from the March 1991 CPS to determine changes in labor over time. The results supported the hypothesis that if individuals are truly involuntarily employed in PT positions then they should have FT employment probability similar to that of the unemployed and not the FT workers. Men classified as involuntary PT workers had a 91.4 percent probability of finding FT employment compared to unemployed men with a 90.4 percent chance. Women faired a little better with the involuntary PT female worker having a 92.7 percent chance of finding FT employment as compared to their unemployed counterparts with a 90.5 percent chance (Stratton, 1996).

Both men and women did appear to be more constrained in obtaining FT employment than voluntary PT workers. Voluntary PT women, on average, appeared to have characteristics that make them more likely to obtain FT employment (95.9 percent) than those already employed FT (95.6 percent) (Feldman, 1990). Feldman (1990) pointed out that PT workers with regular positions (employed year-round and it is their main employment) would be more satisfied with their jobs than employees forced to reduce their hours or are unable to find FT employment.

Deery and Mahony (1994) examined employment policies of a large retailing firm in Australia to explore employees' attitudes toward the introduction of flexible working hours. A questionnaire was administered to 1,850 employees at the Melbourne-based operation in November 1992. Usable responses were received from 957 employees. The sample population was divided into FT (55 percent), PT (50 percent) and casual employees (51 percent). Minimum hours worked distinguished PT from casual employees. PT employees worked a minimum of 12 hours and a maximum of 30 hours per week. Casual employees worked a minimum of two hours. These staffing arrangements have had an effect on minimizing cost but are not necessarily compatible with the company's goals of quality service. The study also reported that 80 percent of the PT workers and 91 percent of the causal workers did not want to have their hours reduced while 41 percent of the PT workers and 60 percent of the casual employees wanted a greater number of hours per week.

The questionnaire revealed findings contrary to the objective of the company, which was to provide high quality customer service. By changing the hours and schedules of the employees, the company faced employee dissatisfaction. Research evidence points to positive and significant relationships between job satisfaction and organizational commitment and performance (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Deery and Mahoney (1994) proposed that if employees had their hours altered in disagreement with their preferences, it might reduce the employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and quality of customer service. Results from Deery and Mahoney's study found that primary income earners, reluctantly working PT, were more likely to express dissatisfaction with their job through lower job satisfaction.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical frameworks that will inform this study are: (a) congruency, and (b) work commitment. Each framework will be discussed.

Congruence

Congruence is "the degree to which the needs, demands, goals, objectives, and/or structures of one component are consistent with those of the other (Nadler & Tushman, 1997, p. 34). The basic hypothesis of Nadler and Tushman's (1997) congruency model (see Figure 1) is that other things being equal, the greater the degree of congruence between components of an organization, the more effective the organization will be. In other words, the degree to which all components are smoothly aligned will determine the organizations' ability to compete and be successful in the marketplace. Therefore, the Nalder-Tushman model suggests a cause-effect linkage.

Congruency Model. Nadler and Tushman's (1997) congruency model is based on earlier works of theorists, such as Katz and Kahn, and Seiler and Lorsch. The model contains three main parts: (1) input, (2) strategy, and (3), output (see Figure 1). The heart of the congruency model is the transformation process.

As shown in Figure 1, informal organization, formal organization, work, and people are the components of a set of informal, unwritten guidelines that exerts powerful influence on the individuals in the organization. Certain questions are asked at each component of the congruency model.

The informal organization (also referred to as "the operating environment") includes the values, beliefs and norms of the individuals who work for the

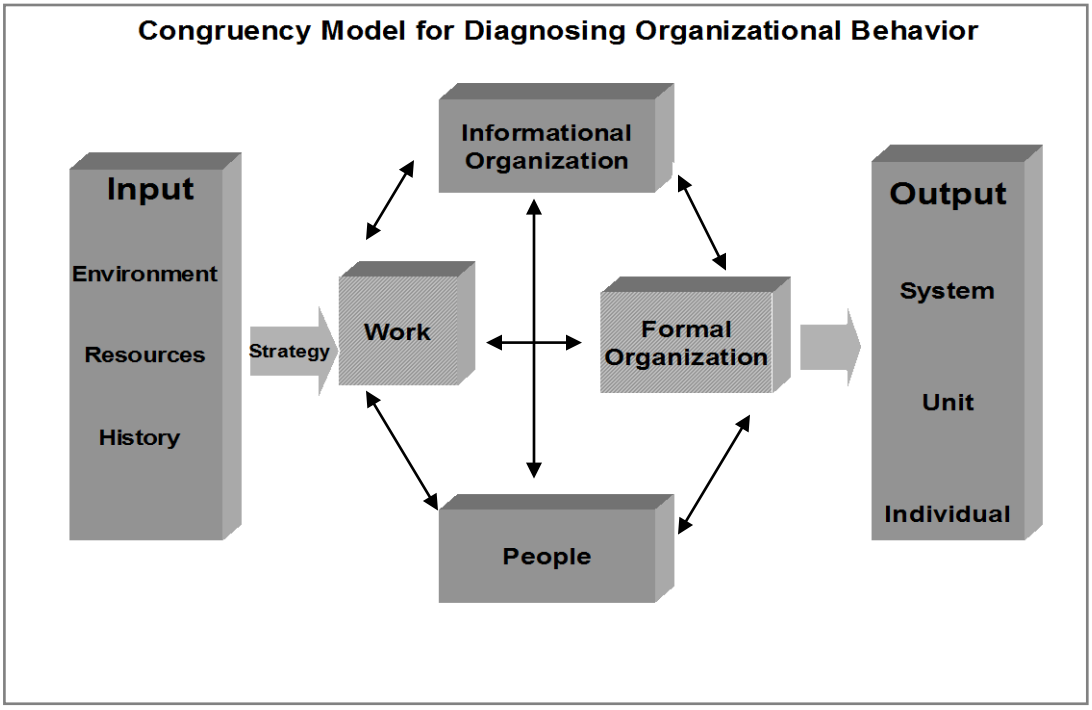

Figure 1. Source: Nadler, D. A. & Tushman, M. L. (1997) *Competing by design: The power of organizational architecture*: New York: Oxford University Press.

organization. The question asked at this stage is, “How are individual needs met by the informal organization?”

Formal organizations have the structures, processes and systems that enable workers to perform task. The question asked at this stage is, “Do organizational arrangements motivate behavior that is consistent with work demands?”

Work is the primary purpose of the organization. Knowledge of the workflow, the skills it demands, and the stress or uncertainty it involves is important in determining the people needed to meet the organizational vision/goals. The question asked at this stage is, “How are individual needs met by the work?”

The individual is the last component in the congruency model. Effective organizational changes are designed with people in mind. Changes in staffing, either throughout the organization or in a small number, require a rethinking of the organizational design. The question asked at this stage is, “How are individual needs met by the organizational arrangement?” Figure 2 shows the role of HRD when staffing strategies and job involvement are applied to Nadler and Tushman’s (1997) congruency model.

Research on Work Status Congruence. Following the congruency theory of meeting individual needs, recent research has focused on work status congruence (Armstrong-Stassen et al., 1998; Burke & Greenglass, 2000; Holtom, Lee & Tidd, 2002; Keil, Armstrong-Stassen, Cameron & Horsburgh, 2000; Krausz et al., 2000; Tansky & Gallagher, 1995; Thorsteinson, 2003). Work status congruence is

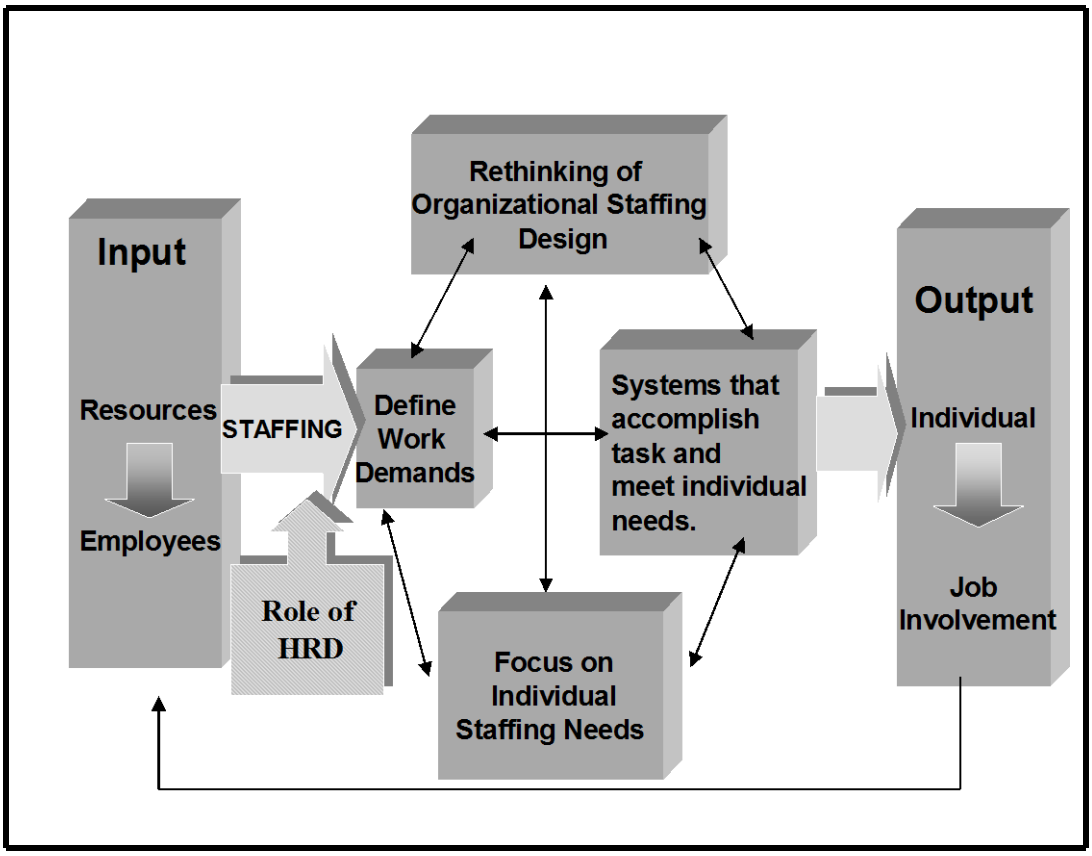

Figure 2. Applying Nadler and Tushman's (1997) Congruency Model to staffing strategies and job involvement.

"the degree to which employers match employee preference for FT or PT status, schedule, shift and number of hours" (Holtom et al., 2002, p. 903). Research performed outside of the United States suggests that incongruence in employee preferences and work schedules might subject a firm to unanticipated costs. Deery and Mahony (1994) found that asking FT workers to do fewer hours and asking PT workers to do more hours had similar effects, that is, reduced job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and customer service.

Workforce scheduling forces managers to balance the goals of the firm and the goals of the employee (Holtom et al., 2002). In trying to match labor supply, working hours and customer demands, employers have had to move towards nonstandard work arrangements (Deery & Mahony, 1994; Kalleberg et al., 1997) without examining the possible costs or benefits associated with a mismatch (Holtom et al., 2002).

Armstrong-Stassen et al., (1998) found that work status congruence and voluntary/involuntary work arrangements had important consequences in the workplace. They compared the coping resources, coping strategies and job-related attitudes of FT and PT nurses. The respondents were 554 Canadian female nurses (337 were employed FT, 210 were employed PT, with 7 non-respondents to that question) and 272 Jordanian female nurses (210 were employed FT, 40 were employed PT with four non-respondents to that question). Questionnaires were administered to nurses working in four community hospitals in Ontario, Canada, and to nurses working in six hospitals in Amman and northern Jordan. To test the effect of work status congruency, two separate MANCOVA analyses were performed on each

sample with the perceived support and coping variables in one analysis and the outcome variables in the second analysis. The Canadian nurses who were working full time but preferred PT work reported significantly lower satisfaction with their type of work, amount of work, and working conditions. They also expressed higher levels of emotional exhaustion and greater intention to leave the hospital. The Jordanian nurses exhibited the same trends, but their findings were not as significant.

Burke and Greenglass (2000) investigated work status congruence, work outcomes, and psychological well-being among 1,362 hospital-based nurses using anonymous questionnaires. Six hundred and twenty-one respondents were working FT and 680 were working PT. Nine hundred respondents worked the status they preferred and 401 indicated work status incongruence. Four work status groups were then compared: (1) FT/FT, (2) PT/PT, (3) FT/PT, and (4) PT/FT. Nurses with congruent work status were generally more satisfied with their work and reported higher levels of psychological well-being than the incongruent groups of nurses. The PT/FT nurses reported greater intentions to quit than was reported by the other three groups. These nurses were unable to find FT positions because of health care restructuring and downsizing. FT/PT nursing staff reported the poorest psychological well-being and physical health and the most negative work outcomes (job satisfaction, absenteeism).

Holtom et al. (2002) tested the hypotheses that a match or congruence between worker preferences and organizational staffing practices would be associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment (p. 903). These researchers first proposed a new measure of work status congruence to overcome the inconsistencies

found in the prior research on preferences of work status congruence and professional commitment, job involvement, organizational commitment, and intent to stay (McGinnis & Morrow, 1990). They further replicated the study of Lee & Johnson (1991) that examined the relationship between work status congruence and work-related attitudes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Holtom et al. (2002) extended the prior work of Lee & Johnson by exploring work-related behaviors of turnover and in-role and extra-role performance. Holtom et al.'s (2002) study found that work status congruence is positively associated with organizational commitment and job satisfaction as well as employee retention, in-role and extra-role performance.

Other studies have failed to find differences in work status congruence (Keil, Armstrong-Stassen, Cameron & Horsburgh, 2000; Krauze et at. 2000). Krausz et al., (2000) investigated PT versus FT workers in predicting job-related attitudes reflecting well-being (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and emotional withdrawal (burn-out and the intent to quit). Their respondents, 153 females ranging in ages from 21 to 57 with an average age of 34, were year-round nurses in Israel. The job satisfaction was measured by using a four-item questionnaire developed by Beehr (1976). Results of the study found that differences in actual scheduling and preferred scheduling did not account for variances in job satisfaction or organizational commitment. The interaction between the actual and preferred workloads did not explain the studied criteria. The findings may not show a true relationship because of the collective agreements in Israel that makes PT workers entitled to all material benefits based as a fraction of a FT position (Brewster,

Hegewisch, Lockhart, & Mayne, 1993). The researchers stated the questionability of the generalizability to Western countries where many work benefits are limited to FT staff.

Keil et al. (2000) conducted two studies (N= 204 and N= 251) to examine how work status congruency influences the job attitudes and reactions to organizational restructuring of PT nurses employed in a hospital setting. Nurses with congruent work status were older and more satisfied with the financial rewards. Nurses with incongruent work status tended to be more satisfied with the kind of work they performed. These nurses were younger and had less job experience, which suggested they were recent graduates who were unable to find FT work. It was hypothesized that job satisfaction would mediate the relationship of work status congruency with coping and turnover intentions. The study did not show a relationship between work status congruency and coping and turnover intentions. Therefore, there could be no mediation so no further tests were conducted.

Thorsteinson (2003) gave three reasons for the failure of the predictions made by Keil et al. (2000), and Krausz et al. (2000). First, respondents may not have interpreted *work status* the same (e.g. an employee working PT may respond to FT preference if he or she did not have to consider childcare responsibilities). Secondly, other responses may have been based on reality (for example, I would like to work PT but cannot for whatever reason, so he/she prefers to work FT). Finally, work status congruence may not be a strong indicator of person-job fit and other factors, such as vocational interest or skill utilization, may be better predictors.

Thorsteinson (2003) conducted a meta-analytic review of job attitudes of PT versus FT workers. The possible differences between PT and FT workers on overall job satisfaction, facets of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement and intent to leave were examined. Criteria for Thorsteinson's study included studies that categorized workers into FT or PT positions, and temporary workers, but only if the temporary workers were categorized into PT or FT subgroups. Thorsteinson (2003) identified the employees according to classifications rather than the number of hours worked because of the "psychological effect of being classified as "PT" (p. 157).

Thorsteinson (2003) also noted that the "vast majority of research on job attitudes and work status compares job attitudes of PT worker to FT workers: rarely does it examine the correlation between hours worked and job attitudes" (p. 157). A total of 38 studies met Thorsteinson's criteria and provided sufficient data for the calculation of an effect size. The results of Thorsteinson's study indicated that PT employees appear to be less involved with the organization according to the results of the analysis on job involvement. However, Thorsteinson noted that PT workers might have chosen PT work so they could be less involved. The analysis of voluntary PT and involuntary PT employment status results did indicate that voluntary PT employees were more satisfied than involuntary PT employees. Person-job fit was also supported. Individuals desiring PT work and having PT work were more satisfied than individuals desiring FT time work but working PT. Thorsteinson did not have enough studies to distinguish a possible relationship between FT workers working FT voluntarily and involuntarily. Morrow et al. (1994) proposed that studies should

indicate whether the decision to work a particular schedule is *self-imposed* or *organizationally imposed*.

Work Commitment

Work commitment is defined as the relative importance of work to one's sense of self (Loscocco, 1989). Researchers have defined a set of similar but distinct attitudinal variables to identify work-related commitment. Five foci have been identified: the organization, the job, the career, the work group, and work values (Blau, 1985).

Extensive studies have been conducted to determine the specific facets of work commitment, however, most of these studies treated the facets in isolation. The theoretical linkages among the major facets of work commitment are not fully understood and have not been the focus of comparative studies (Randall & Cote, 1991). Randall and Cote's (1991) study did focus on the interrelationships and linkages between the facets of work commitment.

Randall and Cote (1991) sampled 455 university employees and tested the relationships between the different constructs in their hypothesized model. They developed a relationship model (see Figure 3) by conceptually integrating previous studies. Specific scales were used to tap different facets of work commitment: (1) protestant work ethic (PWE), (2), work group attachment, (3) career salience, (4) organizational commitment, (5) and job involvement.

The results of their study show that Protestant work ethic and work group attachment influenced job involvement, and job involvement, in turn, influenced career salience and organizational commitment. They found that the strongest

relationships were found for the effects of job involvement on organizational commitment and career salience. Job involvement explained 25.5% of the variances in career salience and 14.8% of the variance in organizational commitment. “The findings point to the pivotal role that job involvement plays in a unified theory of work commitment constructs” (Randall & Cote, 1991, p. 207).

The work commitment construct that is important to this study is job involvement. Shore, Newton and Thornton III (1990) recognized the need to distinguish job and organizational attitudes. They hypothesized that attitudes targeted towards the job would predict job-targeted behavioral intentions such as performance, and attitudes targeted towards the organization would predict organization-targeted intentions such as turnover. Results of their study supported the hypothesized model.

Job Involvement: A Facet of Work Commitment. Morrow (1983) defined JI as “the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his (or her) work” (p.488). JI refers to an employee’s attachment to the job. Morrow’s (1983) model of five universal forms of work commitment (affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment, protestant work ethic (PWE), career commitment, and job involvement) identifies each form of commitment within a series of five concentric circles. Work ethic is the innermost circle and JI is the outermost circle. Morrow argues that the inner circles impact the outer circles. In Morrow’s model the two forms of OC mediate the relationships between career commitment and PWE and the outlying JI.

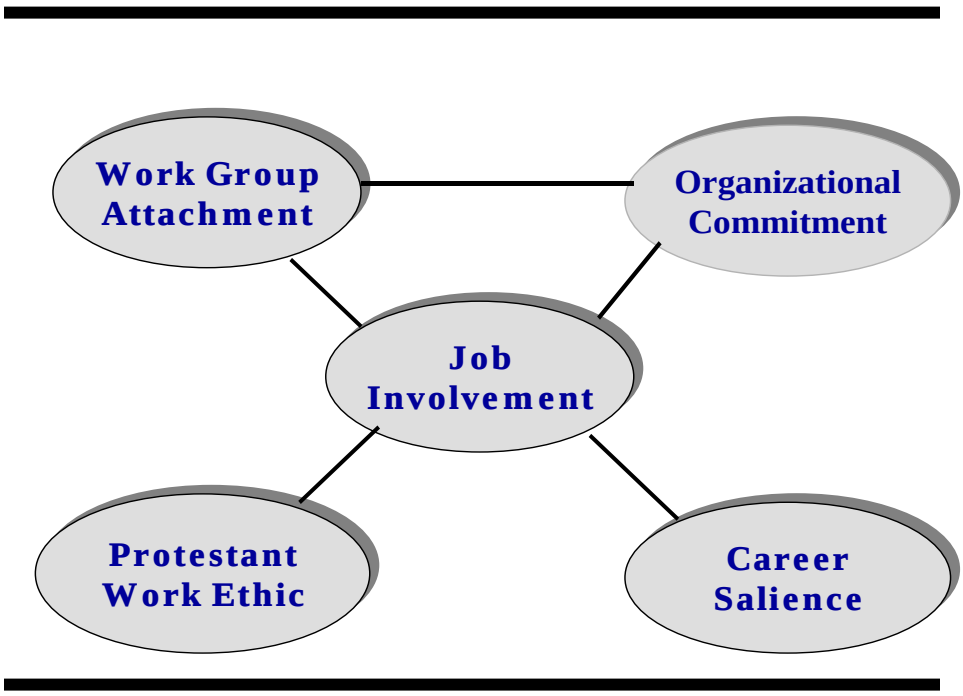

Figure 3. A Theoretical Model of Work Commitment Constructs. Source: Randall, D.M and Cote, J. A. (1991). Interrelationships of work commitment constructs. Work and Occupations (18) 2, 194-211.

Randall and Cote's (1991) model tested PWE, career commitment, organizational commitment, work group attachment and JI. In this model, JI has a strong and direct influence on organizational commitment and career salience. JI is affected by PWE, which has a key role in influencing employee's affective responses in the workplace. People with a high work ethic put in a fair day's effort, even when bored or fatigued, and accept responsibility for their work (Schnake, 1991). It is reasonable to expect people who have positive attitudes towards work and value the work role will demonstrate those attitudes in their commitment to the job and to the organization (Shamir, 1986). Employees given unsatisfactory work assignments may develop unfavorable attitudes to the organization noticeable in their commitment decision to the organization (Witt, 1993).

Research on work commitment has included JI (e.g. Kanungo, 1982a, 1982b), organizational commitment (e.g. Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979) and work involvement (e.g. Kanungo, 1979). Although the relationship has been weak, JI has been predictive of organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Blau & Boal, 1989; Brown 1996). JI and organizational commitment have been investigated as separate predictors of performance (e.g. Lawler & Hall, 1970; Steers, 1977), turnover (e.g. Hom, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979), and absenteeism, (e.g. Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979).

Research has introduced "fit" of a person with his or her work situation or environment. Fit is determined by the individual's abilities and needs and the work environment's requirements and reinforcement system (Dawis, England & Lofquist,

1964). This type of person-environment fit approach seems to be a predictor of JI (e.g. Rabinowitz, 1981) and OC (e.g. Ferris & Aranya, 1983).

Job Involvement: The Construct. JI was first proposed as a type of job attitude by Allport in 1943 and has since been intensively studied. In looking in the PsychINFO database only, Reeve and Smith (2001) located more than 1,200 articles in which JI was a major subject heading. However, disagreement exists as to what constitutes JI. This is evident by the number and variety of definitions that can be derived from prior literature.

JI, from an organizational approach, has been considered a key to employee motivation (Lawler, 1986), and an essential foundation for establishing a competitive advantage in today's business market (Lawler, 1992). From an individual approach, JI is a major contributor to personal growth and satisfaction within the workplace, motivation, and goal-directed behavior (Kahn, 1990; Lawler & Hall, 1970). "Increasing job involvement can enhance organizational effectiveness and productivity by engaging employees more completely in their work and making work a more meaningful and fulfilling experience" (Brown, 1996, p.235).

The concepts of JI and work centrality (WC) have existed in the literature for some time (e.g. Kanungo, 1982a, 1982b; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). However, the literature has created confusion between these two constructs (Paullay, Alliger & Stone-Romero, 1994). Terms such as *work alienation*, *work involvement*, *job commitment*, and *work commitment* have been used to describe attitudes or orientations toward work in general and toward one's present job (Paullay et al. 1994).

Kanungo (1982a, 1982b) developed separate measures for JI and WC, called *work involvement*. Kanungo (1982b) argues that JI and job satisfaction can be distinguished "only on the basis that the former is a cognitive belief state and the latter is an affective state of the worker" (p.77). Paullay et al. (1994) disagreed with Kanungo's view that JI and job satisfaction come from the same underlying construct but are manifested in different ways. Paullay et al. argued that an individual could be dissatisfied with a job but still be involved in the job. Paullay et al. conducted a study of 313 human service employees at a state psychiatric hospital to test the hypothesis that JI and WC are two distinct constructs. The correlations between JI and WC in the confirmatory factor analysis were positive (.48 and .41). This finding supported the hypothesis that although JI and WC do share modest amounts of variances they do not appear to be redundant constructs.

Job Involvement: Conceptualization and Measurement. JI has been related to many antecedents, correlates and consequences through hundreds of empirical studies (Brown, 1996). A review of the literature identifies three classic approaches from a psychological perspective: (1) active participation in the job, (2) work as central life interest, and (3) performance as central to self-esteem.

Allport (1943) first approached JI as an attitude identified by active participation at work. Wickert (1951) purported that participation at work could be measured by simply asking employees to what degree they felt they were participating in their jobs. Vroom (1959, 1962) interjected another component into the assessment by adding *how much the employee participates "psychologically"* in his job. This conceptualization of JI depends on "the extent to which an individual

seeks some self-expression and actualization in his work" (Gruin, Veroff, & Feld, 1960, cited in Saleh & Hosek, 1976, p. 214), or on "the opportunity to make job decisions, the feeling of contribution to success, the chance to set one's own work pace and self determination (Bass, 1965, cited in Saleh & Hosek, 1976, p. 214). Blau (1985) defined JI as "the degree to which an employee is participating in his job and meeting such needs as prestige and autonomy" (pp. 19-20).

The second concept, central life interest, was developed by Dublin (1956). A 40-item questionnaire was used to determine a person's total life experiences by categorizing items into job oriented, non-job oriented or indifferent responses. This questionnaire identified the time devoted to work and how important the employee perceives the job to be in his life (Davis, 1966). The two major scales used in research for this measurement has been Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) job involvement scale and Kanungo's (1982a, 1982b) job involvement measurement scale.

The third approach considers JI as central to self-concept or the degree to which his self-esteem is affected (French & Kahn, 1962). This type of job involvement gains the employee's commitment to self-established goals through programs such as management by objectives thus achieving higher commitment goals and higher levels of JI (Hackman, 1968). The self-esteem type of involvement is measured in different ways. Based on the Zeigarnik effect, the employee is asked if he/she thinks about unfinished problems after working hours (Vroom, 1962). The Zeigarnik (1967) effect states that people remember uncompleted or interrupted tasks better than completed ones. It is assumed that unfinished problems are central to the self-concept if the problem remains in the employee's thoughts. Vroom (1964) and

Iverson and Reuder (1956) provided another approach in which the employee is asked if a task requires personality characteristics or values that he values.

JI: Antecedents, Correlates and Consequences. Brown (1996) performed a meta-analysis and reviewed JI research conducted from 1974 to 1995. After eliminating studies that did not look at involvement in a specific job, and were experimental in nature, he identified 212 relevant studies with 249 independent samples and 781 correlations. Brown classified variables studied as antecedents, correlates or consequences in relation to JI (see Figure 4). Brown noted that finding conclusive causal ordering was difficult in some cases because of the problems incurred in extracting evidence from correlational data.

The variables listed as antecedents were: personality, job characteristics, supervisory behaviors and role perceptions. Each antecedent represents different conceptual viewpoints on the causation of job involvement (Brown, 1996). Personality research illustrates JI as an individual construct influenced by individual viewpoints and socialization. However, the research on relationships of JI to job characteristics, supervisory behaviors and role perceptions assumes that JI is determined by the situational influences. There are three perspectives that emerge from personality research: (a) individual-difference perspective, (b) interactionist perspective, and (c) situational perspective.

The individual-difference perspective is an extensively researched area relating JI to work ethic endorsements (Morrow & McElroy, 1986; Saal, 1978). The emphasis is on individuality and the virtue of work itself and draws from the work of Weber (1958). It is contended that beliefs in the Protestant work ethic will result in a

more job-involved employee (Brief & Aldag, 1977; Brockner, Grover & Blonder, 1988).

Researchers have also studied other personality variables and linked locus of control, self-esteem, and internal motivation to JI (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Deci & Ryan, 1985; White, 1959). Individuals with an internal locus of control are found to be more job involved than individuals with an external locus of control (Brown, 1996).

The situationist perspective suggests that motivation be a primary consequence and not an antecedent of JI (Brown, 1996). From this perspective, if the job's need-satisfaction is met, the cognitive state of involvement will follow (Lazarus, 1991). The individual is seen as having motivational potential within and the motivation is activated by the extent that the individual sees the job's need-satisfaction potential (Pinder, 1984).

The interactionist perspective contends that both personality and situational variables combine to determine the level of involvement (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Blau (1987) found evidence to support this perspective when work ethic endorsement and job scope interacted to predict job involvement.

The correlates were demographics and work-career commitment. In developing a theoretical framework relating JI to its antecedents, correlates and consequences, Brown (1996) identified demographic variables as correlates because of the weak and unnecessary causal relationship. The demographic variables included, but were not limited to: age, tenure, education, gender, salary, and marital status. These variables have generally been weak to JI while other variables, such as

career commitment and work involvement, are related to JI in a conceptual sense, but actually represent a much broader concept than a specific job (Brown, 1996). The overall results for consequences (e.g. work behavior outcomes, job attitudes, side-effects) varied from weak to strong associations with JI more strongly related to intrinsic than extrinsic need satisfaction (Brown, 1996).

In some studies, researchers have investigated the impact of work-family conflicts, stress, health complaints, and anxiety in relation to JI (Higgins, Duxbury, & Irving, 1992; Weiner, Vardi, & Muczyk, 1981). Brown (1996) considered these as consequences of JI, along with work behaviors and job attitudes. In Brown's (1996) overall analysis, the findings supported two relationships. Firstly, there is a strong relationship between JI and OC. Secondly, JI is more strongly related to situational factors and job attitudes in private organizations.

Job Involvement Research

Shore et al. (1990) developed and evaluated a theoretical model that described differential relationships that organizational attitude (OC and satisfaction) and job attitudes (JI and satisfaction) have with behavioral intentions (turnover, absenteeism and performance). Respondents were 157 male and 409 female state classified employees at a large western university in the United States working a variety of job positions. The average age was 40, and the majority had worked with the university six years or more. The Lodahl and Kejner (1965) Job Involvement Scale was used to measure JI. The instrument was mailed to the respondents with a 47% return rate. JI was not a predictor of job satisfaction, organizational satisfaction, or OC. JI was clearly related to performance intentions but not to absenteeism intentions.

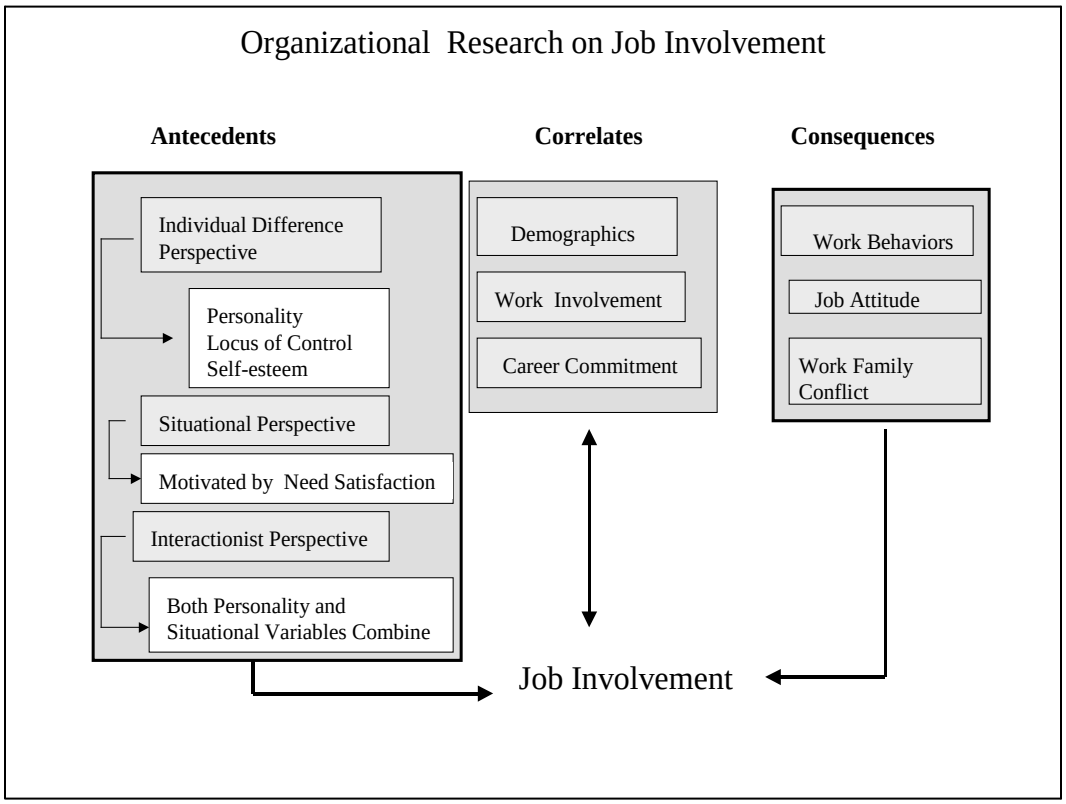

Figure 4. Partial results of Brown's (1996) meta-analysis and review of job involvement research.

Riipinen's (1997) study differentiated between JI based on need congruence and JI not based on need congruence and levels of well-being. Respondents were Finish elementary-school teachers and secretaries employed in the greater Helsinki area. A total of 383 women and 50 men returned their questionnaires. Kanungo's (1982a, 1982b) 10-item Job Involvement Scale was used to measure JI. The respondents rated the statements on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The reliability coefficient of the scale measured by alpha was .86. The Ghiselli's (1971) Self-Description Inventory measured occupational needs. Needs were measured with adjectives describing personality and the respondents selected the one that best described them. The reliability for intrinsic needs was .89 and for extrinsic needs, reliability was .90. The findings supported the hypothesis of the study. JI was positively related to well-being, and well-being was higher in those respondents whose involvement was based on need fulfillment. JI that was not based on need fulfillment was negatively related to well-being. Results indicated that JI is related to well-being only if the constructs are based on need congruence in one's job.

Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin and Lord (2002) used a recently published measure (Paullay et al., 1994) of JI and found that JI is a significant predictor of supervisor ratings of organizational citizenship behaviors and in-role performance. This study contradicts the meta-analysis by Brown (1996) concluding that JI was unrelated to job performance. Diefendorff et al. (2002) gave two reasons for the difference in their findings and the non-significant findings reported by Brown. First, the measurement of JI in the primary studies included in the meta-analysis was reflective of more that one construct. Key measures of JI (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965;

Kanungo, 1982a, 1982b) are confused with work centrality. A second reason may be in the definition of *performance* developed in previous job involvement research.

Respondents in Diefendorff et al.'s (2002) study consisted of 130 employed undergraduate students (43 males and 87 females). The average age was 24.3 years and the average organizational tenure was 2.8 years. JI was measured using the 27-item scale (13 items measured *role* and 14 items measured *setting*) developed by Paullay et al. (1994). In Diefendorff et al.'s study, role was defined the extent to which "one is engaged in the specific tasks that make up one's job" (p. 225) and setting was the "degree to which one finds carrying out the task of one's job" (p. 225). Diefendorff et al.'s study reported the results on one full scale to represent JI as a global construct. The results of the study were consistent with previous research (Martin & Hafer, 1995). JI was related to the number of hours individuals worked per week (r= 0.23). No differences existed in the JI and performance relationship. JI and WC were positively correlated (r= 0.34, $p<0.001$). These findings were consistent with Paullay et al.'s findings. Diefendorff et al.'s study was the first to demonstrate that JI is a predictor of organizational citizenship behaviors.

The conceptualizations discussed above, and the definitions presented, support Kanungo's (1982a) argument that "past psychological research in the area of job involvement is fraught with problems of conceptual ambiguities and measurement inadequacies" (p. 341).

Kanungo (1982a, 1982b) listed four areas of concern in JI research. Firstly, past research confused the construct with the concept of motivation. Secondly, identifying the antecedent conditions of JI had been confused with identifying the

state of JI and its subsequent effects. Thirdly, JI has been described as both cognitive and affective states of the individual. Lastly, conceptualizations had been generalized to work context that are specific to job context. Involvement in a specific job does not automatically mean involvement with work in general. Since Kanungo's (1982a, 1982b) JI scale distinguishes between JI and work involvement, has been selected for this study. This instrument is discussed in depth in Chapter III.

Summary of Literature

Much of the research on work status has focused on differences in job attitudes and behaviors of PT and FT professional workers, educators and student populations. Findings for job satisfaction across PT and FT employees are contradictory (Barling & Gallagher, 1996; McGinnis & Morrow, 1990). Mixed results have been found on studies of FT employee's and PT employee's job satisfaction. PT employees have been found to be more satisfied (Eberhardt & Shani, 1984; Jackosky & Peters, 1987), less satisfied (Miller & Terborg, 1979, and equally satisfied (Krausz et al., 2000) as FT employees.

The same inconsistent findings exist between PT and FT employees in the commitment literature. Studies have found PT workers to have more commitment (Wetzel, Soloshy, & Gallagher, 1990), less commitment (Morrow et al., 1994), and equal commitment to their jobs as compared to FT employees (Krausz et al., 2000; McGinnes & Morrow, 1990). Studies have examined attitudes of employees to flexible working hours (Deery & Mahony, 1994) comparing PT and FT workers commitment.

Work status studies have focused on the relationship between work status and organizational commitment (e.g., McGinnis & Morrow, 1990; Tansky, 1997), job involvement (e.g., Wetzel et al., 1990), work characteristics (e.g., Eberhart & Shani, 1984), psychological contracts and attitudes (e.g., Conway & Briner, 2002; Keil et al., 2000), and work outcomes and psychological well-being (e.g., Burke & Greenglass, 2000; Krausz et al., 2000).

For over 35 years, researchers have been interested in JI and organizational variables with studies addressing JI and work centrality in predicting organizational citizenship behaviors and job performance (Diefendorff et al., 2002). Some studies have shown that involvement is related to high levels of well-being (Castro, 1993), other studies do not show a relationship between the constructs (Gechman & Wiener, 1975). Other studies show involvement is related to low levels of well-being (Kanungo, 1982a, 1982b) and still others show JI is related to well-being if the constructs are based on need congruence in one's job (Riipinen, 1997).

The construct of JI has progressed over the last decade of research from a simple descriptive theory to a grounded theory (Elloy, Everett & Flynn, 1995). Attempts have been made to clarify the constructs of JI. The work of Kanungo (1979, 1982a, 1982b) has provided the current understanding. Kanungo restricted JI to the cognitive dimension of attitudes towards a job or how much the job can satisfy one's salient needs (Elloy et al., 1995).

Research has continued to explore the constructs of JI (Sekaran, 1989; Sekaran & Mowday, 1981) and have used two approaches. First, from an individual perspective, needs, values and/or personal characteristics cause an individual to

become more or less involved in their jobs. The second perspective views the work characteristics as an influence on the individual's degree of JI. Individual differences and job characteristics have been found to be equally important in determining JI (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977).

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationships between JI and work status congruence in an unstudied population of low-income workers. Continuing to investigate the correlates of job involvement adds to a theoretical understanding of construct and definitional clarity (Elloy et al., 1995).

The theories of congruency and work commitment will inform this study. The results of the study will determine if there is a relationship between work status congruence and job involvement for the population of low-income workers in the study. This information will be significant in understanding similarities in the levels of JI both within and between organizations (Elloy et al., 1995).

With the baby-boomer generation approaching retirement, organizations are about to lose their most experienced workers. Chevron, Prudential Insurance, Monsanto and Deloitte Consulting are accommodating older workers through consulting contracts and PT assignments (Dierdorff, 1999). With changes taking place in the workforce, employers should consider individual work status preference (Holtom et al., 2002) and organizational needs in order to create a balance between the two, which will lead to higher levels of organizational productivity.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The following chapter presents the methodology for the development and evaluation of the study of the relationship between job involvement and work status for low-income workers. The first section describes the selection of the respondents and the compliance with ethical guidelines. Next, the instruments used in the study and the scoring processes are explained. The last section describes the procedure for data collection and data management.

The research hypotheses were:

H1: Workers employed full-time by choice will show high levels of job involvement.

H2: Workers employed part-time by choice will show high levels of job involvement.

H3: Workers employed full-time and would prefer part-time will show low levels of job involvement.

H4: Workers employed part-time and would prefer full-time will show low levels of job involvement.

This quantitative study examined the relationship between work status congruence and job involvement of low-income workers through a self-administered survey. Data was gathered from a target population, defined as residents of a low-income apartment complex, by means of a questionnaire instrument. A target population is a group of individuals with some common characteristic that can be identified with a list of names (Creswell, 2002). The respondents' data served as the

basis from which the relationship between work status congruence and job involvement was determined.

This study employed the explanatory form of a correlational design. Correlational research examines associations and not causal relationships between variables (Salkind, 2003). An explanatory design is a correlational design conducted at one point in time and the explanation is based on data collected at the moment, and not on past or future data (Creswell, 2002). Creswell (2002) points out that during data analysis of correlational research, all respondents are treated as if they are in a single group.

The statistical test used for this study was a *t*-test for independent means. The *t*-test is commonly used to test the significance of the difference between two means based on two independent, unrelated groups (Salkind, 2003). In this study, the *t*-test determined the difference between workers working their preferred work status and workers who are not working their preferred work status and job involvement.

Respondents

Population

The target population of this study was residents of a low-income housing complex in southwest Florida. Low-income is defined by the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (2004) as an income limit equal to 80 percent of the median family (family of four) income for the area, subject to adjustments for areas with unusually high or low incomes or housing costs. Extremely low-income housing limits equal 30 percent of the median family income for the area subject to the same adjustments. The Southwest Florida Regional Planning Council (2005) identifies

extremely low-income household (family of four) as those whose earning are $15,696, 30 percent of the Area Median Income of $52,319 and low-income households as those whose earnings are $41,855 or 80 percent of the Area Median Income. Incomes are adjusted down or up to match the number of household members. From the literature on housing markets and requirements to be a resident of a HUD housing complex (U. S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, 2005), residents of a HUD low-income housing complex met the household income requirements of this study. In this study, the common defining characteristic was the income level of the participant. Criteria for inclusion in this study were full-time or part-time employment and a resident of the housing complex.

It is important to study the low-income population because between 2002 and 2010 the U.S. Department of Labor expects more than 7.5 million new jobs in the twenty occupations with the most growth (U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2/04). Almost 6 million of those new jobs (accounting for 17 of the 20 largest growth occupations) require job seekers with limited education and provide minimal training -- and are typically identified as low-wage jobs.

Selection of Population

This study was a population study. The larger the response rate, the more accurately the sample represents the population (Creswell, 2002). The target population of this study was the residents of the 200 housing unit complex. With this size, it was possible to look at the selected target population of housing residents and eliminate the need for specific sampling procedures. Each housing unit received a questionnaire. Questionnaire studies reported in leading educational journals cite a

50% or better return rate on mailed questionnaires (Creswell, 2002). Steps were taken to encourage high return rates. First, respondents were pre-notified that they would be receiving a questionnaire. A questionnaire was mailed to each apartment with a pen. A postcard was mail two weeks later thanking those who returned the survey and reminding those who did not that they still had time. A brief , clear instrument was used. To encourage participation, a scratch off lottery ticket was included in the first mailing. Although steps were taken to increase the response rate, the response rate for this study was low (28.5%).

All valid returned questionnaires were used. A valid questionnaire contained answers to sex, age, and work status, along with a completed job involvement survey.

Compliance with Ethical Guidelines

Compliance with the Institutional Review Boards ethical guidelines was followed. The study was anonymous. No names or identifiers were collected on any of the instruments used. A cover letter (Appendix B) was mailed to the respondents informing them that the data would be completely anonymous, and that confidentiality is generally assured when data is collected anonymously. The cover letter included the purpose of the study, use of the results, that participation was voluntary, an explanation of what they would be asked to do, how much time would be involved, and the approximate number of respondents in the study. Respondents were notified that they could decline or discontinue participation at any time without negative consequences. Respondents were notified who was conducting the study, and who would be available to answer questions about the study. Respondents were not told that the criterion needed to participate in the study was employment and a

resident of a HUD housing unit. Since respondents lived in a HUD housing complex, the income criterion was already met.

The respondents' anonymity was maintained. The respondents were identified only in terms of the general location of the housing unit, general demographics of the population, sex, age, and income descriptors.

Instruments

Job Involvement Questionnaire

In job involvement research, two measurement instruments are most used: Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) Job Involvement scale and Kanungo's (1982a, 1982b) Job Involvement Questionnaire. Lodahl and Kejner's JI scale has been used despite known measurement deficiencies such as the lack of a clear correlation with satisfaction, performance and motivation (Ramsey, Lassk, & Marshall, 1995) and conceptual fuzziness (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Paullay et al. (1994) noted the lack of distinction between involvement with the present job and involvement with work in general. Kanungo's (1982a, 1982b) scale measures the individual's cognition about his/her identification with work. According to Kanungo, identification with work depends on both the saliency of needs and the perception the individual has regarding the need-satisfying potentialities of the work (1982a, 1982b).

Reviewers of JI research (e.g., Kanungo, 1979, 1982a, 1982b; Morrow, 1983, 1993; Rabinowitz, Hall, & Goodale, 1977) all agree on the lack of conceptual clarity in the research area. Although the Lodahl & Kejner (1965) scale is the most commonly used measurement scale, there are some conceptual ambiguities inherent in the scale such as the construct validity of "job involvement" (Kanungo, 1979,

1982a, 1982b). Kanungo's (1982a, 1982b) scale, which has also been widely used, was developed to eliminate these ambiguities. The problem has been compounded by the frequently used reduced version of the Lodahl and Kejner (1965) scale without regard to the conceptual meanings that particular items were intended to measure (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). As a result, a large body of empirical findings on JI has been questioned (Brown, 1996).

Elloy, Everett and Flynn (1995) collected data from 387 employees. Their study further examined the relationship between job involvement and individual, situational and work outcome variables. The instrument used was Kanungo's (1982a, 1982b) Job Involvement Questionnaire. The coefficient alpha for job involvement and situational variables was .86, and the coefficient alpha for job involvement and organizational commitment was .91.

Riiphinen (1997) studied job involvement based on need congruence. Respondents were Finish elementary-school teachers and secretaries. Kanungo's (1982a, 1982b) job involvement scale was used to measure job involvements relationship to employee well-being. The reliability coefficient of the scale, measured by alpha, was .86.

Brown (1996) evaluated commonly used scales for JI and stated the following:

> Of the commonly used scales of job involvement, Kanungo's is based on the clearest and most precise conceptualization of the construct. It clearly identifies the core meaning of the construct as a cognitive state of the individual, is not contaminated by items tapping concepts outside of this core

meaning and separates job involvement from antecedent and consequent constructs. (p. 236)

Brown's (1996) meta-analysis identified 212 studies that included 249 independent samples and yielded 781 correlations. Brown corrected each correlation for measurement error by substituting the mean reliabilities from the meta-analyses for each variable. The weighted-mean reliability of the Kanungo (1982a, 1982b) scale was .85.

Kanungo (1982a, 1982b) reported the internal consistency and test-retest reliability of the scale as .87 and .85, respectively (Kanungo, 1982a, 1982b). Criterion validity was illustrated by significant correlations with job satisfaction (Kanungo, 1982a, 1982b). Kanungo's (1982a, 1982b) ten-item measure of job involvement is representative of the conceptualization of job involvement. Kanungo's Job Involvement Questionnaire (JIQ) (see Appendix A) was the instrument used in this study to collect the job involvement data from the respondents.

Congruency Questionnaire

Work status congruence was measured by identifying the respondents' current work status and desired work status (see Appendix A). Respondents were asked to define their current work status and their preferred work status. Respondents circled their current work status and their desired work status that described their current working situation.

Procedure

Data Collection

The data collection process occurred over a four-week period, beginning October 19th and ending November 16th, 2005. Questionnaires were mailed to each respondent's address. No names or identifiers were used on the surveys.

Data was collected via the job involvement questionnaire instrument (Appendix A). One week before the survey mailing, a letter was mailed to all residents of the housing complex. The letter included: (1) an introduction, (2) a notice that they had been selected to participate in a research study, and (3) the purpose of the study. Respondents were told that they would be receiving a questionnaire in approximately one week.

One week later, respondents were mailed a packet that included a cover letter (see Appendix B) explaining the questionnaire and the purpose of the questionnaire, the questionnaire, directions, deadlines, contact numbers, one stamped return envelope, one lottery ticket, and one pen. The cover letter advised each respondent of his or her right to withdraw from the study at anytime. Privacy and confidentiality issues were detailed, assuring respondents anonymity. The respondents were informed to return the questionnaires by November 16, 2005.

Date Management

Data was collected daily and stored in a locked file cabinet. The data was downloaded to a computer hard drive that was password protected and backed up to a removable jump drive to ensure all data would be secure. All hardcopy questionnaires were stored in a waterproof container for easy retrieval. The mailing list and returned

questionnaires were stored in separate places until all responses had been received. At that time, all mailing lists were destroyed in an office paper shredder.

All records relating to the research will be retained for at least five years. All records will remain accessible for IRB inspection. Data will be kept in a locked file in the researcher's office.

Data Analysis

Scoring of Job Involvement Questionnaire

The ten-item scale asked respondents to register their agreement with a series of statements using a seven-point Likert scale of 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Two examples of the statements to be scored are: 1) The most important things that happen to me involve my current job, and 2) I live, eat, and breathe my job. Two of the items on the test were inversely scored because they are negatively phrased. The respondent’s score for each item was entered into the SPSS Windows (Version 11.0). SPSS then calculated the average score for each respondent by summing all scale scored items and then dividing by the number of items answered. SPSS is a statistical package used for social science studies.

Scoring of Congruency Questionnaire

Work status was coded as 1, 2, 3, or 4 depending on the work status checked by the respondents (see Appendix A). Respondents working full-time and preferring full-time were coded as 1. Respondents working part-time and preferring part-time were coded as 3. Respondents in groups 1 and 3 had work status congruence. Respondents working full-time but preferring part-time were coded as 2. Respondents

working part-time but preferring full-time were coded as 4. Respondents in groups 2 and 4 did not have work status congruence.

Respondents in groups 1 and 3 were entered into the SPSS program as a categorical identifier of 1. Respondents in groups 2 and 4 were entered into the SPSS program as a categorical identifier of 2.

Analysis

Data analysis was performed to measure significant relationships between variables by using the SPSS program. All numbers were entered into the work status congruence code field and the Job Involvement Questionnaire field. A mean score was obtained for each group from the responses to the JIQ. The mean scores of the two groups were compared using a *t-test* between independent means (Salkind, 2003). For this study, the two groups were (1) workers with work status congruence, and (2) workers with work status incongruence. The *t* test was conducted to identify any significant differences between the mean scores of the two groups. Statistical significance was determined using a threshold of $p < .05$ and the effect size was determined using Cohen's *d* (1988) calculation. Significance was determined at a 95% confidence level. A two-tailed test was used because no previous studies have been performed to indicate a probable direction for this study, and a two-tailed test is more conservative than a one-tailed test. (Creswell, 2002).

The congruency variable of the study was dichotomous. The dichotomous nature of binary variables allows for the classification of both the X and Y variables into two categories, with separate ns, means, and variances (Chen & Popovich, 2002). By convention, the dichotomous variable is treated as the X variable, its two possible

values being coded as X=1 and X=2; and the non-dichotomous variable is treated as the Y variable.

For this study, work status congruence was treated as the X variable and was scored as 1 (congruent) or 2 (incongruent). The non-dichotomous variable was the mean score on the Job Involvement Questionnaire and was treated as the Y variable. A Cohen's *d* yielding a result of (+ or - .80) or larger is signified as a significant correlation.

A coefficient alpha was computed on the data. The descriptive statistics means was checked to see if they fell within the range of possible values (1 to 2). Two items on the job involvement questionnaire were reverse-scaled. The compute variable function of SPSS allows item numbers to be entered that need to be reverse scaled. After items 2 and 7 were scaled in the appropriate direction, the reliability estimate of the alpha was interpreted. For this study, the coefficient alpha was .93. A reliability coefficient between .8 and 1.0 shows a very strong correlation.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to analyze the relationship of work status congruence and job involvement for low-income workers. A *t* test was conducted to determine if there were significant differences in the mean scores on the job involvement questionnaire for workers with congruent work status versus workers with incongruent work status. First, demographic information about the respondents is reported. Second, work statuses are compared. Third, the mean results of the job involvement questionnaire are examined.

Demographics

The population used in this study consisted of 200 residents of a low-income housing complex in southwest Florida. In total, 59 surveys were returned. Two surveys did not contain responses to the job involvement questionnaire and could not be included. The remaining 57 surveys represented a 28.5% return rate.

Gender

Respondents were asked about their gender and age (see Table 1). The most striking difference among the demographic categories concerned the gender composition of the respondents. Most of the respondents (82.5%) were female.

Age

Respondents were asked to select their appropriate age group. Of the age groups given, no respondents checked age categories of 45-54, 55-64, and 65 and older. Most of the respondents were in the 18-24 (42.1%) to 25-34 (40.4%) age ranges, with 17.5% of the respondents in the 35-44 age range.

Table 1

Respondents' Age Range

			Respondents' Age Range			
			18 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 44	Total
Gender	Female	Count	20	20	7	47
						82.5%
	Male	Count	4	3	3	10
						17.5%
Total		Count	24	23	10	57
			42.1%	40.4%	17.5%	100.0%

There are some noticeable differences in the number female respondents (*n*= 47) versus male respondents (*n*= 10). The percentage within gender for females was the same for age categories 18-24 and 25-34 with both showing 20 respondents. For the males, the percentage within gender was the same for the age categories 25-34 and 35-44 with both showing 3 respondents.

Work Status

Current work status. Respondents identified their current work status as full-time or part-time. The results are shown in Table 2. The numbers of respondents working full-time and part-time were almost evenly distributed. Of the total male respondents (*n*= 10), a slightly higher percentage of males reported full-time work status (*n*= 6) as compared to the total female respondents (*n*= 47) reporting full-time work status (*n*= 26).

Table 2

Work Status by Gender

			Gender		
			Female	Male	Total
Work Status	full-time wants full-time	Count	26	6	32
		% of Total	45.6%	10.5%	56.1%
	part-time wants part-time	Count	3	1	4
		% of Total	5.3%	1.8%	7.0%
	part-time wants full-time	Count	18	3	21
		% of Total	31.6%	5.3%	36.8%
Total		Count	47	10	57
		% of Total	82.5%	17.5%	100.0%

Congruent versus incongruent work status. Put into percentages, 60% of male respondents reported full-time work status compared to 55% of female respondents reporting full-time work status. Females were almost evenly divided between full-time and part-time work status (full-time *n*= 26, part-time *n*= 21).

Respondents were categorized according to current work status and desired work status (Table 3). Four selections were given to determine work status congruence. Respondents selecting “I work part-time and I prefer to work part-time” or “I work full-time and I prefer to work full-time” were placed into category 1 (*n*= 36) labeled “congruent work status.”

Full-time workers are those employed for a certain number of hours (usually over 35) with benefits such as insurance and/or retirement (U.S. Department of

Housing and Urban Development, 2005). Part-time worker are those employed fewer than 35 hours (U.S. Department of Labor).

Table 3

Congruent Status

			Gender		
			Female	Male	Total
Congruent Status	Work Status is Congruent	Count	29	7	36
		% within Congruent Status	80.6%	19.4%	100.0%
		% of Total	50.9%	12.3%	63.2%
	Work Status is Not Congruent	Count	18	3	21
		% within Congruent Status	85.7%	14.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	31.6%	5.3%	36.8%
Total		Count	47	10	57
		% within Congruent Status	82.5%	17.5%	100.0%
		% of Total	82.5%	17.5%	100.0%

Respondents selecting “I work part-time but I prefer to work full-time” do not have work status congruence. These respondents were placed into category 2 (*n*= 21) labeled “incongruent work status.” No respondents selected “I work full-time but I prefer to work part-time.”

Almost two-thirds (63.2%) of the respondents reported work status congruence. Respondents reporting incongruent work status totaled over one-third (36.8%). The incongruent work status was largely female (85.7%) with a low percentage of males (14.3%) reporting incongruent work status.

Differences in Job Involvement

Four hypotheses were constructed to address the two research questions: (1) Do low-income workers who work their preferred number of hours have higher job involvement than workers who do not work their preferred hours? (2) Do low-income workers who do not work their preferred hours have lower job involvement than workers who do work their preferred number of hours?

An independent *t* test was conducted to evaluate the hypotheses that workers with work status congruence will have statistically higher job involvement as opposed to workers who have incongruent work status. The job involvement scale scores were entered into SPSS. Two items (number 2 and 7) had to be reverse scored. To test for internal consistency, a reliability analysis was performed on SPSS. For this study the reliability coefficient of the job involvement scale measured by alpha was .93. A reliability coefficient in the range of .6 or higher is considered acceptable (Thorndike, 1997).

The SPSS split file option was used to analyze within group data for the means of each sub-group (Table 4). The means for the two sub-groups (FT/FT and PT/PT) within the work status congruent group were combined to report the total mean score for the work status congruent group. The standard deviations for the incongruent (SD= .89) and congruent (SD= .90) groups were almost the same. The same is true for the mean scores for the congruent sub-groups with FT/FT reporting a mean score of 5.3 and PT/PT reporting a mean score of 5.2.

Table 4

Congruent Status and Job Involvement Questionnaire (JIQ)

	Congruent Status	Work Status	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
JIQ	Work Status is Congruent	full-time wants full-time	5.3563	32	.95645
		part-time wants part-time	5.2250	4	.15000
		Total	5.3417	36	.90218
	Work Status is Not Congruent	part-time wants full-time	3.6286	21	.88834
		Total	3.6286	21	.88834

Job Involvement for Congruent Group

Workers working full-time and preferring full-time and workers working part-time and preferring part-time were placed into the category of workers with work status congruence. Hypotheses 1 and 2 incorporated these two groups of workers.

Hypothesis 1: Workers employed full-time by choice will show high levels of job involvement. Hypothesis 2: Workers employed part-time by choice will show high levels of job involvement. As predicted, workers with work status congruence (*n*= 36) reported higher job involvement (M = 5.3, SD= .90) than did workers with incongruent (*n*= 21) work status (M = 3.6, SD= .89). A *t* test was performed to determine if the differences between the means of the two groups was significant. The results ($t(55)= 6.95$, $p = <.001$) showed a significant difference between the two groups.

Although the number of respondents in the FT/FT sub-group (*n*= 32) was much larger than the respondents in the PT/PT sub-group (*n*= 4), there was very little variance (.2) between the mean scores for both sub-groups. The mean score for the FT/FT sub-group (M= 5.4) was slightly higher than the mean score for the PT/PT

sub-group (M= 5.2). This means that although the number of respondents in the sub-groups varied greatly (*n*= 32 versus *n*= 4), the overall mean scores reported on the JIQ for the sub-groups were very much in line with each other.

However, the standard deviation for the FT/FT (SD = .96) sub-group, compared to the PT/PT sub-group standard deviation (SD = .15), shows that the range of scores (see Table 5) for the PT/PT sub-group (range = 5.10 to 5.4) was closer than the range of scores for the FT/FT sub-group (range 2.3 to 6.9). In other words, the respondents for the PT/PT sub-group reported almost the same job involvement compared to the more spread out scores for the respondents in the FT/FT sub-group.

Table 5

JIQ Ranges and Congruent Status

	Congruent Status	Work Status	Minimum	Maximum	Range
JIQ	Work Status is Congruent	full-time wants full-time	2.40	6.90	4.50
		part-time wants part-time	5.10	5.40	.30
		Total	2.40	6.90	4.50
	Work Status is Not Congruent	part-time wants full-time	1.50	4.70	3.20
		Total	1.50	4.70	3.20

At a 95% confidence level, the difference between the congruent group and the incongruent group was significant, $t(55)= 6.95$, $p = <.001$.

Job Involvement for Incongruent Group

Workers working full-time and preferring part-time and workers working part-time and preferring full-time were placed into the category of workers with work status incongruence. Hypotheses 3 and 4 incorporated these two groups of workers.

Hypothesis 3: Workers employed full-time and would prefer part-time will show low levels of job involvement. Hypothesis 4: Workers employed part-time and

would prefer full-time will show low levels of job involvement. Of the four work status possibilities, no respondents selected “I work full-time but I prefer to work part-time.” Because no respondents selected this work status, all of the workers in the incongruent work status group were part-time workers wanting full-time. Possible reasons for this are discussed in Chapter V.

The number of respondents for the incongruent group (*n*= 21) was smaller than the number of respondents for the congruent group (*n*= 36). The range of scores for the incongruent group (range = 1.50 to 4.70) was lower than either the FT/FT or PT/PT group (see Table 5).

The means and standard deviations for each group (congruent and incongruent) are presented in Table 3. The standard deviation (SD = .90) for the congruent group (FT/FT plus PT/PT) was very much aligned with the standard deviation (SD = .89) for the incongruent group. The standard deviation offers an indication of the dispersion or spread of the data for the two groups.

In support of hypotheses 1 and 2, job involvement was found to be higher for workers with work status congruence than workers with incongruent work status. In support of hypothesis 3 and hypothesis 4, workers with incongruent work status were found to have lower job involvement than workers with congruent work status. However, no respondent selected FT/PT so the assumption that workers in that group would have responded the same as the PT/FT group cannot be determined through this study. This study grouped all incongruent workers into one categorical group and looked at the category, not the individual work status choices.

For job involvement, as predicted, workers with incongruent work status (M = 3.6, SD= .89) reported lower job involvement than workers with congruent work status (M = 5.3, SD= .90.) The upper and lower ranges for the 95% confidence interval of the difference were 2.20 and 1.22, respectively.

The difference between the two groups' mean job involvement scores was 5.3 and 3.6 in raw score units and from .90 to .89 in standardized units. At an alpha of .05, the analysis indicated a statistically significant difference between the groups. The effect of work status congruence on job involvement was significant, $t(55)= 6.95$, $p = <.001$. The effect size ($d= 1.91$) was determined using Cohen's *d.* An effect size of 0.8 is considered to be a large effect size (Cohen, 1988).

Summary of Results

This section reported findings produced by the *t* test for differences in the means of the job involvement questionnaire scores for workers with congruent work status and workers with incongruent work status. The respondents were placed into congruent or incongruent groups according to work status choices. The full-time wanting full-time and the part-time wanting part-time were placed into a categorical grouping of 1. The part-time wanting full-time and the full-time wanting part-time were placed into a categorical grouping of 2.

At a 95% confidence level, the difference between the means of the combined congruent groups (full-time wanting full-time and part-time wanting part-time) and the incongruent groups (part-time wanting full-time and full-time wanting part-time) was significant, $t(55)= 6.95$, $p = <.001$.

The workers with congruent work status expressed a higher level of job involvement as evidenced by the results of the *t* test. A *t* test for the difference between the means of congruent workers and incongruent workers was statistically significant.

The descriptive data reflected a disproportionate number of females in both categories. The number of female respondents was greater than male respondents. The females expressed greater overall job satisfaction in all areas than did their male counterparts. Possible reasons for gender differences and demographics will be given in the next chapter. In the final chapter, the interpretation and implications for this study are presented along with the contributions to the field of HRD. Suggestions for future research are also offered.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This study attempted to advance understanding of the effect of changes in staffing strategies on individual job involvement by adopting Nadler and Tushman's (1997) congruency model to guide hypothesis formation. From the congruency model, it was hypothesized that workers whose work status was congruent with their preferred work status would have higher levels of job involvement. The results of this study support the hypothesis that individuals working their preferred status (part-time or full-time) have statistically higher ($p < .001$) job involvement than individuals not working their preferred status. The findings of this study cannot be generalized to populations other than low-income housing complexes in Southwest Florida.

Interpretations

Armstrong-Stassen et al.'s (1998) study found incongruent work status was related to greater dissatisfaction with various aspects of jobs, higher levels of emotional exhaustion and a greater intent to leave. Morrow, McElroy and Elliott's (1994) study had almost the same results as Armstrong-Stassen et al.'s study. Morrow, McElroy and Elliott's survey results changed when work status congruence regarding schedule and shift were taken into account. Employees who received their work preferences exhibited significantly more favorable attitudes on five of nine work-related attitudinal measures.

This study supported Armstrong-Stassen et al.'s (1998) and Morrow, McElroy, and Elliott's (1994) findings in that workers whose work status matched

their desired work status reported higher work-related attitudes. For this study, the job related attitude measured was job involvement.

It is difficult to compare the results of the job involvement questionnaire from this study to other studies. Kanungo's (1982a, 1982b) job involvement questionnaire is not the only instrument used to measure job involvement. Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) 20-item scale and Saleh and Hosek's (1976) multidimensional scale of job involvement have been around longer than Kanungo's questionnaire. Other studies that did use Kanungo's questionnaire either reported the seven-point scale results in correlational data with other measures (Leong, Huang & Hsu, 2003), or on a Likert scale of 1-5 (Blau, 1987; Riipinen, 1997) or a Likert scale of 1-6 (Nyambergera, Daniels & Sparrow, 2001).

Role of Staffing in HRD

The purpose of this study was to fill a void in the work status and job involvement research by focusing on the relationship between work status and job involvement for low-income workers. The work status of an individual is determined by the organization through staffing practices. However, staffing practices are more than a function of the organization. "Staffing" itself can be viewed as a process of the organization.

Staffing as a Process

Staffing as a process would address the personnel needs and how those needs fit into the overall effectiveness of the organization. In Chapter II, the evolution of staffing practices from traditional to nontraditional was discussed. The process of staffing evolved from hiring 9 to 5 workers to incorporating a range of nontraditional

workers to include full-time part-time (working 40 hours or more but only part of the year), part-time part-time (working less than 40 hours and less than the full year), seasonal (during peak times), contingent, etc.

Implementing the nontraditional staffing practices, as noted in Chapter II, came about through organizational changes. Current terminology of "nontraditional" staffing practices implicates a change from normal staffing practices. This study has looked at the changes in staffing practices implemented by changes within the organization and how those changes may have affected the individual worker. In other words, looking at staffing as a process of HRD and how that process may have had an impact on the job involvement of the employees.

Organizational Planning

HRD is involved in the staffing policies and practices utilized in today's organizations. Schwartz (1991) advocates that organizations should plan for the unknown future and have a system in place for individuals and the organization. Torraco & Swanson (1995) emphasized the importance of HRD actively participating in the organizational planning process.

Organizational Planning and Staffing Needs

It is at the organizational development (OD) level of HRD that the staffing needs of the organization are determined (Swanson & Holton, 2001). Those needs are met by hiring full-time or part-time workers. In effect, the worker's work status is determined by the needs of the organization. The needs of the organization may not be the needs of the workers. Applying the congruency model, if the needs of the

organization and the needs of the workers are not balanced, the results are workers with incongruent work status.

Organizational Planning and Worker Needs

Part-time Wants Full-Time. Because of the implementation of nontraditional staffing practices, some employees are finding it difficult to find employment that meets the individual's needs. The unemployment figures for January 2006 reported there were 2.4 million workers employed part-time because they could not find full-time employment (BLS, 2006). Those types of workers are evident in this study by respondents who selected "I work part-time but I prefer full-time." Thirty-seven percent of the respondents in this study stated they were currently employed in a part-time position but preferred full-time work. This means that there is a large population of workers who are not working their preferred work status.

To these respondents, their needs are not being met by their current work status. This study did not address why those respondents could not find full-time jobs. Two possible reasons may be that the opportunity for a full-time job is not available through the hiring organization, or the skills of the participant did not meet the requirements of a full-time position. As discussed earlier, whether these workers are full-time residents of the area is also not know. Many residents in the Southwest Florida area have been forced to relocate because of the hurricane situation. This may be another factor of why these workers cannot find full-time work.

Males working part-time but preferring to work full-time reported the lowest job involvement scores. The number of respondents in each group could partly explain the low scores. Less than 20% of the respondents were male. One explanation

that may account for the low male response rate for this study is that the working population in Florida for the period of 2003-2004 consisted of 16.43% low wage male workers and 23.39% low wage female workers, meaning more females are likely to be low-wage earners (Nissen & Borum, 2005).

Part-time Wants Part-time. An assumption of this study is that respondents who selected "I work part-time and I prefer to work part-time" answered truthfully. People choose part-time jobs for a variety of reasons. Nardone (1995), of the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, reports that nearly two-thirds of women 25 to 54 years of age who usually work part-time, and who constitute the bulk of the part-time workforce, were raising children, while three-fourths of the young people working part-time were enrolled in school.

The female respondents in this study were all between the ages of 25-35, which is the lower end of the age bracket for most of the part-time work force. The fact that most part-time workers are female may account for one reason for the low number of male respondents in this category. Part-time work may offer the only way workers can balance competing job and family demands. Since women typically are responsible for child and elder care, it is not surprising that they account for approximately two-thirds of the part-time workforce (BLS 2001). The respondent in this study may have child and/or elder care responsibilities or may be students. Future research is needed to investigate why low-income workers hold part-time positions.

These findings do not support Thorsteinson's (2003) findings. Thorsteinson's results found part-time workers to be less involved with their job than full-time

workers. Thorsteinson gave one possible explanation for the difference, that is, that part-time workers might have chosen part-time work so they could be less involved. For this study, the part-time workers reporting low job involvement are also the workers preferring to work full-time. Because they did not prefer part-time, the low job involvement cannot be attributed to wanting to work part-time to be less involved.

The group of workers in this study who reported working part-time by choice did not report low job involvement. Although the number (n =4) of part-time workers wanting part-time for this study was small, the respondents in this category all reported high job involvement as shown in the range of scores for the sub-group (5.1 to 5.4).

Differences in Part-time and Full-time Workers

Another possible cause for the lower job involvement for part-time wanting full-time workers in this study is that part-time workers and full-time workers differ on a variety of demographic characteristics. The dissimilarities found between the part-time workers and full-time workers may result from differences due to the characteristics of people who hold part-time or full-time positions (Nardone, 1995). Some of those dissimilarities are age, gender, household make-up, and household occupancy.

Housing

For this study, the household type is known to be a constant for this population. All respondents reside in a low-income housing complex. What is not known is how long the respondents have resided in the housing complex, if the residence is a transition residence, or if the residence is a temporary situation due to

relocation of employment as in the building and farming industries. Another consideration is the relocation of families throughout Southwest Florida in the last two years because of destruction caused by hurricanes. Some of the respondents may have been victims of a natural disaster.

Household Occupancy

Household occupancy is unknown. Respondents were not required to give the number or ages of other occupants in the home. Therefore, the number of respondents who are in the category of single parent is unknown. Additional research and theoretical development are needed to support differences in full-time and part-time workers based on demographic characteristics.

Work Status and Gender

When women choose part-time jobs, they face a limited set of employment options. The industries in which part-time workers are most likely to be employed are also the lowest paying and often lowest skilled (Hirsh, 2000). Wage may account for the low number of female respondents (*n*= 3) selecting part-time as a preference.

For men, part-time work presents a very different picture. Nearly 70% of men employed part-time would prefer regular, full-time employment (BLS, 2001). They usually accept these jobs because full-time work is unavailable (General Accounting Office, 2000). In this study, only one male reported a preference for part-time work while three reported working part-time but preferring full-time.

Job Involvement and Work Status Congruence

The theoretical frameworks that informed this study were: (a) work commitment, and (b) congruency. The specific work commitment construct that was

studied was job involvement. The importance of job involvement for the overall effectiveness of the organization was discussed in Chapter II along with the antecedents and correlates of job involvement.

For this study, males in all three groups (full-time/full-time, part-time/ part-time, and part-time wanting full-time) reported lower job involvement than did the females. Two possible reasons can be given for the low participation of males for this study in addition to the gender representation discussed earlier. Firstly, the proportion of males to females within the apartment complex is unknown. The returned surveys may be a correct representation of the percentages residing within the complex. Secondly, the deficite could be an inadvertent prestige bias of the male worker resulting in non-participation in the study. However, there is no known evidence that substantiate such findings.

Congruency Model

In applying Nadler and Tushman's (1997) congruency model to this study, the model itself needs to be understood. The model is based on informal organization, formal organization, work, and people. The basic hypothesis is that other things being equal, the greater the degree of congruence between components of an organization, the more effective the organization will be.

Informal Organization

The informal organization includes the values, beliefs and norms of the individuals who work for the organization. Job involvement is a belief held by the individuals. The question asked at this stage is, "How are individual needs met by the informal organization?" The hypotheses in this study addressed that question.

Basically, are individual preferences for work status (full-time or part-time) being met by the organization?

Work

Four work status selections were given to the respondents to determine if individual needs were being met, which in turn, determined work status congruence. In this particular study, no respondents selected “I work full-time but I prefer to work part-time.” This option has been included in other studies and an omission from this study would show a bias against low-income workers. In other words, omitting the selection would be assuming that no low-income worker with a full-time position would want to work part-time. Research does not support that assumption.

People

The individual (people) is the last component in the congruency model. In order for the organizational model to work proficiently and to its fullest capacity, organizational changes should be designed with people in mind. Changes in staffing practices are an organizational change. The question asked at this stage is, “How are individual needs met by the organizational arrangement?” Staffing strategies was the organizational arrangement in this study. Workers of this study identified their needs of full-time or part-time and whether those needs were met by the hiring organization.

Implications for Theory

Job involvement affects the organization and the individual. Job involvement has been considered to be the key to employee motivation (Lawler, 1986), and an essential foundation for establishing a competitive advantage (Lawler, 1992). Job involvement is a belief illustrative of the current job and tends to be a function of how

much the job can satisfy one's present needs (Kanungo, 1982a, 1982b). "When the work experience is more fulfilling to the individual, the results are increased productivity and organizational effectiveness" (Brown, 1996, p.235). It is through organizational effectiveness that job involvement and HRD are connected. For this study, the individual need being assessed was work status. Work status is a function of staffing under the guidelines of HRD. The goal of HRD's OD role is to make improvements and changes that lead to organizational effectiveness (Cummings & Worley 2001).

The Nadler and Tushman's (1997) congruency model was used as the theoretical framework for this study. The basic idea of the congruency model is that all parts of the organization must work together for the organization to be as effective as it can be and maintain the highest levels of output. Adding "staffing" to the "strategy" arrow of Nadler and Tushman's model only defines the role of HRD within the total organization structure. The three components of the model 1) information organization, 2) work, and 3) people, when viewed through the role of HRD, simply becomes a rethinking of the organizational design by defining work demands and by focusing on individual staffing needs.

Following the structure of the congruency model as defined by Nadler and Tushman (1997), when all of the parts of the organization work together, the organization becomes effective and productive. In applying the role of HRD to the organization, the organizational staffing strategies should define the work demands by focusing on individual and organizational needs so that the parts of the organization can work together to become effective and productive.

Taken as a whole, the findings, combined with the growing body of literature on staffing strategies, suggest that organizations need to consider employees' work status preferences for several reasons. Firstly, the findings of this study that link work status preferences of low-income workers to individual job involvement should indicate a need to address staffing since job involvement impacts organizational effectiveness and productivity. Even though this is a small step to larger findings, it is still a beginning step that can be used when looking at other low-income groups in Southwest Florida. Other studies have found implementing employee staffing preferences are likely to lead to more satisfied employees, increased performance and less voluntary turnover (Deery & Mahony, 1994; Jackofsky, Salter, & Peters, 1986; Walsh & Deery, 1999).

Implications for Practice

The literature review suggests the effects that changes in staffing strategies have had on individuals in the workforce. These staffing changes have been implemented to meet the demands of a globalized economy. HRD professionals in the Southwest Florida area should become familiar with the trends and challenges unique to this area in terms of tourism, the growing building industry, and increasing populations from other countries. The 21st century workplace is changing and a system is needed to train and retain workers to meet future demands. This change may require organizations to make policy changes. One suggestion would be to develop strategies to match the job with the individual worker preferences. This may result in more job involvement of the individual. HRD professionals may want to look at interventions that may increase the low-income employees' job involvement

by making the employee feel their needs are being met by the organization. Possibly rotating work hours or shifts so more employees have the opportunity to work their preferred hours or shifts may also improve employee job involvement.

According to a U.S. Department of Labor report ("Futurework Trends," 2000), "nearly four out of five employers, in establishments of all sizes and in all industries, use some form of nontraditional staffing" (p.36). In the same report, it was noted that by 2008, nearly 40% of the workforce would require some type of on-the-job training, and that the majority of the jobs being created in the future require knowledge in basic reading, communication and mathematics skills. This means that organizations will have to train some employees on basic skills before job training can proceed. The implications for the second realm of focus within HRD, personnel training and development, are numerous. HRD departments will have to identify entry worker's skills and have a training to close the knowledge gap of the new employees. This will only increase the amount of training dollars needed to replace employees choosing to leave the organization. The added expense of training dollars needed should make retention of trained employees a greater priority.

Implications for Future Research

This is only a single test of the hypotheses discussed earlier. The present study needs to be replicated in other settings with a wider range of low-income workers with more variables such as housing data (how long at the residence, is it a temporary or permanent situation), household occupancy (number of household members), types of job held (seasonal or year-round, working part-time year round or part-time for

part of the year). In addition, one-on-one interviews would give more of an in-site into possibly other factors that might be affected by lack of work status congruence within the low-income worker population. Some factors that could be studied are: absenteeism, turnover, intent to leave, or motivation.

Also, the question of why low-income workers would want to have a part-time job needs to be addressed. Low-income workers are a growing part of future jobs and more so in Southwest Florida because of the large tourism industry and the growing population.

In this study, work status was operationalized as full-time and part-time. Temporary versus permanent status may also be critically important. Future research on work status should incorporate permanent and temporary measures in addition to full-time and part-time.

It is important to restate that for the Southwest Florida area, many professionals fall into the category of low-income. However, the focus of this study was staffing changes. Many of the low-income workers holding professional positions such as teachers, law enforcement officials, and nurses, already know the schedule demands of the job. Future research using those professions, and professions like those, would not address staffing changes.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations of the present study should be noted. First, all of the data are self-reporting in nature. It is possible that only respondents with higher levels of job involvement completed and returned the survey.

Second, the range of respondents was also limited by the fact that the population consisted of residents of one housing complex. The information gained may or may not be representative of other low-income housing units.

Third, prestige bias may be present in the study. Prestige bias is a correlation between a person's prestige in a culture and his/her success in aspects of life that are important in that culture. This means that a person may respond to questions in a questionnaire in a manner that he/she believes to be acceptable by high prestige people (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001). Prestige bias may be present in this study. For example, the respondents may have not selected "I work full-time but I prefer to work part-time" because of the possible negative implications their choice may have on what would be considered socially acceptable. However, the respondents were not told they had to meet the criteria of low-income to be selected for this study and that low-income was determined by being a resident of a HUD housing complex.

Biases in the completion of the questionnaire itself may also be a factor. The questionnaire utilized in this study has been used since 1982 (Kanungo, 1982a, 1982b) and the reliability of the questionnaire has been established though many studies. Two strategies were adopted to reduce the prestige biases of the respondents.

The first strategy was a promise of confidentiality. Although a promise of confidentiality is given as one means to reduce prestige biases, Singer, Hippler and Schwarz (1992) found a higher level of willingness (42%) to cooperate in a mail survey when no assurance of confidentiality was given compared to the condition when an "elaborate" confidentiality assurance was given (22%). For this study, a confidentiality assurance was given and the response rate was 28.5%, which is line

with the 22% reported by Singer, et al. (1992) for “elaborate” confidentiality assurance.

Another strategy that was taken to reduce prestige bias was to distance the researcher from the respondent by choice of data collection procedure (self completion questionnaire rather than administered). Nancarrow & Brace (2000) noted that the use of less personal methods might be appropriate when dealing with socially desirable behavior. Personal methods would be the contact the participant had with the researcher (face-to-face, phone, mail survey). The least personal method would be the mailed survey. This study was a mailed questionnaire and the researcher had no contact with the respondents.

In addition, the findings of this study are limited in generalizability because they are derived from only one apartment unit in Southwest Florida. Self-assessment data may suffer from biases such as prestige bias. Despite these caveats, the author believes the data to be an accurate refection of work status based on consistency with previous studies.

Even though the findings of this study cannot be generalized to other populations other than low-income housing units in Southwest Florida, that does not change the significance of this study. With all of the limitations noted, and the prestige bias that might exist, the significance between job involvement for workers with work status congruence and workers without work status congruence is still significant.

Contributions

The present study provided partial support for the predictions offered by Holtom, Lee and Tidd (2002) that congruence between worker preferences and organizational staffing practices would be associated with positive employee attitudes. This study adds to the knowledge that work status is a potentially important determinant of individual job involvement.

This study was an attempt to survey a population of low-income workers and gather data on individual job involvement. The results of the study supported the hypotheses that workers with work status congruence would have higher job involvement than workers with incongruent work status. Since the largest growth in the future job market will be low-income jobs, it is important for HRD professionals to understand the impact of staffing strategies on individual workers. HRD professionals should use the knowledge gained from this study, along with other studies, to gain a better understanding of the impact of staffing strategies on the low-income worker.

Conclusions

The theoretical frameworks that informed this study were: (a) work commitment, and (b) congruency. The specific work commitment construct that was studied was job involvement. The importance of job involvement for the overall effectiveness of the organization has been discussed earlier in this chapter. The antecedents and correlates of job involvement were discussed in full detail in Chapter II.

In this study, 37% of the respondents were not able to have or find full-time work. Even though the reasons for not having a full-time job were not given, the fact that 37% wanted full-time work and could not obtain full-time work is note worthy. Even though this study cannot be generalized to other populations it would seem that there is a need to take steps to find employment for workers willing to work. Part of HRD is the training component. As discussed earlier, a training component is necessary if the reason workers cannot find full-time work is because the worker is under-skilled.

Assumptions cannot be made of the respondents in this study based on income. In Southwest Florida, a family of four with a household income of less than $41,000.00 is considered low-income. Southwest Florida has a growing population of retired workers and workers in the service industries because of the vacation attraction of the area. Many members from both of these groups of workers fall into the low-income category. Care should be taken in the negative connotation and assumptions given to the term “low-income.” One assumption is that no low-income workers working full-time would want to work part-time.

With all of the working groups that fall into the low-income bracket in Southwest Florida, it is hoped that this study will stimulate interest in further studies, which do not solely rely on part-time and full-time categories as identifiers. A wider variety of personal data, environmental factors, and employment options need to be considered. Given consistently significant results which indicate that working one’s preferred schedule produces more positive work-related attitudes, HRD personnel need to identify a plan by which work-related attitudes can be positively managed

especially with forecasts of increased low-income jobs and demographically induced labor shortages in the future job markets (McGinnis & Morrow, 1990). The understanding of low-income workers and effective staffing strategies will become important for organizational competitiveness and possible survival.

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APPENDIX A (SIDE 1)

Work Status Questionnaire

Thank you for participating in this survey.

Please check your sex:

1. _____Male _____Female

Please check your age bracket:

2. ____ 18- 24
3. ____ 25- 34
4. ____ 35- 44
5. ____ 45- 54
6. ____ 55- 64
7. ____ 65 or older

Full-time workers, please check which status applies to you.

8. I work full-time **AND** I prefer to work full-time. _____

9. I work full-time **BUT** I prefer to work part-time. _____

Part-time workers, please check which status applies to you.

10. I work part-time **AND** I prefer to work part-time. _____

11. I work part-time **BUT** I prefer to work full-time. _____

Please answer the questions on the back of this page. DO NOT sign the forms.

Please return the completed survey in the enclosed stamped envelope.

APPENDIX A (SIDE 2)

Job Involvement Questionnaire

Please respond to each of the following questions. Your participation in this study is very important to the success of the study and is greatly appreciated.

Using the scale below, please circle the number that best reflects your evaluation of your **current** job.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

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

APPENDIX B

Dear Research Participant:

Your participation in a research project is requested. The title of the study is *The Effect of Changes in Staffing Strategies on Employee Job Involvement*. The research is being conducted by Carol Cron, a student in the Education department at Barry University, and is seeking information that will be useful in the field of Human Resource and Development. The purpose of this study is to see if employees who work their desired number of hours will have the same amount of job involvement as employees who do not work their desired number of hours.

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to complete a Job Involvement Questionnaire that consists of 10 items. You will be asked to circle the number that best identifies your feelings about your current job. It is estimated that the time required to complete the survey is 10 to 15 minutes. We anticipate the number of participants to be approximately 200.

Your consent to be a research participant is strictly voluntary and should you decline to participate or should you choose to drop out at any time during the study, there will be no adverse effects.

There are no known risks to you for participating in this study. Although there are no direct benefits to you, your participation in this study may help our understanding of the relationship of work status and individual job involvement.

As a research participant, information you provide will be kept anonymous, that is, no names or other identifiers will be collected on any of the instruments used. Data will be kept in a locked file in the researcher's office. By completing and returning this survey you have shown your agreement to participate in the study.

Enclosed is the survey to complete. It is a two-sided survey. Please complete both sides. A pen is also enclosed for your convenience. The scratch-off lottery that is enclosed is yours even if you decide not to participate in the survey.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding the study or your participation in the study, you may contact me, Carol Cron, at (239) 945-3301, my supervisor, Dr. Wang, at (1866)-936-6877, or the Institutional Review Board point of contact, Dr. Doreen. Parkhurst, at (305) 899-4065.

Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,