

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Employment and motherhood

In Lerner and Loewe's musical "My Fair Lady" (1956), (based on Bernard Shaw's play "Pygmalion" (1913)), Professor Higgins asks: "Why can't a woman be more like a man?" Many researchers in the 1980's in the field of the career psychology of women, appear to have shared Professor Higgins's sentiments. Their articles on this subject suggest that if only women could be more like men in terms of their attitude towards paid employment and commitment to full-time, uninterrupted careers, emancipation, equality with men, and possibly also self-actualization would follow. To achieve these objectives women would however have to overcome two major stumbling blocks to career advancement: marriage and motherhood. For example Russo (1979) stated that society's definition of good motherhood does not allow a woman to choose the multiple-role life style, mother and worker, without experiencing feelings of guilt and without risking being ostracized by family and peers. Consequently, Russo (1979) suggested that the legitimate option of voluntary childlessness be

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ABSTRACT

This Study examined the relationship between work status, job satisfaction, parental satisfaction, self-esteem and life satisfaction. The sample comprised 101 White South African nurses living in an urban area. They were all married and had at least one child under 13 years of age living at home. Forty of the nurses were employed full-time, 29 part-time and 32 nurses were housewives. The three groups of nurses were compared on their scores from the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Warr, Cook and Wall, 1979), the Cleminshaw-Guidibaldi Parent Satisfaction Scale (Cleminshaw and Guidibaldi, 1980), the Index of Self-esteem (Hudson, 1982) and the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire (Warr, Cook and Wall, 1979). The only significant difference found between the three groups' mean scores on these four scales, was between the "Full-time" group and the "Housewife" group on the Parental Satisfaction Scale on which the "Housewives" scored significantly higher than the "Full-timers". Results indicated that the majority of the women in the sample preferred part-time work to full-time work or to being a housewife. It was also found that over half the subjects were not satisfied with their present work status and that long working hours had a negative relationship with parental satisfaction, satisfaction with work status and life satisfaction.

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DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation is my own, unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Arts at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University.

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**PART-TIME WORK, MOTHERHOOD AND
ACCUMULATED ROLE SATISFACTION :
A STUDY OF WHITE SOUTH AFRICAN NURSES**

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2.2 Work motivation

2.2.1 Equal but different

Rosen (1989) conducted a three-nation study of adolescent boys and girls in the United States, Britain and Italy. He found that, on the average, the boys and girls in his sample had similar competencies and achievements, values and perceptions as well as similar educational and occupational expectations. The girls in his sample performed as well as boys in school and engaged in as many extra mural activities. The girls enjoyed levels of self-esteem on a par with the boys in the sample and responded to threats to their interests with equal degrees of hostility. Rosen (1989) also found that assertive and active responses to personal and situational challenges were as common among the girls as among the boys. Judging from Rosen's (1989) findings one could easily assume that career theory originally developed on the basis of male samples should apply equally well to women's careers and career motivation. Statistics and research (Van der Walt, 1984; White, Cox and Cooper, 1992) however tell a different story. So what changes the adolescent girl's expectations and career motivation in adulthood? Motherhood does. "Being a parent has a major impact on labour force participation for women but little effect on men. In Britain only 9 percent of women with children under five work full-time" (Arber and Gilbert, 1992, p 3)

It is clear from the table that women have increased their proportion of labour market participation relative to men over the past four years. The 1995 figures are comparable with those of Britain, the United States and France where women also make up approximately 40 % of the labour force (Arber and Gilbert, 1992).

According to Van der Walt (1984) 55 % of all working women in South Africa in the early 1980's were engaged in four traditionally female occupations: nursing, teaching and clerical or sales work. Ninety four percent of all nursing staff were women and 48 % of all teachers, 56 % of all clerical workers and 45 % of all sales staff were women. This is not a phenomenon unique to the South African labour market. There is in fact a fairly clear segmentation of the labour market in most Western countries. For example in Britain 70 % of all working women work in lower-level clerical and service-sector jobs and over 40 % of women work in jobs where they have no male colleagues (White, Cox and Cooper, 1992). Whereas the sex stereotyping of the socialisation process of girls as well as the sex stereotyping of certain careers will have a definite influence on the segmentation of the labour market, it is also important to note that many women in trying to combine family and career tend to choose sex stereotyped occupations that allow for easy entry and exit from the worker role (Osipow, 1983).

- i) those young females who were still at school or other training institutions were included in the 16-19 age group and classified as "not economically active";
- ii) many women in South Africa are able, in terms of their employment conditions, to retire at 60 years of age.

Approximately 70% of all Coloured and White women in the 20-34 year age group are economically active. This is also the age group which is normally characterized as being the "childbearing and rearing" stage of their lives, which suggests that these women make up a large proportion of the total labour force, as shown in Table 2:

TABLE 2								
Proportion of economically active males and females per population group based on the Central Statistical Service's population census carried out in 1991 and 1995 respectively								
	BLACK		WHITE		COLOURED		ASIAN	
	1991	1995	1991	1995	1991	1995	1991	1995
Male	61%	55%	61%	59%	57%	55%	68%	65%
Female	39%	45%	39%	41%	43%	45%	32%	35%

as being 32 % for Black women, 33 % for White women, 38 % for Coloured women, and 26 % for Asian women in 1986 (Erwee, 1986). According to the South Africa's Central Statistical Service's employment figures for 1991¹⁶, 48 % of all Black women in the 16-64 age group were economically active, whereas the figures for White, Coloured and Asian women were 55 %, 56 % and 38 % respectively. Women's participation in the labour force varied considerably between different age groups as can be seen in Table 1.

TABLE 1						
Economically active females per population and age group based on the Central Statistical Service's population census carried out in 1991						
	16-19	20-24	25-34	35-54	55-64	16-64
Black	15 %	41 %	62 %	59 %	30 %	48 %
White	24 %	70 %	68 %	59 %	30 %	55 %
Coloured	35 %	72 %	69 %	54 %	24 %	56 %
Asian	30 %	57 %	48 %	33 %	11 %	38 %

A number of interesting trends can be deduced from the table above: The lowest percentage of economically active females was found in all population groups in the 16-19 and 55-64 age groups. These low percentages can to a large extent be explained by the fact that:

¹⁶ 1991-1992, Census 1991, Table 10, p. 10.

impetus to this movement. They include: the increased production and availability of labour-saving equipment and products for the home; the development of more effective methods of controlling procreation and the trend towards smaller families, as well as the rise of egalitarian ideologies which have raised issues concerning women's rights, roles and status in society. To these conditions and trends can be added those enumerated by Gerdes (1988): Women have about 30 years of life left after they have reared their children, because their average life expectancy has increased by about 33 % since the middle of the last century; economic factors such as the rising cost of living motivate women to work for remuneration in order to give their children a higher education, to obtain luxuries or merely to make ends meet; and finally, an increasing number of women are single and the heads of households. The high divorce rate prevalent in many developed countries has certainly played a part in increasing the level of employment of women in these countries. According to Lottenville and Sherman (1988) households without husbands were considered to be the most financially handicapped of all the classification categories given in the United States census of 1986. The divorce rate among Whites in South Africa is similar to that in developed countries such as the United States and Sweden (Gerdes, 1988).

Women in South Africa continue to enter the labour market in increasingly larger numbers. Whereas 23 % of South Africa's women were in the labour force in 1960 the proportion had grown to 33 % in 1980 and was estimated

CHAPTER 2

2. WOMEN AND WORK

2.1. *Women and work in the Twentieth Century*

Women have always worked. They have worked in their homes and on their farms with a multitude of tasks essential to the survival of their families. Their changing role since the turn of the century can to a large extent be attributed to industrialization and urbanisation (Rosen, 1989). As societies became industrialized and urbanised women's work was needed in the factories, as well as in schools and hospitals, and with time, in shops and offices. The two world wars, especially the second world war, changed the role of women forever. In taking over the jobs left vacant by men going to war, women proved that they could do any kind of work if they had to, including jobs that were considered dangerous or physically demanding. Though women were encouraged to retreat back to their domestic roles in the post war years in order to make their jobs available to the returning troops, women have since the fifties entered into the labour force in increasingly greater numbers. According to Burke and Weir (1976) a number of conditions and trends have converged to give

defines part-time work in terms of hours worked per week as well as in terms of the quality of the work-content and working conditions characterizing different types of part-time jobs. The second section (4.2) of Chapter 4 enumerates the reasons why women choose to work part-time and in the third section (4.3) of Chapter 4 a theoretical model of the relationship between employment status, family work and life satisfaction is proposed.

A background to the specific factors affecting the nursing profession as well as previous studies conducted on samples drawn from the nursing profession in South Africa as well as in the United States and Great Britain, are discussed in Chapter 5. The nursing profession was considered the ideal sample group for the present study for the following two reasons: availability of part-time posts for registered nurses, and the fact that nursing sisters working part time have the same work content and hourly pay as those working full-time in comparable positions. The methodology for assessing the differences in role satisfaction between the nurses working part-time, working full-time and those who were at home on a full-time basis is put forward in Chapter 8, and the statistical analysis conducted on the research data is presented in Chapter 9. The findings of the study and their implications for practical application as well as for future research are discussed in Chapter 10 which also includes a brief discussion of the more obvious limitations of the study.

Chapter 3 attempts to answer the question: "Are multiple roles a source of role conflict or of role satisfaction?" In discussing role conflict in Section 3.1, the point is made that many working women in South Africa are able to avoid some of the stress associated with role conflict due to the availability of domestic workers. The second section (3.2) of Chapter 3 deals with role satisfaction, which for purposes of this study includes job and parental satisfaction. The point is made that job satisfaction is by no means a unitary concept but that the type of job satisfaction derived will depend on the individual's life stage, marital status, number of dependants and financial circumstances. This section also underlines the fact that parenthood and parental satisfaction are relatively neglected topics in psychology and that in developed, post-industrial countries parenthood has become a conscious choice, subject to careful analysis of costs and benefits. This second section of Chapter 3 also discusses the relationship between multiple roles, self-esteem and life satisfaction. In the third section (3.3) of Chapter 3 the relationships between different roles are discussed and it is proposed that there is a theoretical point of marginal utility between role satisfaction and role conflict, and that the challenge lies in achieving the optimal balance between the time and energy invested in a role and the satisfaction derived from it.

In Chapter 4 it is proposed that part-time work achieves such a balance for mothers of young children and is for this reason the optimal work scheduling option for this group. The first section (4.1) of Chapter 4

1.2. The purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether women who are mothers of young children are more satisfied with their lives if they work part-time than if they work full-time or are at home with their families on a full-time basis, and further, whether or not these differences can be attributed to an accumulation of the role satisfaction derived from the worker role and the parental role respectively.

1.3. Outline of the study

The increase in the levels of women's participation in the labour market world-wide since the Second World War is noted and South African labour statistics are compared with those of the United States as well as with a few European countries, and some possible reasons for the segmentation of the labour market into predominantly female and male occupational groups are discussed in the first section (2.1) of Chapter 2. The impact of motherhood on a woman's career development as well as the importance of considering the variation in a woman's career motivation at different life and family stages are emphasized in the second section (2.2) of Chapter 2. A comprehensive overview of different theories of need satisfaction and their contribution to motivational theory is presented in the third section (2.3) of Chapter 2.

are able to work part-time when their children are young do not have to face the re-entry problem faced by many women in the Western world (Gerdes 1981, 1987), nor are they at risk of being left destitute in old age as a consequence of divorce or widowhood (Older Women's League, Washington DC, 1988).

It is also very important not to lose sight of the fact that most men and women desire and enjoy having children (Hoffman and Hoffman, 1973; Beckman, 1978). Family life generally has a strong positive relationship with life satisfaction for both men and women (Haavio-Mannila, 1971) and parental satisfaction also has a strong positive relationship with life satisfaction (Guidubaldi and Cleminshaw, 1985). It can thus be argued that not only does part-time work for women with young children maintain these women's work continuity, but it also allows these women to obtain maximum satisfaction from the parental role. Part-time work for working mothers has, above all, been valued as a solution to role conflict and the stress associated with role conflict (Hall, 1972). Perhaps it is now the time also to look at the benefits of the part-time solution from a role satisfaction point of view. Women derive a great deal of satisfaction from both their worker role and their parental role (Beckman, 1978), and it is therefore not unreasonable to suggest that part-time work is the work-scheduling option that allows these women to achieve the optimal balance between the time and energy invested in worker role and the parental role and the satisfaction derived from each respectively.

uninterrupted full-time paid employment (Sundström, 1987). The main reason for this lack of "progress", remains the same as ever: children require intensive, personalised and long-lasting care (Leach, 1994), and women still remain the preferred choice as care-givers to the new-born infant, simply because of the early bonding between mother and infant brought about by pregnancy, childbirth and breast-feeding. Consequently, we find that the parent role is still differentially defined for men and women, the maternal role requiring substantially more time and effort than the paternal role (Gutek, Larwood and Stromberg, 1986). Being a parent therefore has "a major impact on labour force participation for women but little effect on men" (Arber and Gilbert, 1992, p.3). It is thus not possible to apply men's career development theory to women, as their theories treat family life as an external irrelevancy (Larwood and Gutek, 1989). In fact, a married woman's working life cannot be divorced from her family life (Gerdes, 1987).

So if modern society is dependent on women's participation in the labour force, and women themselves are expected to be financially independent as well as to attend to the needs of their children, how can these conflicting demands be reconciled? Well, in Sweden where more than 84 % of all women in the 16-64 age group are gainfully employed, 41 % of these work part-time and approximately 70 % of women with pre-school children work part-time (Arvedson, 1986). In other words, in Sweden, part-time work has replaced labour force interruptions (Sundstrom, 1987). Women who

included as an important variable in future research on the career psychology of women. Fitzgerald and Crites (1980) argued that being a housewife could not be considered a career option but should rather be regarded as a factor impinging on career choice, and further, that marriage as such could be considered a factor limiting a woman's career development on a par with inadequate ability and physical disability. They emphasized the need for career counsellors to confront the socialization process that their female clients had been subjected to, and to help women to identify the relative costs and benefits of career and marriage. Finally, Betz and Fitzgerald (1987) proposed that:

"home-oriented women may be motivated not so much by the desire to nurture but by doubts concerning their capabilities to cope and compete in the larger world. The "deficit model" of choice of homemaking as the central life pursuit would be suggested" (p. 124).

We are now well into the 1990's and, as far as we know, women are still getting married and still having babies and interrupting their careers in order to look after children on one or several occasions during their working lives. The fact remains that only 25% of the working women in highly developed, post-industrial countries such as the United States and Sweden are able to follow the traditional male career pattern of

as the very foundation for the development of self-esteem which in turn will enable the individual to become self-actualized. Biesheuvel (1984) has suggested that it might indeed be more useful "to look at the Maslow hierarchy as effectively reducible to two levels, D (Deficiency) [which includes the physiological, security and love needs] and B (Being) needs [which include the self-esteem and self-actualization needs] with a dynamic prepotency relationship between them which varies with time and circumstances" (p.81). Porter (1961) had added the need for autonomy to the five needs suggested by Maslow (1943). He notes that the autonomy need is subsumed under the esteem needs in Maslow's (1943) system, but that the autonomy need which he had positioned between Maslow's (1943) self-esteem and self-actualization needs, is logically distinct from both those other needs and thus deserves a category of its own. Alderfer (1969) contrary to adding more specific needs to Maslow's (1943) system has, not unlike Biesheuvel (1984), suggested a revised and more inclusive system which has been named ERG theory:

- E** stands for "Existence" which incorporates Maslow's (1943) physiological and safety needs;
- R** stands for "Relatedness" which incorporates Maslow's (1943) belongingness and externally generated esteem and;
- G** stands for growth which incorporates Maslow's (1943) true self-esteem and self-actualization needs.

(Dinkmeyer, Pew and Dinkmeyer, 1979). The attainment of this goal has variously been called self-actualization (Goldstein, 1939; Maslow, 1940), full-functioning (Rogers, 1961), self-expansion or competence (Dinkmeyer, Pew and Dinkmeyer, 1979) and high in "Gemeinschaftsgefühl" (Adler, 1938). A feeling of belongingness to the community is in fact, in the view of Adlerians, the key to the development of self-esteem in the individual. Through the social interaction with others the individual can experience self-worth and at the same time be given the opportunity to share his or her abilities with others. Maslow (1970) has suggested that satisfaction of the self-esteem need leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability, and adequacy, of being useful and necessary in the world (p.45). Finally, the self-actualization need is, according to Maslow (1970), characterized by a person's desire for self-fulfilment and the tendency for him or her to become actualized in what he or she is potentially. Maslow regarded self-actualization the highest need in the hierarchy as the pinnacle of human motivation (Barling, 1987, p.499). It is interesting to observe how Maslow (1970) and Adler (1938) differ in their view of self-actualization. Though they both view the striving for an "unique identity" or "self actualization" as the "master motive" or "pinnacle of human motivation", Maslow sees this need or drive as being conceptually separate from the belonging and self-esteem needs. Adler (1938) on the other hand sees the feeling of belonging to the community

* Dinkmeyer, Pew and Dinkmeyer (1979) acknowledge that Adler's "Gemeinschaftsgefühl" is their best translation of "Gemeinsame Gefühl".
 ** A "feeling of belonging to the community" is however a more direct translation and thus preferred for purposes of this study.

or shelter is or she is unlikely to actively seek satisfaction for any higher order need before these very basic needs have been met. Likewise "the threat of chaos or nihilism can be expected in most human beings to produce a regression from any higher needs to the more prepotent safety needs" (p.43). According to Maslow (1970) the need for love and belongingness will emerge when both the physiological and safety needs are fairly well gratified. It is important to note that the love needs involve both the giving and receiving of love. All people have a need for self-esteem, and for the esteem of others. The self esteem needs should according to Maslow (1970) be classified into two subsidiary sets. The first set is characterized by our need for recognition* and appreciation: in other words "self esteem is not only connected with feeling lovable, but also with feeling competent" (Storr, 1989, p.126). As Maslow (1970) has pointed out, it is above all Alfred Adler and his followers who have stressed the significance of self esteem for the well-being of all human beings, young or old. Feelings of inferiority are believed to be common among many adults because of their experiences in childhood as initially being dependent, small and socially inferior persons (Sweeney, 1981). As a consequence of this people tend to strive for significance and toward the fulfilment of the goal to achieve an unique identity and to belong. This movement toward an unique identity is according to Adlerians the motivating force behind all human activity – the master motive

* It is a more in depth discussion of the motivation of recognition, please refer to Enayanzadeh (1992) "The social history and the next man"

need for self esteem and at the very top of this pyramid we find the self-actualization needs (see Figure 1).



Figure 1
Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Maslow (1970) has stated that the physiological needs are undoubtedly the most prepotent of all needs. If a human being is deprived of water, food

(1992) have suggested that too little research has been carried out on life course changes in women's lives and furthermore that "historical and sociological research has not paid heed to intra-individual differences as they influence and are influenced by the context in which they are embedded" (p.19). Our understanding of women's career patterns and underlying career motivation will thus remain incomplete unless we focus on intra-individual differences over the life span as well as on the inter-individual differences traditionally studied by career theorists and occupational psychologists.

2.2.3. Need Satisfaction

According to Maslow (1943) any motivated behaviour must be understood to be a channel through which many basic needs are simultaneously expressed and satisfied. He has emphasized that though human needs tend to arrange themselves in hierarchies of prepotency no need can be treated as if it were isolated or discrete, every need is related to the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of other needs. Maslow's (1943) theory of motivation rests on the premise that there are five basic human needs that can be visualized as being arranged in ascending hierarchical order within the structure of a pyramid. At the base of this pyramid we find the basic physiological needs such as hunger and thirst, above these the need for safety and security followed by the need for love and belongingness, the

and

Third : The employment-follows-motherhood sequence, where the mother completes her parenting responsibilities before she takes up a career.

To these five alternatives or sequences (not six, as Super's (1984) and Daniels and Weingarten's (1982) respective "interrupted" and "employment-brackets-motherhood" are the same) we can add the "employment-brackets-motherhood-for-each-new-addition-to-the-family" sequence where the woman will go back to work after a shorter or longer absence after the birth of each child.

Perun and Bielby (1988) have pointed out that "the timing of the events in the work cycle of women raises new issues in vocational theory. These issues must be examined both within the context of the work cycle itself and in relation to the other developmental cycles in the adult life course, if we are to understand how age and sex interact to determine the occupational behaviour of women" (p.250). In an overview of the motivation of career theory over the past century Sonnenfeld and Kotter (1982) have concluded that career theory has become increasingly dynamic with career outcomes viewed as the result of the interaction of occupational, personal and family factors throughout a lifetime. They have suggested that in order to understand career patterns and career outcomes more fully "we must focus our research on adult development, the family and life cycle as well as career stages" (p.33). White, Cox and Cooper

pervasive that focusing on [a woman's] career development without simultaneously taking into consideration the family's developmental needs will produce an incomplete understanding of career dynamics" (p. 159). It follows that any theory of women's career development must allow for varying alternatives in terms of the career paths women choose to follow (Larwood and Gutek, 1989). According to Super (1984) these alternatives might include:

- stable working (no interruptions for homemaking)
- double-track (working while homemaking), and
- interrupted (working, homemaking and working);

Daniels and Weingarten (1982) found that fifty two of the seventy two mothers in their sample (i.e. more than 70%) used one of the three following career patterns:

- First :** The motherhood-follows-employment sequence where the mother starts her career and then stops working altogether when the first child is born;
- Second :** The employment-brackets-motherhood sequence where the mother interrupts her career, spends full time at home with the children, and resumes her career when the children are older;

House Plateau Stage". In other words, the "career oriented" group did not have any children yet, whereas the "homemaker-oriented" group had children ranging in age from new born to primary school. A similar pattern had emerged in an earlier study conducted by Baruch (1967). He found that women's need for career achievement drops during the peak child-rearing years and then increases when the family has been established. Orden and Bradburn (1969) found that as the age of the youngest child increases, there is actually a steady increase in the proportion of women entering the labour market. Hall (1975) found in his study that age itself had little to do with the role experiences of the women included in his sample. Following Lopata's (1966) model however, he found that the women's life stages, defined in terms of the number of children they each had as well as the ages of these children, was strongly related to these women's experiences of role pressure and conflict. Home pressures increased in the early life stages whereas work pressures were at a minimum during the peak family years and then rose sharply as the children grew older allowing for more non-home involvements for the mother. A married woman's occupational life can thus not be divorced from her family life (Gerdes, 1987). There appears to be a general agreement among researchers in the field of work-family linkages, that the developmental stage of a woman's children has a greater impact on her working life than her own age or life-stage (Baruch, 1967; Gerdes, 1987; Orden and Bradburn, 1969; Tinsley and Paunee, 1980). Sekaran and Hall (1989) have suggested that these family linkages are in fact "so strong and

5. The size of the home that must be maintained
6. The number of items that must be maintained
7. The number of persons helping in the performance of the duties and the type of assistance each provides
8. The number and variety of "labour saving" devices or "conveniences" designed to decrease the effort required to perform any of the tasks
9. The location of the household (Lopata, 1966, pp.9-10)

The next major stage "Full House Plateau" starts according to Lopata (1966) when the youngest child enters school and ends when the children start leaving home to live somewhere else. Lopata (1966) has emphasized that the stage when there are no babies in the home is not reached for most women as soon as tables of average life cycles have led us to expect. He found a wide variation in the ages of the women he interviewed for his studies at which this stage had occurred. Finally, Lopata's (1966) last stage "Shrinking Circle" occurs when the first child has left home. Using Lopata's (1966) model Tinsley and Faunce (1980) found in their study of a large sample of women who had been classified as either "career-" or "homemaker-oriented" in a previous study, that these women were in fact at different identifiable stages in terms of Lopata's (1966) six stages. The majority of the so-called career oriented women were classified in the "Becoming Stage". In contrast, the majority of the so-called homemaker-oriented women were classified in either the "Peak Stage" or in the "Full

Larwood and Gutek (1989) have stressed the significance of timing and age for women's career development. Timing and age are generally not considered in male-oriented career theories because "men are assumed to have been continually involved in the job market at a constant level of opportunity" (p. 177). Women on the other hand may have shorter or longer absences from the labour market due to family commitments. Richardson (1981) has pointed out that as the biological time table for fertility is more definite for women than for men, women cannot postpone indefinitely the decision to have children. Because of this, argues Richardson (1981), "concerns about reproductive goals are quite salient to women in early adulthood and tend to interact with other life goals affecting the pattern or experience of their life roles" (p. 116). Lopata (1966) has described the different stages of a woman's married life and variation in her family commitments over a life span. The "Becoming Stage" lasts from marriage to the woman's first pregnancy. The "Expanding Circle Stage" starts with the woman's first pregnancy. In the "Peak Stage" the woman has several young children. The demands made on the woman at this stage will depend on a combination of the following factors:

1. The number and the ages of the children
2. Their special needs
3. The kinds of duties undertaken by the mother in relation to these children, because of societal, circle, or self-imposed demands
4. The kinds of duties undertaken by the mother in relation to other members of the household

the survival of our species may require men and women to prepare for and act out sex stereotyped parental roles at a critical stage in adulthood, after this stage the career patterns and career motivation of men and women will tend to be less and less differentiated as they move into middle age.

2.2.2. Life Stages and Career Patterns

Super (1984) has observed that both men and women appear to make decisions about their working lives on the basis of their self-concepts and the circumstances they live in. The differences in the choices they make are, according to Super (1984), those associated with childbearing and rearing and the sex-role stereotyping based thereon. Larwood and Gutek (1989) have argued that it is not possible to apply theories intended for men's career development to women, as these theories treat "family life largely as an external irrelevancy" (p. 1). They suggest that any good theory of women's career development must include the following important elements:

- career preparation,
- the opportunities available in society,
- the influence of marriage, pregnancy and children,
- and timing and age.

According to Gutek, Larwood and Stromberg (1986) the parent role is differentially defined for men and women, the maternal role requiring substantially more time and effort than the paternal role. Gallos (1989) has pointed out that it has for some time now been taboo to acknowledge any basic differences between men and women other than the most obvious biological ones. Equality between the sexes has required a "belief in what now seems a simplistic definition of equality as sameness" (p.110). Gallos (1989) suggests that the time has come to move beyond the debate of whether women and men are developmentally different and to focus instead on understanding the differences and their implications. Gutmann (1975) has proposed that the differences between men and women have an intrinsic basis and that they are organised around the vital requirements of young children. He argued that parenthood constitutes the pivotal stage of the human life cycle "organising the form and content of the stages which lead up to it, as well as those that succeed it" (p. 167). In practice this would mean that men and women would tend to gravitate towards the parental roles developed over the centuries where the father takes the role of provider and protector of mother and infant and the mother takes the role of primary caregiver to the infant. Once this "chronic emergency of parenthood" (p. 167) phases out however, the different roles expected from men and women also become less differentiated. Gutmann (1975) has suggested that neither sex is the final custodian of the qualities we choose to call "masculine" and "feminine" as "these qualities tend to be distributed not only by sex but also by life period" (p. 181). In other words, though

resources" in this model. The individual's personality and the social support available to him or her moderate the relationship between a stressor and stress as well as between stress and strain.

Bedeian, Burke and Moffett (1988) have, among several others, studied the effect of work-family conflict among married male and female professionals. The purpose of their study was to clarify the processes by which work-related role stress and parental demands interrelate and influence work and family outcomes. Only subjects who were married and employed full-time were included in this research. The results of their study indicate that, for both men and women, as work-related role stress increases, life satisfaction decreases because of subsequent increases in work-family conflict and decreases in marital satisfaction and job satisfaction.

Skowno (1985) has pointed out that South African society differs from American and other Western societies in terms of the availability of domestic help. She suggests that domestic help is an important support system for both working men and women in South Africa who are able to delegate both housework and childcare to a domestic servant. If we refer back to Barling's model in Figure 3, we can see how such a support system would moderate both the subjective experience of stressors from work and parental demands as well as between experienced stress and the resulting strain therefrom. Richardson (1991) concurs with Skowno (1985) and has

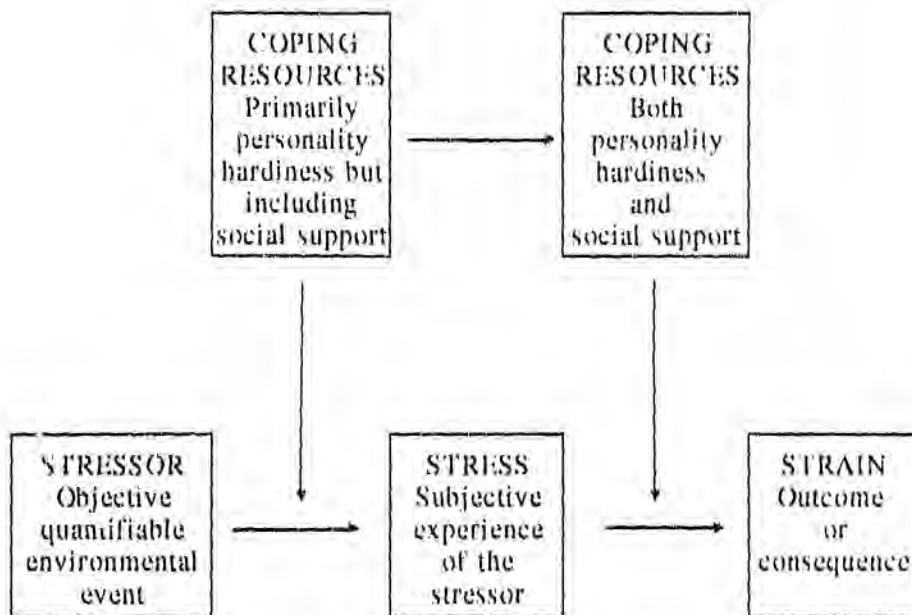


Figure 3

Framework for linking stressors, stress and strain
 (Reproduced from Barling (1990), p. 14)

In Barling's (1990) model stressors are defined as objective environmental characteristics or events which are quantifiable and can be verified objectively. Stress on the other hand refers to the subjective experience of one or several stressors. Finally, strain refers to the result of stress, i.e. the individual's psychological and physiological response to stress. It is important to note what a crucial part is played by the so called "coping

CHAPTER 3

3. MULTIPLE ROLES : ROLE CONFLICT OR ROLE SATISFACTION?

3.1. Role conflict

Hall (1972) has suggested that chronic role conflict, defined as mutually competing demands and expectations by role senders, exists for many working women. According to Hall and Gordon (1973) conflict between work and family role is generally negatively associated with general happiness for full-time employed women. It is above all women with young children who are especially likely to experience the strain and resulting dissatisfaction associated with role conflict (Andristani and Shapiro, 1978; Gerdes, 1987). Role conflict is one of the major psychological stressors that individuals encounter (Bluen and Barling, 1988).

Barling (1990) has pointed out the importance of differentiating between stressors, stress and strain. His suggested model for linking these three concepts is presented in Figure 3

2.3. Conclusion

The increase in the levels of women's participation in the labour market since the second world war has changed the structure and values of Western society irreversibly. With change comes the need for adaptation and flexibility both in terms of the way we think about things as well as the way we do things. We are starting to realise that women are by no means second class citizens in a society where the male prototype is the ideal, but valuable people in their own right who have the potential to make a large and important contribution to society both as mothers and as workers given that we are able to conceptualize and accommodate the fact that women's career involvement and underlying career motivation are irrevocably linked to their and their families developmental stage in the life cycle. Both men and women strive to optimize their need satisfaction whatever their given circumstances might be. A woman can derive satisfaction of her basic needs both through family work and paid employment and her well being as well as that of her family will ultimately depend on how she is able to combine the parent role and the worker role at different stages of her life.

tend to make decisions regarding paid employment versus family work in terms of the utility of their work in or outside the home. The more profitable* a woman's work is in the home in relation to her work outside the home, the less she will work outside the home. It follows that fewer women with pre-school children will work full-time than those who have older children and that those who have a higher level of education or who can attain higher levels of remuneration are more keen to work outside the home than those who have a lower level of education or are paid less. According to Petersson (1982) it also follows that those women with husbands who have high salaries, work less than those whose husbands have low salaries.

It would appear that both men and women will tend to attempt to optimize their need satisfaction whatever their given circumstances may be. It is important to recognise that not all kinds of work satisfy the same needs and that people are motivated by different sets of need depending on their particular financial, social and familial situation. We must also remember that the opportunities for self-actualization in the work situation is a function of both the individual's potential and educational level as well as of the stimulation and opportunity for growth and development inherent in the job itself.

*Productivity is the ratio of output obtained from an individual to the cost of that individual's activity. In general, productivity is a ratio of output to input or employment costs.

motivation Betz (1984) found a significant relationship between need fulfilment and life satisfaction for two of the three occupational groups of women she had included in her study (professional managerial and homemakers). Richardson (1991) in a study of South African career women found that these women were primarily motivated by factors such as the opportunity to achieve self-actualization and the challenge and stimulation offered by a job rather than by purely financial rewards. Most of these women also enjoyed the contact with people which their work provided and felt that work developed areas within themselves they had not previously been aware of. Hirschowitz (1987) studied the work expectations prevalent among a large sample of South African saleswomen. She found that money was the most important reason given by these women for working outside the home indicating that the satisfaction of physiological and security needs is a basic consideration influencing women's decision to work. However, White married saleswomen worked not only to satisfy financial needs but also to satisfy their need to be among other people and to be of some use to others. In other words, these women wanted to not only satisfy physiological and security needs but also social and esteem needs. Hirschowitz (1987) also found that among all married women in her sample, the lower the husband's salary, the more likely they were to regard financial remuneration as the most important reason for working. These findings can be related to those of Pettersson (1982) who after a thorough review of existing literature as well as an extensive analysis of Swedish labour statistics has concluded that women

It is apparent from Figure 2 that Alderfer's (1969) and Astin's (1984) theories of basic human needs overlap in terms of demarcation and content though they use conceptual definitions that suggest different theoretical foundation. Whereas "existence" and "survival" are more or less interchangeable concepts, "relatedness" and "contribution" are not. "Relatedness" suggests the need for social interaction and a sense of belongingness, whereas "contribution" suggests that a human being can only find a place in the community and receive true recognition if he or she are able to contribute to the well-being of others. As for "growth" and "pleasure" one describes the path towards self-actualization, the other what it feels like when you have achieved it.

In a study conducted by Porter (1961) on a sample of men employed either in bottom or middle management, the results indicated that esteem, security and autonomy needs were significantly more often satisfied in middle than in bottom management. Higher order needs were the least satisfied needs in both bottom and middle management. It was also found that the self-actualization need was the most critical need area of those studied in terms of both perceived deficiency in fulfilment and perceived importance to the individual. Betz (1982) also found self-actualization to be the highest ranked need both for employed women and for women who were homemakers. In her second study based on Maslow's (1943) theory of

Self-Actualization	Self Actualization	Growth	Pleasure	Being
True Self Esteem and Prestige / Recognition	Autonomy			
	Self Esteem and Prestige			
Love and Belongingness	Social	Relatedness	Contribution	Deficiency
Safety	Security	Existence	Survival	
Physiological	Physiological (not measured in the organizational context)			
Maslow (1954)	Porter (1961)	Alderfer (1969)	Astin (1984)	Biesheuvel (1984)
Figure 2				
An overview of theories of basic human needs				

stimulated a lot of thought and writing on this subject over the past fifty years. It is perhaps useful at this point to attempt a summary of the convergence and divergence of the theories of basic human needs discussed above. An overview of these are presented in Figure 2.

have a need to feel that they are contributing to the good and well-being of others, whether they are members of the family, the immediate circle of friends, the community, the nation or some large social entity. Astin's (1984) contribution need can be viewed as subsuming other needs such as the need for recognition and appreciation, in that contributing to the welfare of others typically results in the positive feedback from the person(s) affected.

Astin (1984) has pointed out that most women are able to satisfy their survival and contribution needs through both paid employment and family work. When occupied by family work a women's survival needs are satisfied "to the extent that the homemaker has a contract (e.g. marriage) or an implicit understanding with someone who acts as the breadwinner. Thus the homemaker satisfies her survival needs indirectly" (p.120). Whereas Astin (1984) believes that a woman is also able to satisfy her contribution need through family work, she is of the opinion that it is much more difficult to satisfy the pleasure need through family work than through paid employment. She poses the question whether it is not perhaps possible for women in particular to maximise the satisfaction of these three needs "by the choice of paid work activities that can appropriately interface with the family work activities" (p.125).

It is patently clear that Maslow's (1943) original article presenting his theory of human motivation in the journal "Psychological Review" has

mainly through creative behaviour and is the reason why some people put a lot of effort into their work and some do not. Those who can find self-actualization through their work tend to find their work pleasant and personally absorbing. On the other hand, those who do not find self-actualization through their work may experience feelings of frustration and depersonalisation.

Not unlike Maslow (1943) and Roe (1956), Astin (1984) has argued that basic work motivation is the same for men and women (Gilbert, 1984). According to Astin (1984) work behaviour is a motivated activity intended to satisfy three basic needs: survival, pleasure and contribution. She views these needs as being "interactive and present whenever we are motivated to engage in work behaviour" (p. 120). Astin chose these three needs for her sociopsychological model of career choice and work behaviour because she viewed them as being primary needs in work motivation and also because they could subsume many other needs. Astin (1984) defines the survival need as being chiefly physiological, the need for an income that can pay for food, shelter, clothing and other items essential to our physical health and well-being. The pleasure need refers to the intrinsic pleasure of work activities, to the intellectual and emotional pleasure that derives from the performance and accomplishment of a task or the achievement of an objective. According to Astin (1987) the individual's self-worth and self-esteem derives to a large extent from the satisfaction of the contribution needs. She believes that all human beings

Alderfer's (1969) theory also differs from Maslow's (1943) in that he posits that lower order needs do not have to be fully satisfied before higher order needs emerge.

Roe (1956) was one of the first American psychologists to apply Maslow's (1943) theory of motivation to the field of occupational psychology. She suggested that in fact there is no single situation which was "potentially so capable of giving satisfaction at all levels of basic needs as the occupation" (p.31). According to Roe (1956) it is the occupation or job which in most cases provides the person with the means that can be used to satisfy the physiological needs. In her view it is also a person's job that will to a large extent satisfy the security and safety needs: "It has been repeatedly demonstrated that many persons will choose a job that promises security over one which pays more but cannot be counted upon to last" (p.32). Likewise a person's job can provide that person with the opportunity "to be needed and welcomed by the group" (p.32), which is an important aspect of a satisfactory job which has the potential of satisfying the persons need for belonging and affiliation*. In terms of the esteem need, Roe (1956) maintains that "having a job in itself carries a measure of esteem" (p.32) and adds that "what importance it has is seen most clearly in the devastating effect upon the individual of being out of work" (p.32). According to Roe (1956) the need for self-actualization manifests itself

* "Affiliation" is preferred to "love" by most writers applying Maslow's (1943) theory of motivation to the field of occupational psychology.

Women who worked, had a partner, one or more children, were students, and engaged in at least one volunteer activity reported the most positive feelings about themselves. Most of the respondents agreed that their lives involved fairly high levels of stress, but interestingly and significantly, this find was independent of the number of roles held. Pietromonaco et al (1986) suggest that "one reason that having multiple roles may contribute to self-esteem is that performing a variety of tasks and interacting with more role partners, increases one's sense of competence and facilitates the development of a richer, more complex view of self" (p.379). These results can be related to the conclusions reached by Voydanoff (1987) after reviewing current research literature on women's work, family and health. She found that being married, being employed outside the home, and being a parent were all independently associated with lower levels of depression.

Haavio-Mannila (1971) examined "the satisfaction derived from three major institutions in the life of an adult man and woman: family, work and leisure" (p.558). Her subjects were randomly selected among persons aged 15-64 years in Helsinki (capital of Finland). Satisfaction was measured simply by asking how satisfied the subjects were with different aspects of their lives: status at work, work in general, family life in general, relationship to spouse, possibilities for leisure time use, and overall life satisfaction. Haavio-Mannila (1971) found that family satisfaction had the highest correlation with overall life satisfaction. She also found that for the working wives general family satisfaction was more important to

feelings of self worth and self-esteem. Having and raising children does however involve a considerable amount of time and effort. For many women who work full time, the joys of motherhood are tainted by the strain and anxiety caused by continuous time pressure and role conflict.

3.2.3. Life Satisfaction

Barnett (1982) examined the relationship between well-being and work involvement in a group of 134 White women in the USA. All the subjects were married and mothers of at least one pre-school child. Fifty of these women were working for pay for at least ten hours per week. Two indices were used : (a) self-esteem and (b) satisfaction with one's current role pattern. Barnett (1982) found that role pattern satisfaction and self-esteem were significantly and positively correlated for both the "at home" and "working for pay outside the home" groups of mothers, and 87% of the women reported themselves to be either moderately or very satisfied. Among the employed women, commitment to work correlated highly with both role pattern satisfaction (0.86) and with self-esteem (0.48). Pietromonaco, Manis and Frohardt Lane (1986) studied the psychological consequences of multiple social roles amongst women. Their findings suggested that, for employed women having multiple social roles may enhance their psychological well being. They also found that those women who held more social roles enjoyed markedly higher levels of self esteem.

women who indicated concern regarding the children's needs interfering with their careers. Beckman (1978) concluded that the findings of her study suggested that employment and fertility were perceived as incompatible or as competing roles by her sample. She added that they may become more compatible in the future depending on two main factors: whether or not more state subsidised child care centres will be constructed and whether or not part-time employment becomes a valid option for women in high-level jobs.

As pointed out by Richardson (1981) parenting and parental satisfaction are not totally separate or independent functions of the individual but dependent on and influencing other important aspects of the individual parent's life. James, Schumm, Kennedy, Grigsby, Scheetman and Nichols (1985) obtained significant correlation between both parental satisfaction and marital satisfaction (0,23) and parental satisfaction and self-esteem (0,23). Guldibaldi and Cleminshaw (1985) found a strong positive relationship between parental satisfaction and life satisfaction of 0,55 ($p < .01$).

Most of the abovementioned authors appear to agree that having children and the parental role have the potential of bringing great satisfaction into an adult person's life. Having children enhances the quality of life in that it satisfies our need for love and belongingness and reinforces our sense of being mature and responsible adults, both of which in turn raise our

non-professional married women aged 28 to 39 years who were all employed on a full-time basis, she found the following: The most salient rewards of parenthood (mentioned by one-third to one half of the sample) were: watching the growth and development of the child; the relationship with the child (e.g. getting and giving love); the teaching role (i.e. helping and guiding the child's growth and development); and fulfilment of the female role. These findings supported Beckman's (1978) original hypothesis which stated that affectionate relations with children were probably the most salient satisfactions of parenthood for women. As for the cost of parenthood, restriction of freedom, opportunity, privacy and mobility emerged as being the most salient for this sample group. Other costs of parenthood also mentioned by the respondents included worrying about the child's health and social development, the great responsibility involved in raising a child and also, not unexpectedly, interference with the women's careers. The most salient general reward of work mentioned by 61% of the respondents was social interaction. Also highly salient were achievement, challenge and creativity, self-definition, esteem, independence, economic benefits, mental stimulation and the "in world time structuring" (p.223) aspect of work, i.e. the structure and pattern work adds to one's life. The most salient negative factor mentioned by nearly 50% of the respondents was the time factor. Also mentioned by the respondents was the negative impact of work on the needs of their children as well as the difficulties encountered in having to be at work all day, every day. It is interesting to note that it was mainly the professional

intensive agricultural societies in third world type economies). Jensen and Kingshorn (1985) have suggested that many of the above reasons for having children, and perhaps others not included, are present in varying degrees and different combinations in most families.

In studying the parental role it is, according to Richardson (1981), most important also to consider the broader context in which it is placed. Otherwise we would be endorsing "a myth in the social sciences that occupational and family roles constitute "two separate and non-overlapping worlds" (Kanter, 1977, p.8)" (p.13). Richardson has suggested that work and intimacy are processes which occur in both occupational and familial roles. Quoting Kanter (1977) Richardson has defined work as mobilisation for the accomplishment of tasks, and intimacy as the way people relate to one another; both the occupational and parental role depend on how well the individual is able to carry out the tasks salient to the role and personal relationships are very important both in the workplace and in the family. She concludes that work and intimacy should be viewed as processes of the individual rather than as characteristics of a setting or a role. Such a viewpoint will broaden "the scope of any role interaction and more accurately reflect the reality of role enactment" (p.14).

Beckman (1978) examined the relative rewards and costs of parenthood and employment for employed women. From a sample of 123 professional and

These days "adults have considerable choice in deciding whether to have a child, how many to have and when to have them" (Richardson, 1981, p.13). Guidibaldi and Cleminshaw (1985) have also emphasized the freedom of choice associated with taking on parental responsibilities in Western industrialized societies: "Considering the fact that dependable birth control procedures and abortion are now widespread means of exercising control over fertility, commitment to child rearing has become a conscious, willful decision subject to careful analysis of costs and benefits" (p.293).

Hoffman and Hoffman (1973), after reviewing a number of studies, developed a list of nine basic reasons for why parents value having children as well as the parental role itself. These are:

- adult social status and identity;
 - (2) expansion of the self, tie to a larger entity, immortality;
 - (3) morality, religion, altruism, goals of the group, norms regarding sexuality;
 - (4) primary group ties, affiliation;
 - (5) stimulation, novelty, fun;
 - (6) creativity, accomplishment, competence;
 - (7) power, influence, effectiveness;
 - (8) social comparison, competition; and
 - (9) economic utility
- (the last reason would apply mainly to low technology/high labour

together the concepts of life stages and of multiple links between different sources of satisfaction in our lives provide a potential new direction for future research on the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. "Such an approach would suggest that a consideration of the developmental stage and the importance of any of the multiple roles is required to predict the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction for a given individual" (p. 299).

In conclusion it can be said that job satisfaction is by no means a unitary concept. We can identify both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, that is a job has the potential to provide us with satisfaction of most of our needs (Roe, 1956) and whether these be D or B needs (Biesheuvel, 1981) will to a very large extent depend on life stage, marital status, number of dependants and financial circumstances.

3.2.2. Parental Satisfaction

According to Gutmann (1975) parenthood is a relatively neglected topic in psychology. He points out that psychologists have usually chosen to focus on the consequences of being parented and not on the effects of parenthood on the parents themselves.

founded on different factors, intrinsic and extrinsic, depending on their marital status, education and job level, as well as on their financial requirements. The single professional women expressed more satisfaction with pay than any of the other groups, whereas the married professional women, regardless of the presence or absence of children, expressed the greatest satisfaction with the work itself. These results suggest that different aspects of job satisfaction come to the fore depending on the individual's circumstances and further that the pay-job satisfaction and pay-life satisfaction relationships are moderated by the individual's financial needs more than by any other independent factor.

A study conducted by Steiner and Truxillo (1989) sought to test the desegregation hypothesis of the relationship between life satisfaction and job satisfaction (Rice, Near and Hunt, 1980), which proposes that the relationship is stronger for individuals who value work in their lives. Steiner and Truxillo (1989) obtained data on work involvement, job satisfaction and life satisfaction from a sample comprising 382 individuals (198 females, 184 males) employed in a diversity of occupations. The results of the statistical analysis of this data suggested that "improving life satisfaction by enhancing job satisfaction will be most successful for employees who place high importance on work in their lives".

Rain, Lane and Steiner (1991) reviewed current literature on the job satisfaction/life satisfaction relationship and concluded that bringing

themselves in terms of being their family's primary breadwinner" (p. 365). George and Brief (1990) added an important proviso in discussing the results of their study. They suggested that "while the male breadwinner role may be especially prominent in traditional family configurations . . . , it may be less likely in single-parent families, particularly those headed by females". George and Brief (1990) recommended that future research should focus on the breadwinner role across different family configurations. Lottenville and Sherman (1988) had in fact already carried out such a study in which they had compared the job satisfaction of married, divorced and single women in a medical setting. Their sample comprised 88 female employees working in a hospital in a Southern State of the USA. The night shift was not included. Four groups were formed based on marital status. Two of the four groups consisted of married women, one of these two groups comprised women who had at least one child under 18 years and the other comprised those who had no children under 18 living at home. Both groups of married women had a spouse living in the home who was working at least thirty hours per week and who had been continuously employed for the past twelve months. The third group were divorced women who had at least one child under 18 years of age living in the home. The final group comprised single women who had never been married and who had no children. These groups were further divided into two groups, professionals (including registered nurses) and clerical/technical staff. The results of this study yielded a number of important indications as to how job satisfaction for female workers is

to a change in the attitudes and norms about the relative importance of work to women's lives. They concluded that for many women, "their identities are no longer defined exclusively by their homes and families but also by their jobs" (p.505).

George and Brief (1990) examined the moderating effects of financial requirements and gender on the pay-life satisfaction relationship. They hypothesized that this relation would be stronger for those with high financial requirements and also stronger for males than for females, the reason being that "current conceptions of masculinity retain the breadwinning role as a defining characteristic; by performing this role, men affirm their manliness and possession of traits stereotypically defined as masculine such as strength, endurance and ingenuity" (p.360). George and Brief (1990) only obtained a fairly modest correlation between job and life satisfaction of 0,22 which can be compared with those obtained by Kavanagh and Halpern (1977) (0,27 and 0,34 for males and females respectively) and by Tait and Padgett (1989) through their meta-analysis (0,44). George and Brief (1990) did however, by means of moderated regression analysis, obtain a statistically significant triple interaction between pay satisfaction, financial requirements and gender and thus they concluded that financial requirements and gender jointly moderate the pay-life satisfaction relationship. "That is, pay satisfaction had the strongest relationship for males with high financial requirements. This finding is consistent with the idea that males continue to define and judge

homemakers. Results indicated that working women at mid-life had higher self-esteem, less psychological anxiety and better physical health than homemakers. Kavanagh and Halpern (1977) investigated the relationship between life and job satisfaction for males and females respectively. The purpose of their study was to ascertain whether the gender difference found by Brayfield and Wells (1957) would appear in their data. Brayfield and Wells (1957) had found that there was no significant relationship between job and life satisfaction for the women in their sample, but that this relationship was significant in a positive direction for the men. Contrary to the gender differences found by Brayfield and Wells (1957) twenty years earlier, Kavanagh and Halpern (1977) found that in their sample job and life satisfaction was positively related for both males and females regardless of job level. The correlation coefficients were 0.27 and 0.34 for males and females respectively. Kavanagh and Halpern (1977) attributed the changes in this relationship for the female sample primarily to attitudinal changes as a result of the women's movement. Using a meta-analysis approach Tait and Padgett (1989) investigated the strength of the job and life satisfaction relationship as well as gender effects as a function of the date of study. Based on a total sample of 19,811 males and females they obtained a correlation coefficient of 0.44. They found that the job-life satisfaction correlation had increased greatly for women in recent years. They suggested that though shifting population characteristics probably play a role in the changing relationship observed for women, they, like Kavanagh and Halpern (1977) before them, attributed this change

suggested that "a factor unique to the experiential world of the South African career woman is the availability of inexpensive domestic help" (p. 169).

It would thus appear that, though the negative effects of work-family conflict on the well-being of South African working women must always be considered when studying this group, the availability of social support in the form of the South African domestic worker enables us to study the presence or absence of role satisfaction in this group while controlling for the negative effects of role conflict. In other words, we are, in this particular context, able to paraphrase Herzberg's (1968) two factor theory as conceptualized by Cummings and El Salmi (1968) and suggest that the opposite extreme of role conflict is not role satisfaction but *no* role conflict and that the opposite extreme to role satisfaction is not role conflict but *no* role satisfaction.

3.2. Role Satisfaction

3.2.1. Job Satisfaction

Coleman and Antonucci (1983) examined the impact of employment status on the self-esteem, psychological well-being and physical health of women at mid-life. Their sample comprised 206 employed women and 183

had increased the proportion of women continuously employed part-time, and reduced the proportion non-employed among women with one preschooler, and among those giving birth to additional children. Sundstrom (1987) further confirmed the prevalent trend in Sweden for women predominantly to remain part-time employed during the years of child-rearing and birth* of additional children. When children start school mothers increasingly extend their hours to full-time. In comparison with women in the United States, Swedish women had less labour force interruptions as in the absence of parental leave and options of reduced hours of work American women often have no choice but to stop working altogether. Sundstrom (1987) concluded that women following the traditional male career pattern of uninterrupted full-time work constituted a minority in both countries (USA - 26,7%; Sweden - 23,3%).

4.1.3. The satisfaction derived from part-time work

It appears that women who work part-time derive as much satisfaction from their work as do their colleagues working full-time. Logan, O'Reilly and Roberts (1973) compared the job satisfaction of part-time and full-time White female hospital employees (nurses, nurse-aides and clerical personnel) and found that there was no significant difference between their

* Parental insurance replaces income for almost one year in Sweden, provided that the mother has been employed for some months prior to childbirth.

Kahne (1985) has emphasized the importance of the part-time option for women in preserving work continuity. The problems associated with women's re-entry into the job market after the child-bearing years are well documented (Gerdes, 1981, 1987). Many women in retirement pay a heavy price in terms of their financial status for the work discontinuities they have experienced in their lives in order to meet the demands made on them by their families (Older Women's League, Washington DC, 1988). It should also be emphasized that employers, particularly of skilled female employees, have a lot to gain if they are able to retain those employees on a part-time basis as this dramatically reduces the cost of recruitment, selection, induction and training of new employees. For example, Virginia Bottomley, Minister of Health in Great Britain, has stated that, with particular reference to the National Health Service: "I'm determined to root out any area where there is resistance to part-time or flexible working hours and ensure that from the top to the bottom of NHS" ... "My campaign is to remove any obstacle that prevents women combining their domestic and professional responsibilities" ... "The Health Service has a good record in terms of training; the tragedy is we lose people we have invested so much in. If we can keep them on, even part time, we may keep them for life" (Morris, 1991 [p.5]).

In a study of the growth of part time work in Sweden, Sundstrom (1987) found that among first time mothers part time work had not reduced full-time employment but replaced labour force interruption, which in turn

in Sweden (Swedish Central Bureau of Statistics, 1988). In Great Britain 46 % of all employed women and 53 % of employed married women work part-time (Arber and Gilbert, 1992). In Sweden where slightly more than 84 % of all women and 90 % of all men are gainfully employed, 41 % of the women work part-time as against 6 percent of the men (The Swedish Institute, 1993). Approximately 70 % of women with pre-school children work part time (Arvedson, 1986). In Sweden the increase in the number of women working is made up of women who would previously have stopped working when they had their first child and would not have resumed working until their children had started school (Swedish Central Bureau of Statistics, 1982). Thus, in Sweden the increase in part-time work does not mean that women are working less, but more (Pettersen, 1982). In Sweden the proportion of women who work part-time because they wish to look after their children themselves decreases from 74 % to 33 % when the children start school (Swedish Central Bureau of Statistics, 1988). In South Africa Wessels (1987) conducted a study on the main reasons for women's choice of part time work and found that 49 % of the respondents stated that their main reason for choosing to work part time rather than full time was that it enabled them to care for their children themselves. So, though the proportion of women who work part-time varies between countries, there appear to be two universal tendencies that explain the increase in part time work: more women are working, and of these women those who have young children prefer to work part-time.

Africa, nor is there any general consensus as to what part-time work entails in terms of hours worked per week.

Tilly (1992) has recommended that we should distinguish between two types of part-time jobs: "secondary" part-time jobs and "retention" part-time jobs. Secondary part-time jobs provide lower pay per hour than comparable full-time jobs and offer very little opportunity for advancement; retention part-time jobs, on the other hand, are characterized by higher skill and compensation levels. Tilly (1992) calls these "good" part-time jobs whereas Kahne (1985) refers to them as "new concept" part-time jobs. Barker (1993) has introduced another useful conceptualization of part-time work viz. "voluntary" versus "involuntary" part-time work. Voluntary part-time workers choose their current work schedule on the basis of personal preference or occupational reasons, whereas "involuntary" part-time workers are not able to find full-time employment or would rather not be employed at all if their financial circumstances permitted such a choice.

4.1.2. The reasons why many women prefer part-time work

Around the world the majority of part-time workers are women. Women hold 66 % of all part-time jobs in the USA (Barker, 1993); 82 % of all part-time jobs in Great Britain (Phillips, 1991) and 87 % of all part-time jobs

CHAPTER 4

4. PART-TIME WORK

4.1. Women and part-time work

4.1.1. Defining part-time work

Part-time work is generally defined in terms of the number of hours worked per week. According to Duffy and Pupo (1992) the hours worked per week by a person working part-time varies considerably from country to country. In Finland, New Zealand and Canada part-time work is defined as working less than 30 hours per week, in Australia, USA and Sweden as less than 35 hours per week and in Germany as less than 37 hours per week. Duffy and Pupo (1992) add that it is above all the Scandinavian countries (excluding Finland), Great Britain and Australia that have a large part-time work force comprising 20% or more of the total work force. In many of these countries, economic conditions, the rapid growth of the service sector and supportive government policies have specifically encouraged the expansion of part-time employment. At present no figures are available for the incidence of part-time work in South

than creating role stress? And if so, under what circumstances? Is it possible to maximise satisfaction of the three needs (survival, pleasure and contribution) by the choice of paid work activities that can appropriately interface with family work activities?" and adds: "we need to identify the most appropriate balance of activities at different points in the career cycle and in the family cycle" (p. 125).

It can thus be concluded that there appears to be a point of marginal utility between role satisfaction and role conflict. The challenge lies in achieving an optimal balance between the time and energy invested in a role and the satisfaction derived from it. It is suggested that part-time work for mothers of young children achieves such a balance, and is for this reason the optimal work scheduling option for this group, not only in terms of the avoidance of role conflict, but also in terms of the accumulation of role satisfaction.

3.4. Conclusion

As discussed previously, women tend to make decisions regarding the time and energy they allocate to paid employment and to family work on the basis of both their own needs and the needs of their children (Pettersen, 1982; Astin, 1984). As shown by Beckman (1978) women derive a great deal of satisfaction from both their worker role and their parental role. Dissatisfaction arises when women are unable to find enough time to allocate to both these roles. This is, as mentioned earlier, especially true for mothers with young children who are obliged to work full-time. Gutek, Searle and Klepa (1991) have proposed that the topic of work-family conflict be examined from the perspective of what they term the "rational view". In the rational view, "the amount of conflict one perceives rises in proportion to the number of hours one expends in both the work and family domains" (p.560). Repetti (1986) has commented that "the price of increased hours at work may be the loss of intimacy and companionship in the family and shared recreational time" (p.102). Gutek, Larwood and Stromberg (1986) have suggested that the number of roles a person has may be less important than the effect associated with each one of these roles. They further suggest that the most satisfying life style may be one where a person can accumulate many roles without expending too much energy in any of them. Astin (1984) has posed a number of questions regarding the relationship between paid employment and family work; "Can paid employment and family work be complementary rather

he suggested that the conflict and overload arising from having a multiplicity of roles can be moderated by the rewards of role accumulation. Repetti (1986) on the other hand, in his study of 44 female clerical workers, could not find evidence for such an compensatory relationship between role overload and the rewards of role accumulation. Instead he suggested an additive model of role satisfaction/dissatisfaction which he deemed to be the most appropriate description of how several roles co-jointly relate to well-being. As for the segmentation model, recent research suggests that segmentation only occurs when the individual actively attempts to separate work and family life as a way of dealing with work-related stress (Piotrkowski, 1979).

After reviewing current literature on the job satisfaction/life satisfaction relationship, Rain, Lane and Steiner (1991) concluded that further theoretical developments in the research on the relationship between different life demands will only be achieved once more attention is paid to synthesising the life stage theory with role satisfaction theory. Belsky, Perry-Jenkins and Crouter (1985) have suggested that "if the interrelationship between work and family is to be fully understood, more attention must be paid to the processes that characterize the experience of work (e.g. job satisfaction)" (p.207). They added that it is also important to pay attention to how time and energy are allocated to work and family respectively.

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not reach unbearable and uncontrollable levels. Having multiple roles, including the worker role, tends to make women less dependent on their husbands. It can be concluded that being married, being a parent and being employed outside the home all contribute independently to women's self-esteem and life satisfaction.

3.3. The relationship between different roles

The relationship between the different roles played out by an individual, such as that of e.g. worker and parent, has generally been described as either being characterized by the spillover effect, as being compensatory, or as being segmented (Wilensky, 1960). The spillover proposition posits that satisfaction or dissatisfaction experienced by an individual in one role will impact on the satisfaction derived from other roles. The compensatory proposition posits that the satisfaction derived from one role can compensate an individual for the dissatisfaction experienced in another role. Finally, the segmentation proposition posits that there is no relationship between separate roles. According to Lambert (1990) existing evidence suggests that all these three models can, under certain conditions, be used to illustrate the processes linking work and family. The most popular view of the relationship between different important roles, is that their effects spill over one to the other (Lambert, 1990; George and Brief, 1990). Sieber (1974) was in fact supporting the compensation model when

and Sheridan (1979) concluded that "one's contentment with life is a gestalt concept built upon specific life domains such as work and family experiences. Satisfaction with these diverse domains appears to result in an overall satisfaction with the quality of one's life" ... (p.1036). Bedeian, Burke, Beverly and Moffet's (1988) study focused upon the relationship between work and family domains and their impact on life satisfaction. Subjects, who were all married and full-time employed, were placed in five groups depending on the presence and age of children, as consistent with Lopata's (1966) model of family stages, the presence and age of children are important determinants of parental demands. Variables measured included: work related stress, work-family conflict, job satisfaction, marital satisfaction and life satisfaction. Results indicated that as work-related stress increases for both men and women, life satisfaction decreases because of subsequent increases in work-family conflict and decreases in marital satisfaction and job satisfaction. Bedeian et al (1988) concluded that future research should focus less on sex differences and more on factors mediating work-family conflict. Duxbury and Higgins (1991) also investigated possible gender differences in work-family conflict. Their data showed that the quality of working life and quality of family life were significant predictors of life satisfaction for both men and women.

In conclusion it can be stated that multiple roles have the potential to improve the quality of women's lives as long as work related stress does

overall life satisfaction than their relationship to their husbands whereas for the home-staying wives a satisfactory husband-wife relationship was as important as family life in general. Haavio-Mannila (1971) suggests that these results indicate that home-staying wives may be more emotionally dependent on their husbands than employed wives. Haavio-Mannila (1971) further found that the correlations between family and work satisfaction were not very high. Her correlational study also indicated that in general family life appeared to be more important to both married and unmarried women than to men. Haavio-Mannila (1971) found, not unlike Petterson (1982), that reasons for married women's employment differed in the different social strata. In the lower social stratum wives worked mainly for economic reasons whereas in the upper stratum women worked especially to utilise the education they had attained. Vredenburg and Sheridan (1979) investigated the relative importance of job and community predictors to life satisfaction and alienation in samples representative of the full-time employed United States population, taken in 1973 and 1974 respectively. An extensive analysis of the data utilising a type of analysis of variance technique labelled "Automatic Interaction Detection" by the author, indicated that the distinction made between employees highly satisfied with their jobs and those moderately satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs accounted for over half the variance obtained with this analysis. This analysis also indicated that marital status explained the variance in life satisfaction second only to job satisfaction, with married employees reporting higher life satisfaction scores than single employees. Vredenburg

study of South African nurses working hours and working schedules and their ramifications on home and family life be carried out.

As yet, part-time work or reduced working hours are not generally options available to nurses working in the public sector. Some private hospitals do however offer this option to their nursing staff, having found this to be a major draw-card in their bid to attract qualified and experienced staff. As yet no studies have been undertaken in order to ascertain the possible benefits experienced by nurses who choose to work part time.

5.3. Summary and conclusion

The nursing profession is a strongly female-dominated occupation. The organizational commitment of nurses is not so much modified by any idealized feminine gender ideology as by working conditions including remuneration, work scheduling, opportunities for promotion and parental responsibilities. Nurses working part-time tend to report as much job involvement and be just as capable of maintaining permanent employment as their colleagues working full-time. The majority of South African nurses are married and a large proportion of them have children of either

the SANA (1990a) Census, it was above all the lack of opportunities for promotion, the low salaries and poor service benefits that were the chief sources of dissatisfaction. Staff relations, on the other hand, gave rise to a high degree of satisfaction. Apart from the Census, the South African Nursing Association also conducted an inquiry into the nursing profession in 1990. The problems identified by SANA (1990b) included: the drop in student numbers, the vacancy status of approximately 20-30%, and the high staff turnover. These problems were ascribed mainly to non-market related salaries, poor overtime remuneration, inflexible working hours and a bureaucratic style of management. As for the reasons why nurses had already left the public sectors, these included: poor remuneration, inflexible work schedules, household duties, excessive workload and inadequate conditions of service including maternity leave and creche facilities. It can be added that according to SANA (1990b): "The inflexible work schedule was identified as the second most important reason for people leaving the profession. Overtime worked and the scheduling of working hours and overtime without any consideration of personal needs caused considerable dissatisfaction among staff members" (p.39). These findings can be related back to a study conducted by Birkenback in 1986. He concluded that the low organizational commitment and high turnover rates of South African nurses could only be improved by raising the nurses' salaries and their general job satisfaction. He recommended that a more in-depth

selected members. The response rate was approximately 40%. All categories of qualified nurses as well as all the population groups were included in the sample. The ratio of male nurses to female nurses was 6 : 94, i.e. only some six percent of the members were male. Registered nurses accounted for the highest percentage, 49% of the total membership, followed by enrolled nursing assistants (34%) and enrolled nurses (17%). The majority of the respondents (58,1%) were married, 10,3% were divorced, 7,7% were widowed and 26% had never been married. Seventy-eight percent of the respondents had children, and 20% of these members were single parents. Over 42% of the respondents had children of pre-school age and 47,3% had children of primary school age. According to SANA (1990a): "A total of 34% of all members have interrupted their careers at some stage. Of these 34%, 63% interrupted their careers once, 24,2% twice, 8% three times, and 4,6% more than three times. The majority of members who had interrupted their careers three times or more, were White registered nurses" (p.15). Over 54% of the SANA members were employed in the public sector, 30,3% in the private sector and 15% in subsidised institutions. Whereas the White and Black population groups were represented in equal numbers in the public sector, both the private and subsidised sectors employed more White than Non-White nurses. Flexitime was an option for only eight percent of the SANA members. On a five point scale of job satisfaction, 12,6% scored an 1; 12,1% a 2; 26,2% a 3; 21,4% a 4 and 27,6% a 5. According to

Many nurses choose to work at night in order to minimize role conflict and existing domestic problems, particularly those who have young pre-school children in the home (Robson and Wedderburn, 1990). Barton and Folkard (1991) studied the responses of day and night nurses in Great Britain and found that the night nurses were more satisfied with the amount and distribution of free time, whereas the day nurses reported experiencing significantly more domestic type problems and more dissatisfaction with their actual hours of work.

Nurses in the United States can under certain circumstances choose between full-time and part-time work. Werbel (1985) conducted a study of the impact on primary life involvement on turnover in which he compared the responses given by 154 registered nurses who were employed either on a full-time or a part-time basis. He found that the part-time nurses were more likely to have children living at home. However, he found no difference between full-time and part-time nurses in terms of their job involvement and further, that the part-time nurses were as capable of maintaining permanent employment as the full-time nurses.

5.2. South African nurses

The South African Nursing Association (1990) conducted a census of its members in January 1990. Questionnaires were posted to 10 000 randomly

organizational commitment. In other words, parental responsibilities strengthen organizational commitment whereas role conflict between work and family demands will tend to lower the nurses' organizational commitment. Unfortunately Gray (1989) did not separate the nurses working full-time and those working part-time in his sample and thus we can only speculate that it was perhaps the nurses working full-time who reported that work interfered with their family life with resulting low organizational commitment, and that it was the nurses working part-time who pushed the "have children - high level of organizational commitment" relationship to statistically significant levels. Gaertner (1982) examined the employment status (employed or not employed) of American nurses in the context of a role conflict/job satisfaction model. Data was analyzed from questionnaires completed by 4 191 nurses currently employed or not employed at all. Gaertner (1982) found that the most satisfying aspects of nursing work were working with other nurses and working with patients. Nurses were least satisfied with the child care available to them and with the opportunities for promotion. Nurses with children under the age of 13 years living at home related more dissatisfaction with working conditions than those who had older children or no children at all. While the nursing work itself was the strongest positive correlate with hospital employment, competing role obligations (spouses and/or children) had a negative affect on work satisfaction and employment status. Gaertner (1982) concluded that role conflict contributed more heavily than other factors to nurse attrition.

CHAPTER 5

5. THE NURSING PROFESSION

5.1. Nurses in Great Britain and the United States

The nursing profession has, in industrial times, always been and remains to this day a female-dominated profession. White, Cox and Cooper (1992) have estimated that 90% of all the nurses in Great Britain are women. From the pioneering work carried out by Florence Nightingale (1820-1910) during the Crimean War, an idealized image of the nursing profession as being a vocation rather than "just a job" has remained with us. In his study of organizational commitment among British hospital nurses, Gray (1989) tested the hypothesis that nurses' commitment to work could be explained by feminine gender ideology, characterized by the traditional nurturing role expected of women. However, he did not find any support for this gender-based theory. Instead, he found that female nurses who had children had significantly higher organizational commitment than those who did not. He also found that those nurses who reported that work interfered with their family life also reported significantly lower levels of

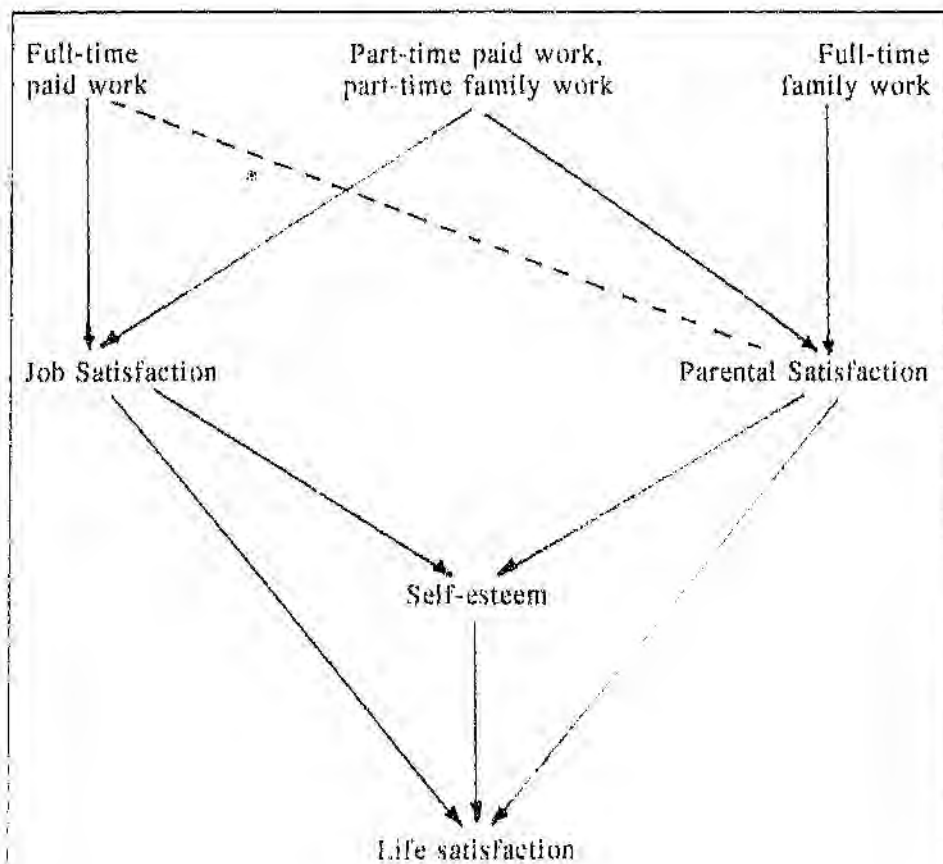


Figure 4

**A theoretical model of the relationship between
work scheduling options, job satisfaction,
parental satisfaction, self-esteem and life satisfaction**

* The broken line between full time employment and parental satisfaction indicates that though mothers who work full time also derive parental satisfaction from the parental role, their parental satisfaction would be less than that of mothers working part time or engaged in family work as a full time basis as a consequence of the time invested in paid work and family work respectively.

suggested that part-time work for working mothers achieves such a balance and is for this reason the optimal work scheduling option for working mothers with pre-school or primary school children, not only in terms of the alleviation of stress, but also in terms of the accumulation of role satisfaction.

A theoretical model of the accumulated satisfaction derived from paid employment and from family work should thus include the following variables: the work scheduling options available to the individual, the job satisfaction and parental satisfaction derived from the occupational role and the parental role respectively, and finally, the self-esteem and life satisfaction experienced by the individual.

satisfaction are positively related for both men and women, and women working part-time derive as much satisfaction from their jobs as their colleagues employed full-time. Having children satisfies our need for love and belongingness and reinforces our sense of being mature and responsible adults, both which in turn raise our feelings of self-worth and self-esteem. Satisfaction with family life generally has a very strong positive relationship with life satisfaction. The relationship between job satisfaction and satisfaction with family life is on the other hand not very strong, suggesting that they are two fairly independent life domains. If one accepts the additive model of role satisfaction proposed by Repetti (1986) it follows that the combined satisfaction derived from two domains or roles would result in a higher level of life satisfaction than if satisfaction is derived from only one domain or role. Women who work part-time are given the opportunity of satisfying their basic needs (survival, pleasure and contribution, (Astin, 1984)) both through paid employment and family work. It would in fact perhaps be unrealistic to assume that an individual's needs could be satisfied by one role alone. It is much more likely that two or more roles have the potential of being complementary in satisfying the individual's needs. It is suggested that the occupational role and the parental role are two such complementary roles that together have the potential of enhancing the self-esteem and life satisfaction of the working mother. The dividing line between role conflict and accumulated role satisfaction lies in achieving the optimal balance between the time and effort invested in a role and the satisfaction derived from it. It is

typical of most working men. Most women interrupt their careers at least once to give birth to and care for a child. This interrupted career pattern, particularly if women are out of the labour market for longer periods of time, is often associated with re-entry problems when these women want to go back to work. If they become widowed or divorced from their husbands after the child-bearing years, they may face a bleak retirement. The solution appears to be in giving women the option to retain their jobs on a part-time basis once they have had adequate maternity leave. In those countries where part-time work has become a viable option for working mothers, part-time work has replaced labour force interruptions. Working mothers who are able to work part-time in retention-type jobs on a voluntary basis tend to be more satisfied with their lives than working mothers who work full-time. From the employers point of view, part-time work reduces turnover as well as the costs associated with the recruitment and training of new employees.

4.2. Towards a theoretical model of employment status, family work and life satisfaction

Part-time work for mothers of young children is seen by many as being the work scheduling option that can alleviate role conflict and role strain. The advantages of part-time work for mothers of young children can however also be viewed from a role accumulation point of view: Job and life

occupation), work schedule (full-time, part-time) and employment status (voluntary, involuntary). The results of the study indicated that although women working part-time reported less centrality in the work place than women working full-time, they reported greater job satisfaction and happiness at work than women working full-time. Women working part-time voluntarily in the professions reported the highest degree of job satisfaction. Women involuntarily working full-time reported the lowest happiness. Women working part-time reported greater satisfaction with children than women working full-time. Unlike satisfaction with children, there were no significant differences among any of the groups in reporting marriage/partner satisfaction. Yet women working part-time reported greater happiness at home than women working full-time. Women overwhelmingly selected home over work when asked where they were happiest and there were no significant differences when examined by work schedule and profession. There was a tendency for women working part-time to report higher self-esteem than their full-time peers except women working in the male-dominated group, where the reverse was true.

4.1.4. Conclusion

In conclusion it can be stated that only a minority of women in industrialized countries are able to follow the uninterrupted career pattern

levels of job satisfaction. McGinnis and Morrow (1990) also compared the job satisfaction of White female hospital workers employed part-time and full-time; again no significant difference was obtained between these two groups. Barker (1993) conducted a thorough survey of the costs and benefits of women working full- and part-time. The sample comprised 315 predominantly White women working part- or full-time in male-dominated professions (law, executives), in female-dominated professions (nursing, elementary education) and in non-professional jobs (clerical, retail sales). The purpose of the study was to compare women's responses to full- and part-time employment. Barker (1993) introduced the construct of Centrality-Peripherality. Peripherality was defined as "low participation in organizational activities, high uncertainty, marginality in social relations and occupational disadvantage vis-à-vis skill development" (p.53). Centrality was defined in contrasting terms: high participation in organizational activities, control over uncertainty, positive and accepting social interactions, and skill advantages. Barker hypothesized that individuals who worked part-time would report greater peripherality than full-time workers. She further hypothesized that women who worked part-time in male-dominated professions would express lower work-related self-esteem than full-time peers and women working part-time in occupations that have traditionally provided part-time schedules. The independent variables in Barker's (1993) study thus included occupation (male-dominated profession, female-dominated profession and non-professional

A series of one-way analyses of variance (Kerlinger, 1973) were carried out on those variables for which the mean differences among the three sample groups appeared to be significant, viz: age, husband's income, mean age of children under 13 years of age, and age of youngest child. The results are presented in Tables 4, 5, 6 and 7.

TABLE 4				
Analysis of variance among the three sample groups on the biographical variable "Age"				
Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F-Value	P-Value
739,7361	2	369,8681	15,41	0,00
Significance of mean differences*				
	Mean	Full-time	Part-time	At home
Full-time	32,6		*	***
Part-time	30,1	*		-
At home	39,0	***	-	

*** 1% level

* 5% level

- 10% level

* Table 4: Wilcoxon's test for significance of mean differences

TABLE 3

Means and Standard Deviations of the biographical variables for the three sample groups

Variable	Full-Time N = 40				Part Time N = 29				At Home N = 32			
	Mean	S.D.	Min.	Max.	Mean	S.D.	Min.	Max.	Mean	S.D.	Min.	Max.
Age	32.6	4.5	24	41	36.1	4.9	28	47	39.0	5.4	29	50
Husband's income per month	R4 675,00 <	R1 268,70	R2 000,00 <	R6 000,00 <	R5 310,35 <	R1 003,69 <	R3 000,00 <	R6 000,00 <	R5 533,33 <	R819,30	R3 000,00 <	R6 000,00 <
Number of children under 14 years of age	1.8	0.8	1	3	1.9	0.7	1	3	1.8	1.0	1	5
Mean age of children under 14 years of age	5.3	3.0	1	11	6.1	2.7	2	11	7.3	3.7	1	12
Mean age of youngest child	4.0	2.6	1	10	4.7	3.0	1	11	6.1	4.1	1	12
Number of hours* of domestic help per week	22.5	14.8	0	40	22.4	12.4	0	40	21.8	15.1	0	40

* Many of the women did not have domestic help. These represented 20% of women working full time, 6% of women working part time and 15% of women at home.

CHAPTER 9

9. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

9.1. Sample characteristics

9.1.1. Response rate

One hundred-and-one usable questionnaires were returned out of the 263 distributed, representing a response rate of 42 %. This figure may be a slight under-estimate as not all questionnaires allocated to the 16 hospitals were actually handed out. This response rate can be compared to that of 40% obtained in a survey by the South African Nursing Association in 1990.

9.1.2. Biographical variables

The means and standard deviations of the biographical variables i.e. age, husband's income, number and age of children, and number of hours of domestic help per week, were calculated and are presented in Table 3.

introductory section outlining the main objectives of the study ("We are conducting research on the satisfaction women derive from important areas in their lives such as work and family"), the significance of their participation and emphasizing the confidential nature in which all research data would be handled. They were also given a stamped envelope addressed to the researcher so that they could post their questionnaire themselves ensuring the voluntary nature of their participation as well as confidentiality of the information given by them in the questionnaire (see Appendix I). The nurses at home were reached through nursing agencies as well as by means of the sociological sampling technique referred to as the "snowball" process (Guidibaldi and Cleminshaw, 1985), wherein volunteers themselves recruited additional subjects ("Do you have a colleague or friend who is a professional nurse who is presently at home looking after her children on a full-time basis?" - See Appendix I).

nursing sisters all worked day shift and were employed at sixteen separate private hospitals and clinics in Johannesburg, Sandton, Randburg, Bedfordview, Benoni, Kempton Park, Weltevreden Park, Alberton and Pretoria. Only day shift nurses were included in the sample as the advantages and disadvantages of night shift work in terms of, e.g. disturbed sleeping patterns would warrant a separate study with a somewhat differently formulated research question. Only White registered nurses were included in the sample as the private hospitals employ far more White than Non White nurses and only very few of the Non-White nurses choose to work part-time. At such a time when the socio-economic differences observed between the White and Black population groups have been equalised, the scope of such a study as this could and should be extended to include all population groups.

8.3. Procedure

Participation in this study was voluntary and anonymous. The Nursing Service Manager (Head Matron) at each hospital handed out the envelopes containing the research questionnaires to the participants. The research questionnaire comprised the Biographical Questionnaire, the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, the Parent Satisfaction Scale, the Index of Self-Esteem, the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire, as well as an

cluster were omitted for purposes of the present study as in the context of the political climate in South Africa in 1994, these four items ("The Present Government", "Freedom and Democracy in South Africa Today", "The Moral Standards and Values in South Africa Today" and "South Africa's Reputation in the World Today") were considered to be potential measures of political affiliation rather than of life satisfaction as such. The estimated internal reliability for this scale is 0.78 (Warr, Cook and Wall, 1979).

8.2. Sample

Registered nursing sisters were considered to be a suitable sample for purposes of the present study for the following two reasons: The availability of part-time posts for registered nurses at some hospitals, and the fact that nursing sisters working part-time have the same work content and hourly pay as those working full-time in comparable positions.

The sample comprised 101 White registered nursing sisters living in Gauteng. They were all married and they all had at least one child under 13 years of age living at home. Thirty-two of these nurses were at home with their children on a full time basis, 29 worked part time (24-30 hours per week) and 40 worked full-time (40-42 hours per week). The working

8.1.4. The Index of Self-Esteem

The Index of Self-Esteem is part of the Clinical Measurement Package developed by Hudson (1982). It was originally designed for repeated use with an individual client to monitor and evaluate progress in therapy. It comprises 25 items. Hudson (1982) reported an estimated reliability (Cronbach's Alpha) of 0.93 for this scale. Though further research is needed as regards the validity of this scale, its apparent face validity, reported high reliability and popularity among mental health workers in South Africa merits its inclusion in the present study.

8.1.5. The Life Satisfaction Questionnaire

The Life Satisfaction Questionnaire was developed by Warr, Cook and Wall (1979) to measure the degree to which a person reports satisfaction with salient features of his or her life and life space. It comprises sixteen items including one item that was designed to measure overall life satisfaction. A cluster analysis of these items carried out by Warr, Cook and Wall (1979) yielded an interpretable three component structure: "Satisfaction with Personal Life", "Satisfaction with Standards and Achievement" and "Satisfaction with Life Style". Of these, four of the items belonging to the "Satisfaction with Standards and Achievements"

overall job satisfaction. This questionnaire was developed as part of a larger study of the measurement of work attitudes and other aspects of psychological well-being. The scale is reported to have good internal reliability ($r = 0,85$) and to be factorially separate from the other seven scales developed for the Warr, Cook and Wall (1979) study. Good reliability estimates for this scale have also been reported in three South African Studies: Bluen, Barling and Burns (1990), 0,88; Bluen and Jubiler-Lurie (1990), 0,90; and Widrich and Ortlepp (1994) 0,86.

8.1.3. The Cleminshaw-Guidibaldi Parent Satisfaction Scale

The Cleminshaw-Guidibaldi Parent Satisfaction Scale (Cleminshaw and Guidibaldi, 1980) comprises 50 Likert-type items measuring five main factors: Spouse Support, Child-Parent Relationship, Parent Performance, Spouse Discipline and Control and General Satisfaction. For purposes of the present study, those items measuring Spouse Support and Spouse Discipline and Control were excluded from the scale in order to achieve a more pure measure of the mother's parental satisfaction. The estimated reliabilities (Cronbach's Alpha) quoted for the three remaining sub-scales by Cleminshaw and Guidibaldi (1980) are: 0,86 for Parent-Child Relationship, 0,83 for Parent Performance and 0,76 for General Satisfaction respectively.

CHAPTER 8

8. METHOD

8.1. Measuring instruments

8.1.1. The Biographical Questionnaire

A biographical questionnaire was devised by the writer designed to elicit information as regards the subjects' age, employment status, yearly income, employment status preferences and short-term career plans. The questionnaire also includes questions pertaining to the subject's children (number, age and sex), child care arrangements and domestic help. Information as regards to the husbands employment status and yearly income was also asked for.

8.1.2. The Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

The Job Satisfaction Questionnaire was designed by Warr, Cook and Wall (1979) to measure both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. It comprises sixteen items including one item measuring the respondents'

CHAPTER 7

7. THE HYPOTHESES

Following from the overview of the research literature, the theoretical model of employment status, family work and life satisfaction, the following two hypotheses have been formulated for the study.

Hypothesis 1:

Mothers who work part-time derive as much job satisfaction as those who work full-time and as much parental satisfaction as those who devote themselves to family work on a full-time basis

and therefore,

Hypothesis 2:

Mothers who work part-time enjoy higher levels of self-esteem and are more satisfied with their lives than mothers who work full-time or those who devote themselves to family work on a full-time basis.

CHAPTER 6

6. THE AIMS OF THE STUDY

The primary aim of this study is to investigate whether or not South African women who have pre-school or primary school children are more satisfied with their lives if they work part-time than if they work full-time or are at home with their children on a full-time basis, and if so, whether these differences in levels of life satisfaction can be attributed to the accumulated role satisfaction and self-esteem they derive from their part-time work (job satisfaction) and family work (parental satisfaction) respectively

pre-school or primary school age. Only the private sector offers nurses the option of working part-time.

Whereas the public sector has an equal number of White and Non-White nurses, the private sector employs more White than Non-White nurses. As in other countries it is above all the non-market related salaries, inflexible working hours and lack of opportunities for promotion that has led to the high level of attrition among South African nurses.

A closer inspection of the means and standard deviations of the individual items of the Job Satisfaction Scale revealed that the three aspects of their job the working nurses enjoyed most were: "The amount of responsibility they were given" (Mean = 5,50); "The opportunity to use their abilities" (5,40); and "The physical work conditions" (5,40). The lowest means were obtained for the items concerning: "Their chances of promotion" (4,09); "Their rate of pay" (4,13); and "Industrial relations between management and workers at their place of work" (4,13).

As for the Parent Satisfaction Scale, the most rewarding aspects of parenting appeared to be: "My children like me" (Mean = 3,6) "The love and affection I receive from my children" (3,54); and the feeling that "Effort made by parents is worthwhile in the long run" (3,54). The least rewarding aspects of parenting appeared to be: "Becoming impatient with children" (1,99); "Being inconsistent in parenting behaviour" (2,28); and "The most difficult years of my marriage have been the childrearing years" (2,30).

The means of the individual items on the Index of Self-esteem suggest that a belief in oneself was the greatest source of self-esteem: "Not believing that being like anyone else would improve one's life" (Mean = 4,39); "Not feeling like a wallflower" (4,35); "Not feeling like a bore" (4,20). Still many felt they needed more self-confidence (3,11) and were short on

TABLE 12						
Means, Standard Deviations and Coefficient Alpha* for The Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, The Clemminshaw-Guldibaldi Parent Satisfaction Scale, The Index of Self-Esteem and The Life Satisfaction questionnaire for the total sample						
	N	Mean	SD	Min ^{***}	Max ^{***}	Coefficient Alpha
Job Satisfaction Questionnaire	69	73,4	12,3	50	98	0,90
Parent Satisfaction Questionnaire	101	89,3	8,9	67	109	0,88
Index of Self-Esteem	101	97,5	13,7	42	122	0,94
Life Satisfaction Questionnaire	101	39,1	5,4	24	49	0,83

* Cronbach, L.J. (1951) Coefficient Alpha and the internal structure of tests. Psychometrika, 16, 297-334

*** The possible minimum and maximum scores for the four scales are as follows:
 The Job Satisfaction Questionnaire: 15 - 105
 The Clemminshaw Guldibaldi Parent Satisfaction Scale: 30 - 120
 The Index of Self-Esteem: 25 - 125
 The Life Satisfaction Questionnaire: 10 - 50

As can be seen in Table 12 above good internal reliabilities were obtained for all four scales on a par with or better than those reported previously in the research literature (See Section 8.1)

As can be observed in Table 11 both the "Part-timers" and the "At homes" were significantly more satisfied with their present work status than the "Full-timers" (at the 1 % and 5 % level respectively).

9.2. The Four Scales

9.2.1. Means, Standard Deviations and internal reliability of scales

The means, standard deviations and internal reliabilities of The Job Satisfaction, The Clemminshaw-Guidibaldi Parent Satisfaction Scale, The Index of Self-Esteem and The Life Satisfaction Questionnaire were calculated for the total sample of 101 subjects (69 subjects for The Job Satisfaction Questionnaire) and are presented in Table 12.

TABLE 10			
Means and Standard Deviations for the three sample groups on the "Satisfaction with work status" variable			
	Full-time	Part-time	At home
Mean	2,1*	2,7	2,5
Standard Deviation	0,6	0,5	0,6
Minimum	1	1	1
Maximum	3	2	3

* Satisfied = 3, Mixed Feelings = 2, No = 1

In order to establish whether the differences in the means observed in Table 10 were statistically significant or not, a one-way analysis of variance was carried out and the results are presented in Table 11.

TABLE 11				
Analysis of variance among the three sample groups on the variable "Satisfaction with work status"				
Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F-Value	P-Value
5,6078	2	2,8039	8,99	0,00
Significance of mean differences				
	Mean	Full-time	Part-time	At home
Full-time	2,1		**	*
Part-time	2,7	**		
At home	2,5	*		

** 1 % level

* 5 % level

0 10 % level

It is clear from Table 9 that part-time work was the preferred choice of the majority of subjects (61,4 %) followed by being "at home" (26,7 %) with only a small group that stated they were either satisfied working full-time or would prefer to work full-time (10,9 %). It can also be noted that these proportions remain fairly stable in terms of future predictions, with 69,3 % of the subjects stating that they would prefer to work part-time in five years' time, 17,8 % stating that they would prefer to stay at home, and 11,9 % planning for full-time work. The main difference between "now" and "in five years' time" is obviously the higher percentage of subjects wishing to work part-time in five years time. In summary it can be stated that in this sample of registered nurses with children under 13 years of age the great majority preferred part-time work to full-time work or to staying at home on a full-time basis.

A correlation coefficient was calculated for the relationship between the number of hours worked per week by each subject and the subjects' satisfaction with their present work status (N = 69, "Full-time" and "Part-time" samples only). The correlation coefficient obtained was 0,48^{**}, indicating that longer working hours leads to lower levels of satisfaction with work status. Means and Standard Deviations were calculated for the three sample groups' responses to the "Are you satisfied with this choice" item (See Appendix 1) and are presented in Table 10.

^{**} Significant at the 0.05 level

TABLE 9											
The subjects' preferences regarding work status, now and in five years time											
Are you satisfied with your present choice?											
Full time N = 40				Part time* N = 20			At home N = 32				
Yes	Mixed Feelings	No		Yes	Mixed Feelings	No	Yes	Mixed Feelings	No		
10	25	5		20	9	0	16	15	1		
(25%)	(62,5%)	(12,5%)		(68,0%)	(31%)	(0%)	(50%)	(46,8%)	(3,1%)		
What would you prefer to do?											
Mixed Feelings		No		Mixed Feelings			Mixed Feelings		No		
Part-time Work	To be at home	Part-time work	To be at home	Full-time work	To be at home		Full-time work	Part-time work	Full-time work	Part-time work	
24	1	2	3	1	7		0	15	0	1	
(60%)	(2,5%)	(5%)	(7,5%)	(3,4%)	(24,1%)		(0%)	(46,8%)	(0%)	(3,1%)	
What do you think your choice will be in five years time?											
	Full-time work	Part-time work	To be at home		Full-time work	Part-time work	To be at home		Full-time work	Part-time work	To be at home
	9	25	6		2	18	8		1	27	4
	(22,5%)	(62,5%)	(15%)		(7,1%)	(64,2%)	(28,6%)		(3,1%)	(84,3%)	(12,5%)

* Missing information for one subject (5%) in response to the questions: "What would you prefer to do?" and "What do you think your choice will be in five years time?"

9.1.3. Preferences

In the biographical section of the research questionnaire the subjects were asked if they were satisfied with their present work status and if not, what they would prefer to do. The subjects were also asked what they thought their choice would be in five years' time (See Appendix 1). The results of this inquiry are presented in Table 9.

The conclusions which can be drawn from Table 8 can be summarized as follows: The age of the subject's children is strongly related to their mother's age i.e. the older the mother the older the children. The husband's income is also related to the subject's age (the older the subject the higher the husband's income is). The number of hours of domestic help the subjects have per week is positively related to both the number of children under 13 years of age in the family and to the husband's income.

Over 26 % of the subjects mentioned their domestic servants in response to the question: "If you work, how are these children cared for when you work day shift?" (See Appendix I). Over 80 % of the subjects were satisfied with their childcare arrangements, which included a variety of combinations of the following: school, nursery school, after-school care, creche at hospital where they worked or elsewhere, daymother, domestic servant, grandparents and the children's father. Out of the 19 % who were not satisfied with their childcare arrangements, some 46 % stated that they would prefer to be at home and look after their children themselves or have working hours more conducive to raising young children. Other wishes included a 24 hour creche at the hospital where they were employed and more help from their families.

TABLE 8						
Intercorrelation coefficients for the biographical variables						
	Age	Husband's income	Number of children under 13 years of age	Mean age of children under 13 years of age	Mean age of youngest child	Number of hours of domestic help per week
Age	1,00					
Husband's income	0,30**	1,00				
Number of children under 13 years of age	0,15	-0,07	1,00			
Mean age of children under 13 years of age	0,65**	0,13	0,00	1,00		
Mean age of youngest child	0,66**	0,36	0,35**	0,90**	1,00	
Number of hours of domestic helper week	0,01	0,35**	0,36**	0,06	0,05	1,00

* 5% level

** 1% level

TABLE 7

Analysis of variance among the three sample groups
on the biographical variable "Mean age of youngest child"

Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F-Value	P-Value
77,8168	2	38,9084	3,67	0,02
Significance of mean differences				
	Mean	Full-time	Part-time	At home
Full-time	4,0			
Part-time	4,7			
At home	6,1	*		

*** 1 % level

* 5 % level

- 10 % level

As can be deduced from Table 7, the mean age of the "At homes'" youngest children was significantly greater (at the 5 % level) than the mean age of the "Full-timers'" youngest children.

In order to obtain a better understanding of the relationship between the various biographical variables, a set of correlation coefficients was calculated and is presented in Table 8.

TABLE 6

Analysis of variance among the three sample groups
on the biographical variable "Mean age of children
under 13 years of age"

Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F-Value	P-Value
72,0128	2	36,0064	3,59	0,03
Significance of mean differences				
	Mean	Full-time	Part-time	At home
Full-time	5,3			
Part-time	6,1			
At home	7,3	*		

** 1 % level

* 5 % level

- 10 % level

As can be deduced from Table 6, the mean age of the "At homes" children was higher than that of the "Full-timers" children. This was significant at the 5 % level

As can be deduced from Table 4, both the "Part-timers" and the "At homes" were significantly older than the "Full-timers" (at the 5 % and 1 % level respectively) with the age difference between the "Part-timers" and the "At homes" being significant at the 10 % level only.

TABLE 5

**Analysis of variance among the three sample groups
on the biographical variable " Husband's Income"**

Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F-Value	P-Value
14096892,0000	2	7,04845	6,13	0,00
Significance of mean differences				
	Mean	Full-time	Part-time	At home
Full-time	R4 675,00<		*	***
Part-time	R5 310,35<	*		
At home	R5 533,33<	***		

*** 1 % level

* 5 % level

- 10 % level

As can be deduced from Table 5, both the "Part-timers'" and the "At homes'" husbands' incomes were higher than the "Full-timers'" husbands' incomes. These differences were significant at the 5 % and 1 % level respectively.

As can be seen in Table 20, it was "Satisfaction with work status", Self-esteem and "Husband's income" that made the greatest contribution towards the multiple regression coefficient of 0,64.

9.3.2.2. Self-esteem

Using the 1 % level of significance as the cut-off point for inclusion, the relationship between Self-esteem, the Job Satisfaction and Parental Satisfaction scales as well as the other important covariates could be ordered and summarized as follows:

The main significant covariates with Self-esteem were:

- Parental Satisfaction (0,45**)
- Job Satisfaction (0,39**)
- "Satisfaction with work status" (0,38**)

A multiple regression analysis using Self-esteem as the criterion, with Parental Satisfaction, Job Satisfaction and "Satisfaction with work status" entered as predictor variables, was carried out in order to ascertain what proportion of the Self-esteem scale variance could be accounted for by the main significant covariates. The results are presented in Table 21.

The main significant covariates with Life Satisfaction were:

- Self esteem (0.44^{***})
- "Satisfaction with work status" (0.40^{**})
- Parental satisfaction (0.32^{**})
- "Husband's income" (0.32^{***})
- Job satisfaction (0.28^{***})

A multiple regression analysis using Life Satisfaction as the criterion with Self-esteem, "Satisfaction with work status", Parental Satisfaction, "Husband's income" and Job Satisfaction entered as predictor variables was carried out in order to ascertain what proportion of the Life Satisfaction scale variance could be accounted for by the main significant covariates. The results are presented in Table 20.

TABLE 20		
Multiple regression of Self-esteem, "Satisfaction with work status", Parental Satisfaction, "Husband's income" and Job Satisfaction on Life Satisfaction		
Multiple R 0.64		
Variable	Standard Regression Coefficient	P-Value
"Satisfaction with work status"	0,33	0,00
Self-Esteem	0,30	0,01
"Husband's income"	0,21	0,03
Parental satisfaction	0,13	0,24
Job satisfaction	0,03	0,76

As can be seen in Table 19, the main covariate with the four scales was the "Satisfaction with work status" variable which was significantly positively correlated with all four scales. The second main covariate, the "Husband's income" variable was significantly positively correlated with three of the four scales viz: Parental Satisfaction, Self-esteem and Life Satisfaction. The third most important variable, "Number of hours worked per week" was, as commented on earlier, strongly negatively correlated with the "Satisfaction with work status" variable, as well as being significantly negatively correlated with Parental Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction. It can also be noted that the set of correlations between the biographical variables indicate that both "Age" and "Husband's income" have a significant negative relationship with "Number of hours worked per week". It should be borne in mind that there is also a significant positive relationship between "Age" and "Husband's income".

9.3.2. Multiple Regression

9.3.2.1. Life Satisfaction

Using the 1% level of significance as the cut-off point for inclusion, the relationship between Life Satisfaction, 11 ± three other scales, as well as the other important covariates, could be ordered and summarized as follows:

TABLE 19

Intercorrelation coefficient for the relationship between the four scales and their covariates

	Age	Husbands' income	Number of children under 13 years of age	Mean age of children under 13 years of age	Mean age of youngest child	Number of hours of domestic help per week	Number of hours worked per week	Satisfaction with work status	Job Satisfaction	Parental Satisfaction	Self Esteem	Life Satisfaction
Age	1,00											
Husband's income	0,30**	1,00										
Number of children under 13 years of age			1,00									
Mean age of children under 13 years of age	0,65**			1,00								
Mean age of youngest child	0,66**		0,35**	0,91**	1,00							
Number of hours of domestic help per week		0,35**	0,36			1,00						
Number of hours worked per week	0,33**	0,26**					1,00					
Satisfaction with work status							0,48**	1,00				
Job Satisfaction								0,31**	1,00			
Parental Satisfaction		0,21*					0,34**	0,28**	0,23*	1,00		
Self-esteem		0,22*						0,38**	0,19**	0,45**	1,00	
Life satisfaction		0,32*					0,26*	0,40**	0,38**	0,33**	0,54**	1,00

** 1 % level of significance

* 5 % level of significance

other hand, intercorrelations for all the variables included in the study were calculated. Those correlation coefficients which were significant at either the 5 % or 1 % level are presented in Table 19.

TABLE 18				
Intercorrelation Matrix for the Four Scales				
	Job Satisfaction	Parental Satisfaction	Self- esteem	Life Satisfaction
Job satisfaction	1,00			
Parental satisfaction	0,23***	1,00		
Self-esteem	0,39***	0,45***		
Life Satisfaction	0,28***	0,32***	0,44***	1,00

*** 1% level

As can be seen from Table 18, all the four scales were significantly correlated with one another at the 1% level. The highest correlation in this set was between Self-esteem and Life Satisfaction, the lowest between Job Satisfaction and Parental Satisfaction.

9.3. The relationship between the four scales and their covariates

9.3.1. Intercorrelations

In order to gain some insight into the relationship between Job Satisfaction, Parental Satisfaction, Self Esteem and Life Satisfaction on one hand and possible covariates among the biographical variables on the

TABLE 16				
Analysis of variance among the three sample groups on their scores on the Index of Self-Esteem				
Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F-Value	P-Value
173,1575	2	86,5787	0,46	0,63

TABLE 17				
Analysis of variance among the three sample groups on their scores on the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire				
Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F-Value	P-Value
160,9936	2	80,4968	2,86	0,06

There were no significant differences between the means of the three sample groups' scores on the Index of Self-esteem nor on the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire and thus Hypothesis 2 is rejected.

9.2.3. Intercorrelations between the four scales

The intercorrelations between the four scales were calculated and these correlation coefficients are presented in Table 18.

Whereas the "At homes" mean was significantly higher (at the 5% level) than the "Full-timers", there was no significant difference between the means of the "At-homes" and the "Part-timers", nor was there a significant difference between the means of the "Full-timers" and the Part-timers".

On the basis of the evidence presented in Tables 14 and 15 Hypothesis 1 was accepted.

9.2.2.2. Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 stated:

Mothers who work part-time enjoy higher levels of self-esteem and are more satisfied with their lives than mothers who work full-time or devote themselves to family work on a full-time basis.

In order to test these hypotheses statistically two sets of analysis of variance were conducted on the scores obtained by the three sample groups on the Index of Self-Esteem and on the Life Satisfaction Scale respectively, and the results are presented in Tables 16 and 17 below.

TABLE 14

Analysis of variance between the "Full-timers" and the
"Part-timers" on the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F-Value	P-Value
76,0997	1	76,0997	0,50	0,48

There was no significant difference between the means of the "Full-timers" and "Part-timers" scores on the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire.

TABLE 15

Analysis of variance among the three sample groups
on their scores on the Parent Satisfaction Scale

Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F-Value	P-Value
520,1949	2	260,0974	3,46	0,03
Significance of mean differences				
	Mean	Full-time	Part-time	At home
Full-time	86,6			
Part-time	89,9			
At home	91,4			

*** 1% level

** 5% level

* 10% level

The means and standard deviations presented in Table 13 indicate that there were mostly only very small mean differences among the three groups on the four scales with the exception of the Parental Satisfaction Scale where there appeared to be a real difference between the means of the "Full-timers" and the "At homes". The range of scores was also fairly uniform across the four scales for the three groups, with the exception of the Self-esteem scale where the minimum score for the "Part-timers" was 33 points higher than the minimum score for the "Full-timers" and 38 points higher than the "At homes".

9.2.2.1. Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated:

Mothers who work part-time derive as much job satisfaction as those who work full-time and as much parental satisfaction as those who devote themselves to family work on a full-time basis.

In order to test these hypotheses statistically a one-way analysis of variance was carried out on the scores obtained by the "Full-timers" and "Part-timers" respectively on the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, as well as a one-way analysis of variance on the scores obtained by the three sample groups on the Parent Satisfaction Scale:

TABLE 13

Means and Standard Deviations of the four scales for the three sample groups

	Full-time N = 40				Part time				At home			
Scale	Mean	S.D.	Min.	Max.	Mean	S.D.	Min.	Max.	Mean	S.D.	Min.	Max.
Jobsatisfaction	74,3	13,3	50	98	72,4	10,9	50	94				
Parental satisfaction	86,6	8,0	67	106	90,0	9,5	67	107	92,0	8,7	72	109
Self-esteem	96,0	15,2	47	122	99,1	9,4	80	117	97,8	15,0	42	119
Life satisfaction	37,6	5,2	24	49	40,1	5,4	26	49	40,2	5,3	29	48

physical beauty (3,22) and although they all either were working with or had worked with the general public, they were not comfortable with strangers (3,67).

Finally, the subjects' responses to the Life Satisfaction Scale items indicated that the majority of them were satisfied with: "The area I live in" (Mean = 4,21); "The education I have received" (4,21); and "My family life" (4,17). They were on the whole not satisfied with: "What the future seems to hold for me (3,56); "My social life" (3,57); and "The way I spend my leisure time" (3,59).

9.2.2. Mean differences among the three sample groups

In order to establish whether there were any observable mean differences among the three sample groups on the four scales, the means and standard deviations for each scale across the three groups were calculated and are presented in Table 13.

There appear to be two main factors inhibiting married women from freely choosing their preferred work status: their husbands' income and the availability of part-time jobs. In the Government's Green Paper on the New Employment Standards (Malaba, 1996) it is proposed that part-time workers be entitled to the same protections and benefits as full-time workers, on a proportional basis. These new laws, if passed, may encourage the creation of more part-time jobs in South Africa, but in the final analysis it is up to the women to demand the changes they need in the work place in order to achieve their full potential as mothers and workers.

10.5. Limitations of the study

The study would have benefited from a larger sample as well as by the inclusion of other cultural groups. By including other cities, such as Durban and Cape Town in the study, these limitations may have been overcome.

10.6. Suggestions for future research

As the childbearing and rearing stage is only one of many important stages in a woman's life, it is suggested that future studies focus on the work,

"At homes", it was somewhat surprising that these differences were not reflected in any mean differences either in self esteem or in life satisfaction for this sample.

10.4. Conclusion

Though the women working part-time enjoyed as much job satisfaction as the women working full-time, and as much parental satisfaction as the women "At home", they did not differ significantly in terms of their levels of self-esteem or life satisfaction from those women who were working full-time or who were at home with their families on a full-time basis.

The fact that such a large proportion (61,4%) of the women included in this study stated that they would prefer to work part-time should however not be overlooked. The significant and positive relationship between parental satisfaction and self-esteem is also an important finding of this study. The results further suggested that long working hours had a significantly negative relationship with parental satisfaction and satisfaction with work status as well as with life satisfaction. Finally, it is important to note that over half (54,4%) of the sample stated that they were not satisfied with their present work status.

It should however be emphasized that not all the three sample groups' means were the same on the Parent Satisfaction Scale. The "At homes'" mean was significantly higher than the "Full timers'" mean. These findings can be related to those of Barker (1993) who found that women working part-time reported greater satisfaction with children than women working full-time.

10.3.3.3. Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 stated that:

Mothers who work part time enjoy higher levels of self-esteem and are more satisfied with their lives than mothers who work full-time or those who devote themselves to family work on a full-time basis.

As there was no significant differences among the means of the three sample groups' scores on the Index of Self-esteem or on the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire, Hypothesis 2 was rejected.

After finding that such an overwhelming majority of the nurses preferred part time work, that the nurses working full-time were less satisfied with their work status than both the "Part-timers" and the "At homes", and further that the "Full-timers" enjoyed less parental satisfaction than the

they needed more self-confidence and were unsure of their physical appearance. Finally, the nurses' responses to the Life Satisfaction Scale indicated that the majority of them were satisfied with the area they lived in, their education and their family life. The nurses' satisfaction with family life can be related to Haavio Mannila's (1971) study on life satisfaction in which she found that family satisfaction had the highest correlation with overall life satisfaction. Less satisfying was, among other things, the nurses' leisure time and their social life. It is not hard to imagine that for a working mother of young children there is not much time left for leisure or for a social life at the end of the day.

10.3.3.2. Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated that:

Mothers who work part-time derive as much job satisfaction as those who work full time and as much parental satisfaction as those who devote themselves to family work on a full-time basis.

As there was no significant difference between the means of the "Part-timers" and "Full-timers" scores on the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, nor between the means of the "Part-timers" and "At homes" on the Parental Satisfaction Scale, Hypothesis 1 was accepted.

A closer inspection of the means and standard deviations of the individual items of the four scales (See Appendix I and Appendix II) revealed that whereas the nurses enjoyed the amount of responsibility they were given and the opportunity to use their abilities, as well as the actual physical work conditions, they rated their chance of promotion, their rate of pay and the industrial relations between management and workers at their places of work as being quite low. These findings can be related to the South African Nursing Association's (1990a & b) inquiry into the nursing profession which found that the reasons for high staff-turnover in the profession included non-market related salaries and a bureaucratic style of management. The lack of opportunities for promotion in the nursing profession appears to be a source of dissatisfaction world wide, with Gaertner (1982) listing poor opportunities for promotion as one of the greatest sources of dissatisfaction for American nurses. As for the Parental Satisfaction Scale, just like in Beckman's (1978) study where the most salient rewards of parenthood included the relationship with the child (e.g. getting and giving love), the items reflecting this quality, i.e. "My children like me" and "The love and affection I receive from my children" ranked the highest together with "Efforts made by parents is worthwhile in the long run". As is the case with many other parents world wide, the item means indicated that even this sample of nursing sisters found it difficult always to be patient and consistent in their parenting behaviour. Though the subject's responses to the Self-esteem Index indicated that they did not want to change places with anyone else, many of them believed

terms of stated future wishes but with a somewhat higher percentage of subjects wishing to work part-time in five years time. The correlation coefficient of $-0,48^{**}$ obtained for the relationship between the number of hours worked per week by each subject and those subjects' satisfaction with their present work status, indicated that longer working hours lead to lower levels of satisfaction with work status. It was found in fact that both the "Part-timers" and the "At homes" were significantly more satisfied with their present work status than the "Full-timers". These findings can be related to the study conducted by Barker (1993) where she found that women involuntary working full-time reported the lowest happiness.

10.3.5. Job Satisfaction, Parental Satisfaction, Self-esteem and Life Satisfaction

10.3.3.1. Characteristics of the Scales

High internal reliability coefficients on par with or higher than those previously quoted for the four scales were obtained (See Section 8.11, which was particularly pleasing in view of the fact that neither Hudson's (1982) Index of Self-esteem, nor the Clemminshaw and Guidibaldi (1980) Parent Satisfaction Scale, appeared to have been used for research purposes in South Africa before.

**** significant at 1% level**

older the woman is the older her children are and at the same time, the higher her husband's income is (presumably because he is older and better established), the less likely she is to work full-time.

There were no significant differences among the three groups in terms of the "Number of hours of domestic help per week", but it should be noted that as many as 20% of the women working full-time had no domestic help at all compared to 6% of the women working part-time and 15% of the women "At home". This finding can be related to the fact that the number of hours of domestic help per week was significantly related to the husband's income as well as to the number of children under 13 years of age in the family. So, though according to Skowno (1985) and Richardson (1991) South African society differs from American and other Western societies in terms of availability of domestic help, it is not necessarily the women in need of social support who have domestic help, but rather the women who can afford it.

10.3.2. Satisfaction with work status

Part-time work was the preferred choice of the majority of subjects (61,4%) followed by being "At home" (26,7%) with only a small group that stated that they were either satisfied working full-time or would prefer to work full-time (10,9%). These proportions remained fairly stable in

10.3. Differences among the three sample groups

10.3.1. Biographical Variables

The "Part-timers" and the "At homes" were significantly older than the "Full-timers", with the "At homes" being slightly older than the "Part-timers". These differences can be related to the age groups in Table 1 on page 10 where the percentage of working women in the 35-54 year age group is 9% less than the working women in the 25-34 year age group.

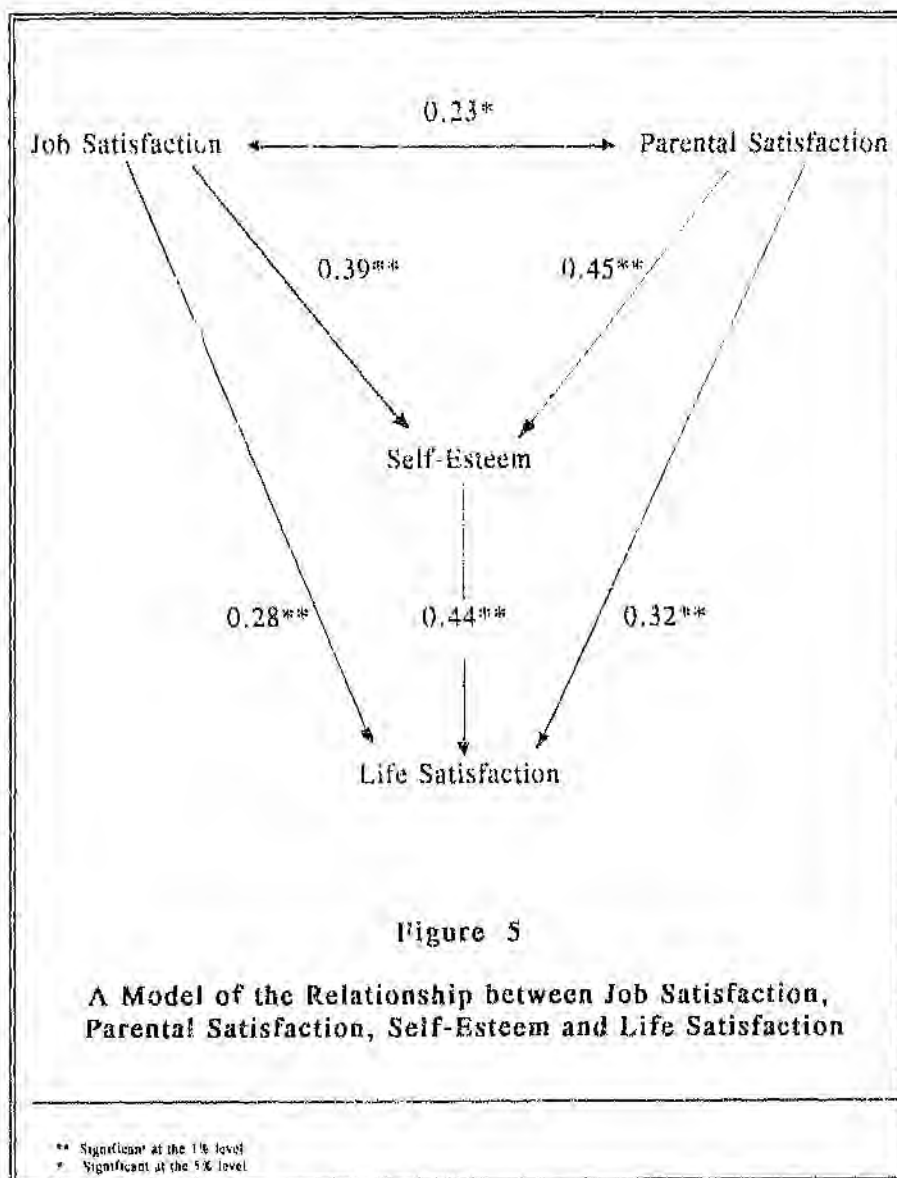
The "Part-timers" and the "At homes" husbands' incomes were significantly higher than the "Full-timers" husbands' incomes. This finding is in line with those of Hirschowitz (1987) and Pettersson (1982) who both found that the lower the husband's salary is, the more likely it is that the woman will work outside the home.

A somewhat unexpected finding was that the mean age of the "At homes'" youngest children was significantly greater than the mean age of the "Full-timers'" youngest children, as Pettersson (1982) had found that the younger the child is, the less likely it is that the woman will choose to work full-time. However, many (75%) of the women working full-time had mixed feelings or were not satisfied with their work status. There appears instead to be a fairly complex relationship between a woman's age, her children's age, her husband's income and her work status. In short: The

10.2. The relationship between Job Satisfaction, Parental Satisfaction, Self-esteem, Life Satisfaction and their covariates

Judging from the intercorrelation matrix given in Table 19 (See Section 9.3) it is clear that the "Satisfaction with work status" variable is the main covariate with Job Satisfaction, Parental Satisfaction, Self-esteem and Life Satisfaction. The second main covariate is the "Husband's income" variable which is significantly and positively correlated with Parental Satisfaction, Self-esteem and Life Satisfaction. Finally, the third important covariate is the "Number of hours worked per week", which is significantly and negatively correlated with the "Satisfaction with work status" variable as well as being significantly and negatively correlated with Parental Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction.

This picture is further clarified with the two multiple regressions given in Table 21 and Table 22 (See Section 9.3). Only covariates that were significantly correlated with Self-esteem or Life Satisfaction at the 1% level were included as predictors in these regression analyses. Job Satisfaction and Parental Satisfaction emerged as the best predictors of Self-esteem whereas "Satisfaction with work status", Self-esteem and "Husband's income" were the best predictors of Life Satisfaction.



The model of interrelationships and intercorrelations given above suggests that Job Satisfaction and Parental Satisfaction contribute to Life Satisfaction indirectly through their contribution to Self-esteem as well as directly through their somewhat weaker relationship with Life Satisfaction itself.

CHAPTER 10

10. DISCUSSION

10.1. The relationship between Job Satisfaction, Parental Satisfaction, Self-esteem and Life Satisfaction

Job satisfaction, parental satisfaction, self-esteem and life satisfaction were all significantly and positively correlated with one another and their pattern of intercorrelations appeared to fit their proposed interrelationship as given in Figure 4 on page 66. In Figure 5 this proposed relationship is reproduced with the appropriate correlation coefficients added.

TABLE 21		
Multiple regression of Parental Satisfaction, Job Satisfaction and "Satisfaction with work status" on Self-esteem		
Multiple R = 0,50		
Variable	Standard Regression Coefficient	P-Value
Job Satisfaction	0,28	0,02
Parental Satisfaction	0,26	0,02
"Satisfaction with work status"	0,15	0,18

As can be seen in Table 21, Job Satisfaction and Parental Satisfaction made the greatest contribution towards the multiple regression coefficient of 0,50.

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status preferences, job satisfaction, self-esteem and life satisfaction of women at other stages of their lives, such as the stage before their first child is born and the stage when all their children are in senior school or have left home.

It is also suggested that the present study be repeated on other occupational and cultural groups where possible.

THIS SECTION SHOULD ONLY BE COMPLETED BY RESPONDENTS PRESENTLY WORKING FULL-TIME OR PART-TIME. IF YOU ARE PRESENTLY AT HOME ON A FULL-TIME BASIS PLEASE PROCEED TO SECTION C

SECTION B

This set of items deals with various aspects of your job. We would like you to tell us how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel with each of these features of your present job. Each item names some aspects of your job. Just indicate on the scale below how satisfied you are in each instance. Please circle the appropriate number.

	Extremely dissatisfied Very dissatisfied Moderately dissatisfied Not sure Moderately satisfied Very satisfied Extremely satisfied						
1. The physical work conditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The freedom to choose your own method of working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Your fellow workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The recognition you get for good work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Your immediate boss	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. The amount of responsibility you are given	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Your rate of pay	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Your opportunity to use your abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19A. How many children *under* the age of 13
do you have living at home with you?

How many children *above* the age of 13
do you have living at home with you?

19B. Please give further details in the appropriate box:

	Age	Sex
Child 1		
Child 2		
Child 3		
Child 4		
Child 5		

20A. If you work (part-time or full time),
how are these children cared
for when you work day shift?

20B. how are these children cared
for when you work night shift?

21. Do you find these arrangements satisfactory?

22. If not, what arrangements would you prefer?

Do you have a colleague or friend who is a professional nurse who is presently at home looking
after her children on a full time basis? If so, please give me her name and telephone number so
I can contact her and ask her if she would also be willing to participate in this research project.

Her name:

Her telephone number

9. Are you satisfied with this choice?
(Please put a X in the appropriate box.)

Yes

Mixed feelings

No

10. If you are not satisfied what would you prefer to do?
(Please put a X in the appropriate box.)

To be at home full-time

To work part-time

To work full-time

11. What do you think your choice would be in five years time?
(Please put a X in the appropriate box.)

To be at home full-time

To work part-time

To work full-time

12. How many hours did you work in your professional capacity as a nurse on average, per week, last month?

13. Did you work:
(Please put a X in the appropriate box.)

Mainly day shifts

Mainly night shifts

Both day and night shifts

14. How many hours did you work other than in your professional capacity on average, per week, last month?
(Only count hours worked for which you are paid, not housework!)

15. What is your monthly income before tax approximately?
(Please put a X in the appropriate box.)

Under R2000

R2000-R3000

R3000-R4000

R4000-R5000

R5000-R6000

Above R6000

16. What is your husband's monthly income before tax approximately?
(Please put a X in the appropriate box.)

Under R2000

R2000-R3000

R3000-R4000

R4000-R5000

R5000-R6000

Above R6000

17. Do you have domestic help?

None

Less than 10 hours a week

20 hours or less a week

30 hours or less a week

40 hours or more a week

(Please put a X in the appropriate box.)

18. Does this domestic servant:
(Please put a X in the appropriate box.)

Live in

Live out

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY
RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

We are conducting research on the satisfaction women derive from important areas in their lives such as work and family. We are focusing our research on married women with at least one child under the age of 13 years. We shall be very grateful for your co-operation in filling in this questionnaire. Please try to answer ALL the questions! We do not ask you for your name and have no means of identifying you. Hence all the information you give us will be confidential. Please return the completed questionnaire in the self addressed envelope provided.

With kind regards

Viveka Christerson and Ralph Wortley
University of the Witwatersrand
(Tel: 011 - 706-6595)

PRIVATE AND CONFIDENTIAL

SECTION A

1. Age: _____
2. Marital status: _____
3. Home language: _____
4. Highest standard passed at school: _____
5. Post-school training (degree or diploma): _____
6. Job title/Rank (if employed at a hospital): _____
7. Hospital where employed (or where last employed if now not working): _____
8. Are you presently:

At home full time	Working part-time	Working full time
----------------------	----------------------	----------------------

APPENDIX I

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Warr, P., Cook, J. and Wall, T. (1979). Scales for the measurement of some work attitudes and aspects of psychological well-being. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 52, 129-148.

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60	Parsat10	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
61	Parsat11	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
62	Parsat12	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
63	SifErat10	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
64	SifErat11	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
65	SifErat12	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
66	SifErat13	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
67	SifErat14	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
68	SifErat15	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
69	SifErat16	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
70	SifErat17	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
71	SifErat18	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
72	SifErat19	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
73	SifErat20	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
74	SifErat21	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
75	SifErat22	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
76	SifErat23	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
77	SifErat24	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
78	SifErat25	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
79	SifErat26	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
80	SifErat27	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
81	SifErat28	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
82	SifErat29	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
83	SifErat30	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
84	SifErat31	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
85	SifErat32	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
86	SifErat33	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
87	SifErat34	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
88	SifErat35	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
89	SifErat36	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
90	SifErat37	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
91	SifErat38	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
92	SifErat39	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
93	SifErat40	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
94	SifErat41	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
95	SifErat42	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
96	SifErat43	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
97	SifErat44	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
98	SifErat45	101	3,1336	1,7336	1,4000	2,0000	-2,16	5,0000	1,74	
99	ReparWrk	69	36,2565	7,2100	867,00	1,9710	24,0000	-1,76	50,0000	1,86
100	JobSatPa	69	13,4006	12,3119	1,4000	1,9781	50,0000	-1,30	98,0000	2,80
101	ParSatPa	101	89,2577	3,3367	1,8620	1,9996	67,0000	-3,66	109,00	3,22
102	SifEratPa	101	97,4571	13,5882	1,4000	1,14939	42,0000	-65,05	122,00	1,79
103	ParSatPa	101	14,1109	5,20449	1,8610	1,8367	24,0000	-2,16	49,0000	3,43

15. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 93(463):1089-1092, 1998.

[illegible]

APPENDIX II

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DATA

SECTION E

For the next set of questions, please indicate how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel about the following aspects of your life at the present moment. Please circle the appropriate number.

	Extremely dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Extremely satisfied
1. The house, flat or room that I live in	1	2	3	4	5
2. The area that I live in	1	2	3	4	5
3. My standard of living; the things I can do or buy	1	2	3	4	5
4. The way I spend my leisure time	1	2	3	4	5
5. My present state of health	1	2	3	4	5
6. The education I have received	1	2	3	4	5
7. What I am accomplishing in life	1	2	3	4	5
8. What the future seems to hold for me	1	2	3	4	5
9. My social life	1	2	3	4	5
10. My family life	1	2	3	4	5
11. Taking everything together, my life as a whole these days	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

A summary of the findings of this study will, in approximately 18-24 months time, be made available to you through the personnel officer at the hospital where you work or can be posted to you if you call Viveka Christerson at 011 - 706-6595.

	<i>Rarely or none of the time</i> <i>A little of the time</i> <i>Some of the time</i> <i>A good part of the time</i> <i>Most or all of the time</i>				
14. I think my friends find me interesting	1	2	3	4	5
15. I think I have a good sense of humour	1	2	3	4	5
16. I feel very self-conscious when I am with strangers	1	2	3	4	5
17. I feel that if I could be more like other people I would have made it	1	2	3	4	5
18. I feel that people have a good time when they are with me	1	2	3	4	5
19. I feel like a wallflower when I go out	1	2	3	4	5
20. I feel I get pushed around more than others	1	2	3	4	5
21. I think that I am rather a nice person	1	2	3	4	5
22. I feel that people really like me very much	1	2	3	4	5
23. I feel that I am a likeable person	1	2	3	4	5
24. I am afraid I will appear foolish to others	1	2	3	4	5
25. My friends think very highly of me	1	2	3	4	5
26. Taking everything together, I feel good about myself	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D

This set of items is designed to measure how you see yourself. Please answer each item as carefully and accurately as you can. Please circle the appropriate number.

	<i> Rarely or none of the time A little of the time Some of the time A good part of the time Most or all of the time </i>				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. I feel that people would not like me if they really knew me well					
2. I feel that others get along much better than I do					
3. I feel that I am a beautiful person					
4. When I am with other people I feel they are glad I am with them					
5. I feel that people really like to talk with me					
6. I feel I am a very competent person					
7. I think I make a good impression on others					
8. I feel that I need more self-confidence					
9. When I am with strangers I am very nervous					
10. I think I am a dull person					
11. I feel ugly					
12. I feel that others have more fun than I do					
13. I feel that I bore people					

- | | | | | | |
|-----|--|----------------|-------|----------|-------------------|
| 21. | I am satisfied with my child-rearing skills | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 22. | I wish I gave my children more attention | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 23. | I think my children will always contribute to my happiness | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 24. | Sometimes I feel I should provide more supervision for my children | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 25. | My children add variety to my life, which is stimulating | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 26. | Overall, I am not happy being a parent | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 27. | I am satisfied with the amount of time I can give to my children | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 28. | I can't wait until my children grow up and move out | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 29. | It pleases me that my children have kept me feeling young | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 30. | My children annoy me too much in front of my friends | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 31. | Taking everything into account, I must say I really enjoy being a parent | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |

- | | | | | | |
|-----|--|----------------|-------|----------|-------------------|
| 10. | I think that my children do not like me very much, which greatly upsets me | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 11. | I think my children would consider me to be a good parent | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 12. | I feel uncomfortable with the way I often discipline the children | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 13. | My children's sense of humour amuses me | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 14. | I am upset with the amount of yelling I direct towards my children | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 15. | I am delighted with the relationship that I have with my children | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 16. | Having children causes many problems between a husband and wife | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 17. | All the efforts a parent makes for his/her children are worthwhile in the long run | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 18. | I wish I was a better parent and could do a better job parenting | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 19. | My children's co-operative behaviour pleases me greatly | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 20. | I am dissatisfied with the way I express love to my children | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |

SECTION C

This set of items deals with various aspects of your experience of being a parent. We would like you to tell us whether you agree or disagree with each of the statements given below. Please circle the answer that best describes how you feel. *(Please note that though the word "children" is used throughout, parents who have only one child are also asked to complete this section. In this case "children are" or "my children" should be read and understood as "child is" and "my child".)*

1. My children are usually a joy and fun to be with
Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree
2. I wish I were more consistent in my parenting behaviour
Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree
3. The most difficult years of my marriage have been the child-rearing years
Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree
4. I am pleased with the amount of love and affection I receive from my children
Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree
5. Sometimes I feel I am too critical of my children
Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree
6. I wish I did not become impatient so quickly with my children
Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree
7. I am satisfied with the way my children treat me
Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree
8. Being a parent has brought me a lot of work and heartaches
Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree
9. I think my children will be a source of comfort and security in my old age
Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree
- 10.

	Extremely dissatisfied Very dissatisfied Moderately dissatisfied Not sure Moderately satisfied Very satisfied Extremely satisfied						
9. Industrial relations between management and workers in your company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. The way your company/organisation is managed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Your chance of promotion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. The attention paid to suggestions you make	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Your hours of work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. The amount of variety in your job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Your job security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Now taking everything into account, how do you feel about your job as a whole?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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