

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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In spite of the high family demands associated with having an infant, an increasing number of women are choosing to retain close ties to the labor force during this period. This study explored the employment adjustments and job satisfaction of a group of women who became mothers for the first time.

The data for this study were taken from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth. Thirty-one married women who had their first child between the 1981 and 1982 interviews and were employed during both the 1980 and 1982 interviews were the focus of analysis. A pre-post design was utilized to identify changes in employment characteristics and job satisfaction following childbirth. Two additional groups of women; childless women (n=171) and women with at least two children (n=62) were included in the analysis for comparison purposes.

Strategies for managing the new responsibilities of parenthood included decreasing hours worked on the job and changing the shift worked. Few other changes were observed in the comparison of pre-pregnancy job characteristics with post-childbirth job characteristics. No change in job

satisfaction was found. This stability may be due the fact that 65 percent of new mothers were attached to one employer during this two year period. Additional analysis revealed that 91 percent of new mothers had only one employer during the year they gave birth. Thus, it appears from these data that the ability to return to the same employer following childbirth may be pivotal in women's decision to return quickly to the labor force.

Correlation and stepwise regression analysis were utilized to identify factors related to 1982 level of job satisfaction and 1980-82 changes in job satisfaction. In general, both static job satisfaction and change in job satisfaction were more strongly related to job characteristics than personal and family characteristics. Stepwise regression analysis provided a six-variable model, accounting for 44 percent of the variance in the static measure of job satisfaction and a ten-variable model, accounting for 37 percent of the variance in change in job satisfaction.

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Employment Experience and Job Satisfaction of New Mothers

by

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Employment Experience and Job Satisfaction of New Mothers

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Women's extensive withdrawal from the labor force during the childbearing and childrearing years, once the traditional pattern, is breaking down. Over 60% of women with children under the age of 18 were members of the paid labor force in 1985 compared to 40% of that group in 1970 (Hayghe, 1986). While the labor force participation of women has increased in almost all stages of the life cycle, one of the largest increases has occurred for mothers of infants. In 1985, the number of married women in the labor force with a child 1 year or younger was nearly 50%, 25 percentage points higher than it was 15 years earlier (Hayghe, 1986). Shapiro & Mott (1979) have found more recent cohorts of women to be starting a trend toward continuous attachment to the labor force and suggest that women are becoming permanent rather than occasional labor force participants.

While numerous studies have focused on the determinants of labor force participation of women with young children and the influence of maternal employment on family life, little empirical information is available describing the work experience of those women who continue to work during this period. In view of the trend toward continuous labor force participation, studies identifying factors which enhance or constrain the work situation of mothers would seem to be of considerable practical importance to employers and employees alike. This study is designed to

partly fill this gap in the knowledge by exploring the employment adjustments and job satisfaction of working mothers. Specifically, the analysis will focus on the work experience of women following the birth of the first child, when caregiving demands are particularly high.

To what extent do women adjust their work demands following the birth of the first child? Shapiro and Mott (1979), using data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Young Women, provide the most detailed look at work behavior during this period. As expected, the majority (90%) of women leave the workplace around the birth of their child. By their child's first birthday, however, 40% of the white and 55-60% of the black women had entered or reentered the labor force. As useful as this information is, it provides only a beginning to our understanding of the dynamics of work adjustments during this period. How many women return to the job they held prior to becoming a mother? To what degree do women reduce the number of hours of employment? Do women seek or accept jobs which allow them to meet family demands but underutilize their skills and limit the upgrading of skills, occupational advancement and earnings?

In addition, we know little about how a change in family structure such as the first birth may affects a woman's attitude toward her job. Researchers agree that the demands from both work and family on a family member can influence the quality of the experience in each role (Kanter, 1977). In the 1977 Quality of Life study, one-third of the respondents reported moderate to severe work-family conflicts and lower job and family satisfaction (Staines & Quinn, 1979). While maternal employment has been used as an independent variable in several studies of family well-being, few studies explore the affect of family variables on the quality of people's work

lives (Crouter, 1984). As a result, we know very little about how demands at different stages in the family life cycle affect the satisfaction a woman perceives from her work role. A clear understanding of the factors which shape the job satisfaction of new mothers should provide valuable information to employers, policymakers and home economists who are designing strategies to serve the needs of working women and thereby, strengthen the family unit. Finally, information of this type should be useful to families attempting to make family and work decisions which will not threaten their psychological and economic well-being.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to explore how the addition of the parent role affects the work lives of women and to identify the types of work situations which maximize and minimize the job satisfaction of new mothers.

Research Objectives

1. To describe the types of work adjustments made by working women following the birth of the first child.
2. To determine if a woman's level of satisfaction with employment changes as a result of the birth of the first child.
3. To explore the effect of selected individual, family and job characteristics on the job satisfaction of new mothers.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Women and Work

Studies reporting factors relating to women's labor force participation typically include women with children of all ages. However, a new stage in the women and work research is emerging which views the employment decisions and behavior of women as dynamic, varying with the stage in the life cycle and the changing nature of the maternal role. Indeed, the intensive care demands of infants and the lack of available substitute care suggests that the family-work decisions of mothers of infants are quite different than that of mothers of older children (Avioli, 1985). As a result, the first part of the review has been narrowed to the studies which focus on women with young children, with special attention on the more recent studies of new mothers.

Correlates of Labor Force Participation

The most extensive studies of new mothers' labor force behavior has been stimulated by the existence of panel data from the National Longitudinal Surveys of Labor Market Experience of Young Women. This data base consists of a nationally representative sample of more than 5000 young women who were aged 14-24 in 1968. Two sets of researchers (McLaughlin, 1982; Mott & Shapiro, 1983; Shapiro & Mott, 1979, 1983) have utilized this data base to explore the correlates of work following the first birth.

Economic Need

In general, researchers have shown economic need to be related to new mothers labor force behavior. Economic need was highly related to employment for a sample of women who gave birth to their first child in 1972 (Gordon & Kammeyer, 1980). A more detailed look into this relationship was provided by McLaughlin (1982), who measured the effect of other income on the labor force participation of women for each month following the first birth. Women with high economic need returned to work more rapidly than women with less need. However, the difference didn't become statistically significant until six months after childbirth.

Women in their twenties who have children may be more sensitive to economic need when compared to the women who delay their first birth into their thirties. Research by Daniels and Weingarten (1982) suggests that those women who delay childbearing are less motivated by financial rewards than the psychic rewards derived for their careers. Women who delay motherhood are also more likely to be in a financial and employment situation where they can more readily elect to take time out of the labor force when their children are infants.

The influence of economic need may also vary by race. A difference between black and white women has been suggested by two researchers. Avioli (1985) found black employed mothers of young children to have greater financial need than their white counterparts. Shapiro and Mott (1979) report that black new mothers had higher labor force participation rates at all levels of need when compared to white new mothers. Specifically, black women in high income families had the highest participation rates. The opposite behavior was true among white women,

who demonstrated an inverse relationship between labor force participation and family income. As a result, the greatest difference by race was among the low need women.

Education

The relationship between education and mothers' labor force participation has been the subject of several studies. Several researchers (Shapiro & Mott, 1983; Sobol, 1973; Sweet, 1972) have suggested that it is the better-educated young mothers who are leading a trend towards continuous labor force activity. Overall the literature supports the hypothesis that education is positively related to the labor force participation of women with infants. Two studies of new mothers found that more highly educated women return more rapidly to the work force following birth (McLaughlin, 1982; Shapiro and Mott, 1979). Similarly, Hock, Gnezda & McBride (1984) report that educational attainment is related to a woman's plan to return to work before the child's first birthday. That is, the higher the educational level the more likely the woman is to be planning to return to work.

However, two studies (Avioli, 1985; Gordon & Kammeyer, 1980) report no relationship between education and labor force participation of mothers of young children. The inconsistency in these findings may be related to differences in sample composition. The Avioli, and Gordon and Kammeyer studies included mothers of children ranging in ages from birth to three, while studies reporting a positive relationship between labor force participation and education included only new mothers in the first year after birth. Thus, the influence of education on labor force participation may become less important as a woman's children grow older.

In addition, Shapiro and Mott (1979) observed that the the effect of education has a differential effect by race. Black women with high school diplomas had the highest labor force participation at 60% one year after their first birth compared to 50% for black high school drop-outs and 40% for white women of both educational levels. Their data are consistent with national statistics which show that, overall, married black mothers of young children had higher labor force participation rates than married white mothers of young children. Hayghe (1986) using the 1985 Current Population Survey points out that the employment difference between the two races for women with infants under one was 15 percentage points (64% versus 49%).

Previous Work Experience

Previous work experience appears to be positively related to working following the birth of the first child. Those studies which measured previous work experience, found women who worked prior to the birth to be more likely to be employed following that birth (Avioli, 1985; Gordon & Kammeyer, 1980; McLaughlin, 1982). Previous work experience may act as a facilitator of employment by providing a situation where employers are willing to accomodate to a woman's needs during the childbearing period, particularly if she has skills important to the organization (McLaughlin, 1982). Likewise, women who have job skills and knowledge of the labor market as a result of previous experience may find landing a job less troublesome when compared to women who lack this experience (Gordon & Kammeyer, 1980).

Attitudinal Variables

Among the reasons cited for increased labor force participation of

young mothers are the changes in attitudes toward women's roles. Several studies have documented more liberal sex-role orientations (Feber, 1982; Hare-Mustin & Broderick, 1979; Sorensen, 1983) and an increase in career commitment (Shapiro & Crowley, 1982) among more recent cohorts of women. As might be expected, the traditional view that exclusive maternal care is essential for infants is negatively related to labor force participation (Hock, 1978; Morgan & Hock, 1984). On the other hand, career commitment has been found to be highly predictive of the labor force participation of mothers of young children (Avioli, 1985; Hock, 1978; Hock, Christman & Hock, 1980; Jimenez, 1977; Morgan & Hock, 1984; Rextroat, 1985).

A study by Hock, Christman and Hock (1980) provides insight to the interaction of attitude toward the maternal role and career orientation. In their study all of the women (n=82) planned to stay home in the year following birth, however, 20 mothers returned to work (inconsistent mothers) before the passage of the year. Comparison of the consistent mothers with the inconsistent mothers showed that the inconsistent mothers were more career oriented and more uncomfortable with their babies fussy behavior.

Finally, husbands' attitudes toward women's employment have been found to be positively related to labor force participation. However, the conclusion that husband's attitudes are a major determining factor in women's employment behavior is rejected by Feber (1982) who argues that men's attitudes were influenced by their wives' employment behavior.

Discussion

Specific personal and family characteristics seem to influence the relationship between the birth of the first child and maternal employment

activity. When considering the research, two types of young working mothers emerge. The first group of women returns rapidly to the workforce, has high levels of education and views a career as an important part of life. In contrast, financial need serves as the primary motivating factor for the second group of mothers. Some evidence exists to suggest that these motivational factors continue to influence these women's labor force behavior for years to come. Mott and Shapiro (1983) in a follow-up study of their first birth sample, found that women who worked in the year following the first birth had a greater attachment to the labor force when compared to women who did not work during that time. Furthermore, it was the better educated of these women who displayed the strongest commitment to continuous labor force participation.

Most of the women included in the studies cited above had their first child in the early 1970's. Since that time the number of mothers of infants in the labor force has grown substantially. In the ten year period from 1970-1980 a 15 percentage point increase has occurred (Hayghe, 1986). It is expected that the correlates of women's employment may have shifted. Thus the characteristics of women from the sample in this study, women who had their first child in 1981-82, will help document the changing characteristics of our labor force.

Labor Force Adjustments

The ability to manage work and family demands may be particularly difficult for new parents in that this is the first time they have been faced with the issues surrounding motherhood and work. Feldman and Nash (1984) report that women, more than men, tend to underestimate the extent to which an infant will disrupt their lives. How does the birth of the first

child affect the work life of women who are highly attached to the labor force? Shapiro and Mott's (1979) description of the labor force behavior of women in the period surrounding the first birth indicates that, at least in the short term, work patterns are disturbed. While 80 percent of the women in their sample were employed at the beginning of pregnancy, the rate drops to 20 percent in the month following birth, but only half of those were actually working. By the end of the year the labor force participation rate had risen to 40 percent for white women and 55-60 percent for black women.

Obviously, the immediate demands of childbirth are met by taking a period of time off the job, possibly facilitated by a leave. However, the decision of whether or not to offer maternity leave is left largely to employers. Wage replacement, job-protection and health insurance, the basis components of maternity leaves, are available to employees in varying degrees (Bureau of National Affairs, 1986). Paid leaves, for example, are available to only a small percentage of working women (Kammerman, 1983).

A longer term solution to balancing family and work demands during this period may involve electing jobs which required less skill and/or time (Fox & Nichols, 1983; Rudd and McKenry, 1980). Partial support for this hypothesis was provided by the finding that the presence of young children in a household is an important determinant of part-time employment for mothers (Darian, 1975; Long & Jones, 1980, 1981; Thomson, 1980). In another study, women with preschool aged children reported a reluctance to accept promotions because of the increase in demands (Angrist, Lave & Mickelsen, 1976).

Do women anticipating having children select jobs low in demands prior to the birth of the first child? Or, do they wait until after the child's

birth and then try to adjust their work demands? On the other hand, the structure of the labor force might be such that women have little control over their work situation and, as a result, attempt to meet work demands despite the high level of familial responsibilities. Although researchers have examined the employment characteristics of mothers, they have rarely asked these questions.

Job Satisfaction

There seems to be general agreement that job satisfaction refers to the affective attitudes resulting from the appraisal of one's job (Lawler, 1977). While studies of job satisfaction date back several decades, recent interest has resulted from a concern about quality of life. The importance of the psychological experiences of individuals during the work day was demonstrated in several studies which report job satisfaction to be correlated with satisfaction with others areas of life, as well as general life satisfaction (Keon & McDonald, 1982; Rice, Near & Hunt, 1979; Rousseau, 1978).

As a result of this line of inquiry, researchers have concluded that job satisfaction is best understood within the context of the workers' total life situation. For this study the exploration of the influence of one particular family event, the first birth, on womens' job satisfaction was generated from this perspective.

Job Satisfaction Indicators

Two general types of job satisfaction measures are prominent in the literature. A global measure of satisfaction is obtained by asking respondents to indicate how satisfied they are with their jobs. The major

advantages of this measure are simplicity, and the ability of each respondent to reply based on his/her own set of needs, expectations, aspirations in relation to his/her employment situation (Seashore & Taber, 1975). Concern over the reliability of single-items measures has resulted in several researchers selecting a "facets" measures of job satisfaction. There is, however, no empirical evidence suggesting that the single-item measure of job satisfaction is unreliable (Scarpello & Campbell, 1983).

Facet measures of job satisfaction combine satisfaction responses from specific aspects of the job environment such as satisfaction with pay, co-workers, supervisor and promotional opportunities. Scarpello and Campbell (1983) found that facet measures omitted major determinants of job satisfaction. They conclude that facet measures are inappropriate for use as a measure for overall satisfaction.

Correlates of Job Satisfaction

Job Characteristics

Originally, interest in job satisfaction was stimulated by the desire to improve the productivity of workers. Over the years, job satisfaction has been reported to be related to such work behaviors as absenteeism (Hackman & Lawler, 1971), job turnover (Hulin, 1966, 1968; Freeman, 1978), injury and illness (Quinn & Mangione, 1973) and work-related drug-use and theft (Mangione & Quinn, 1973). Attempts to improve job satisfaction, and thus increase productivity, were based solely on research which viewed job satisfaction as a product of job characteristics.

Research commonly divides job characteristics into two categories; intrinsic and extrinsic. The two-factor theory of job satisfaction proposed by Herzberg, Mauser, Peterson & Capwell (1957) hypothesized that these two

types of variables contributed to job satisfaction in different manners. Intrinsic job characteristics refer to the content of the job itself and the opportunities for self expression and advancement. Extrinsic job characteristics refer to the context of the work environment including working conditions, salary, job security and co-worker relationships. According to Herzberg intrinsic job components created satisfying job situations by providing psychological growth while extrinsic components prevented dissatisfaction.

Empirical investigations of the two-factor theory have not supported the differential effect of the types of variables on job satisfaction. However, they did find intrinsic components more strongly related to job satisfaction than the extrinsic components (Graen, 1968). Intrinsic job characteristics reported to be positively associated to job satisfaction include, the work itself, task autonomy, task significance, task involvement, promotional opportunity, variety and skill utilization (Graen, 1968, Martin, 1981; Mottaz, 1984; Voyandoff, 1980; Weaver, 1978). Extrinsic components of employment, which have also shown to have a positive linear relationship to job satisfaction, include pay, co-worker relations, tenure and satisfaction with supervision (Adbel-Halim, 1979; Andrisani & Shapiro, 1978; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; King "et al.", 1982; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Martin, 1981; Mottaz, 1984; Weaver, 1974, 1980). The lasting impact of Herzberg's work has been the identification of the importance of psychological growth as a precondition for job satisfaction and the linkage of this growth with the intrinsic characteristics of jobs.

The "Job Characteristic Model" proposed by Hackman and Lawler (1971) and later Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1976) has been used

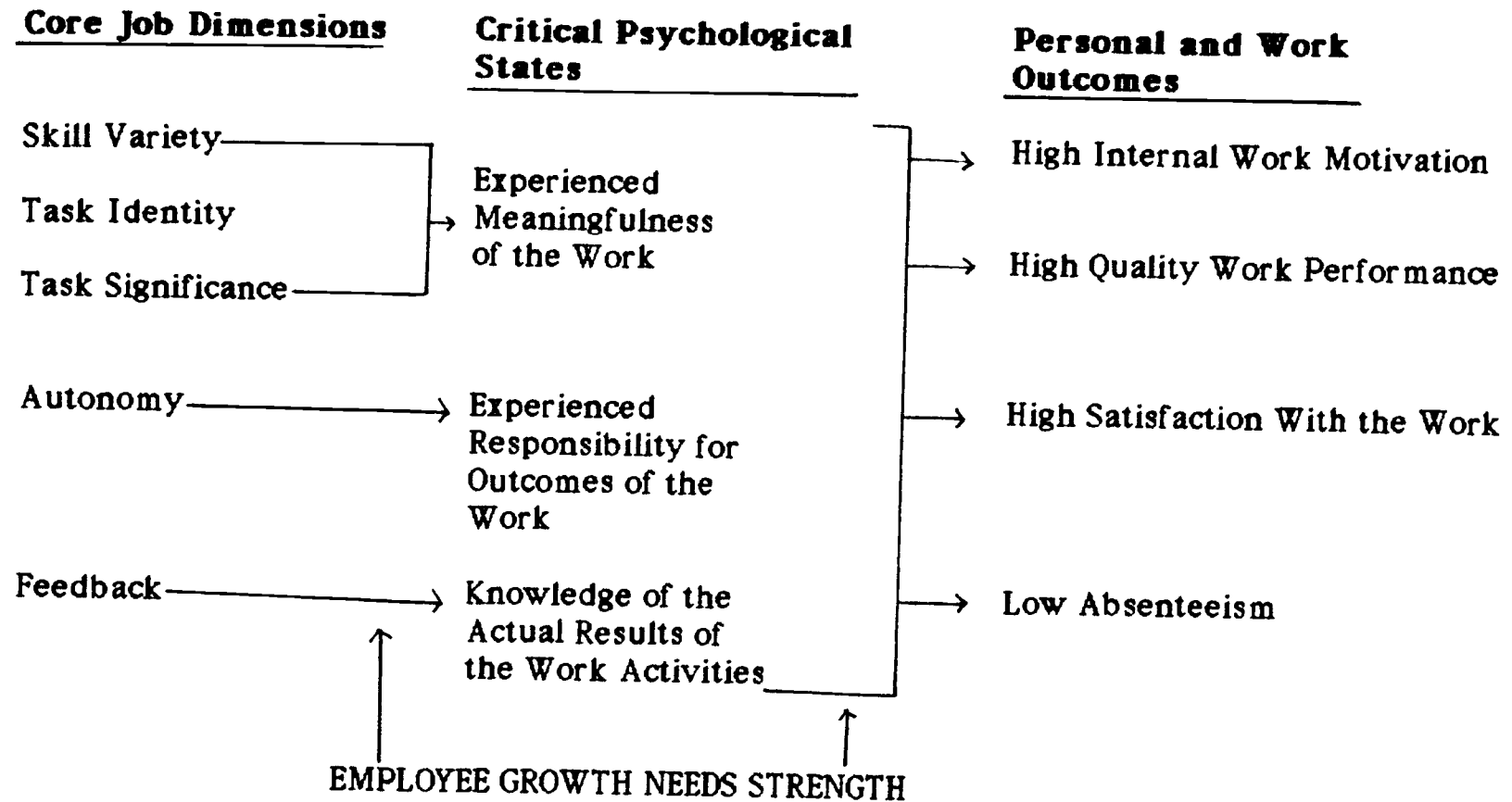


Figure 2.1 The Job Characteristics Model of Work Motivation.
(Hackman, R. & Oldham, G. 1975)

extensively to study the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction. In this model (Figure 2.1) the presence of specific job characteristics affects, the individual's feelings of meaningfulness at work, responsibility of work outcomes and the knowledge about the results of his or her work activities. When these three psychological conditions are present employees become motivated to perform effectively on the job and, as a result, feel satisfied with their jobs.

Experienced meaningfulness of work, the first critical psychological state, is thought to be influenced by skill variety (the degree to which a job involves using a number of different skills), task identity (involvement in a task from beginning to end) and task significance (the degree to which the job has a impact on the lives of others). The second critical psychological state, employee feelings of personal responsibility for work outcomes, is dependent upon the amount of autonomy the employee has in getting the job done. Finally, knowledge of results is determined by the feedback the employee receives regarding the effectiveness of his/her efforts.

These five job characteristics; task variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback reflect a job's complexity and it's overall motivating potential. The motivating potential score (MPS), a summary measure of a job's ability to prompt high work motivation is calculated from these five job characteristics. The MPS is computed in the following way.

$$\text{MPS} = \frac{\text{Task significance} + \text{task identity} + \text{skill variety}}{3} \times \text{autonomy} \times \text{feedback}$$

Thus, workers with complex jobs (high MPS) should experience

greater job satisfaction than workers who perform jobs that are low in complexity. Not all employees however, respond the same to jobs with a high level of complexity. Hackman and Oldham propose that an individual's need for growth producing experiences moderates the relationship between job complexity and job satisfaction. People with high growth needs will be stimulated and challenged by jobs high in complexity while employees whose growth needs are not as strong are less affected by these characteristics. As a result the model predicts that individuals with high growth needs will be more highly satisfied in a job of high complexity compared to a low needs individual.

The positive effect of complex jobs, as defined by The Job Characteristics Model, have been confirmed by several researchers (Katerberg, Hom & Hulin, 1979; Lee, McCabe & Graham, 1983; Loher, Noe, Moeller & Fitzgerald, 1985; Stone, 1976). However, the studies focusing on the moderator relationship of growth needs report inconsistent findings. Several researchers do report data which support the moderating effect of growth needs (Abdel-Halim, 1979; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Loher "et al.", 1985; Oldham "et al.", 1976 Sims & Szilagyi, 1976; Wanous, 1974). Other researchers have rejected this claim after finding weak or no support from their data (Aldag & Brief, 1975; Lee, "et al.", 1983; Stone, Mowday & Porter, 1977).

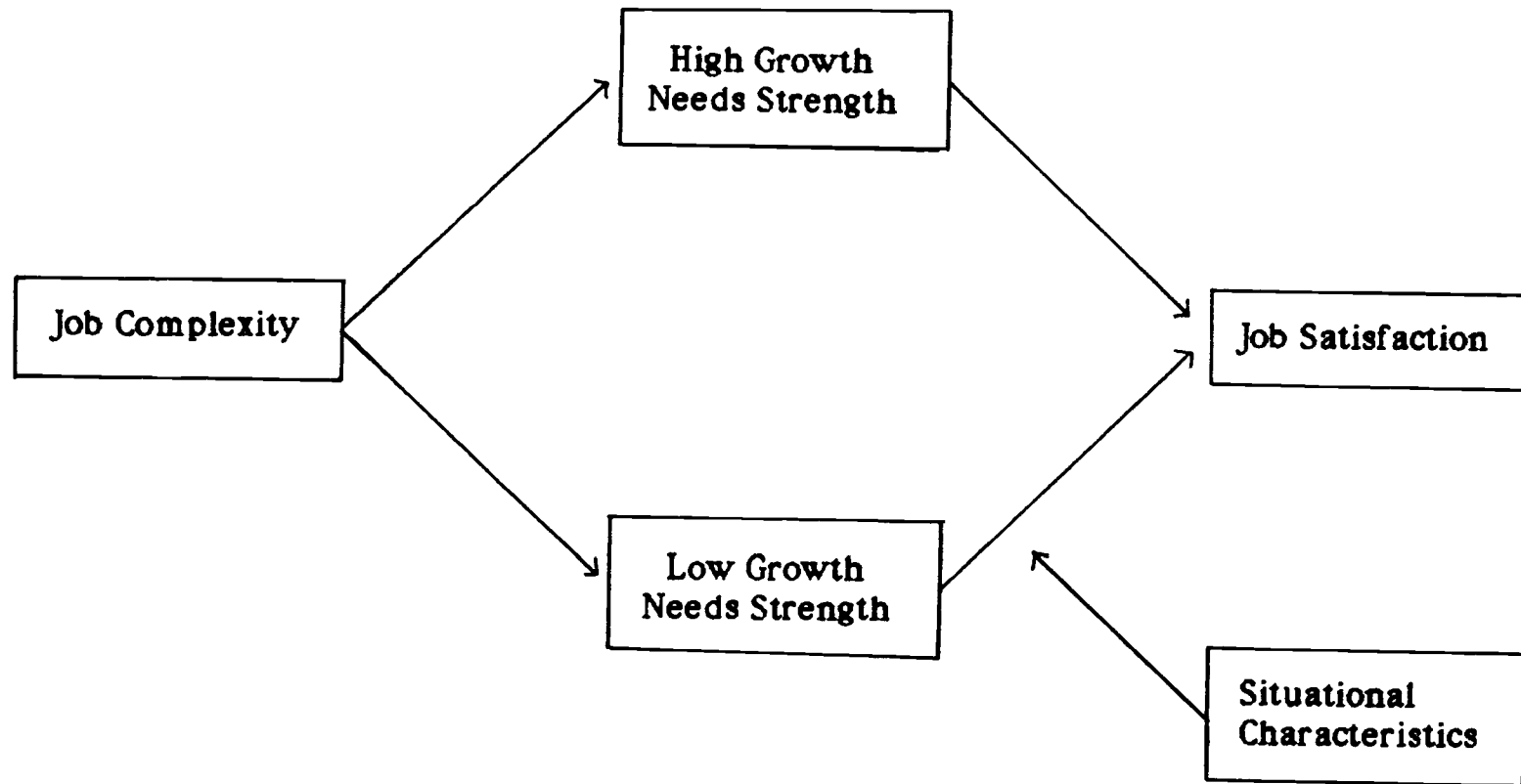
The disparity in these findings may be the result of the method used to identify high and low growth needs subgroups. In several studies researchers used median splits to form these two subgroups. Separate correlation coefficients for the relationship between job complexity and job satisfaction were then figured for each subgroup. Because of the inconsistent

cutting points used to define subgroups, Peters and Champoux (1977) have argued that this method may lead to ambiguous and misleading results. Regression analysis has been shown to be a superior approach to detect moderator effects (Zedeck, 1971).

Furthermore, the moderating affect of growth needs as outlined in the job characteristics model has lead researchers to question the usefulness of the model for predicting satisfaction among low growth needs individuals. Loher, Noe, Moeller and Fitzgerald, (1985) have proposed a refinement to the model which posits that situational factors have a greater influence on the relationship between the job satisfaction and job complexity for low GNS individuals than for high GNS individuals (Figure 2.2). In other words, situational factors may distract the low growth needs individual from experiencing the intrinsic motivation from the task itself and thereby, influence satisfaction.

A different approach to the study of job satisfaction has been one which explores the influence of occupational classifications. As might be expected, job satisfaction is highest among professionals, managers, and craftworkers and lowest among those in the unskilled worker categories (Near, Rice & Hunt, 1978; Weaver, 1974, 1980). Most likely, this is due to the strong association of job characteristics such as tenure, prestige, salary and autonomy with the specific categorizes in occupational classification system used (King, "et al.", 1982).

The classification of jobs as full or part-time has also been linked to job satisfaction. In several studies (Hall & Gordon, 1973; Miller & Terborg, 1979; Shea, Spitze & Zeller, 1970; VanSell, Brief & Aldag, 1979), employees who worked part-time have reported a lower level of job satisfaction than



**Figure 2.2 A Model of the Proposed Relation Between Job Complexity, GNS and Job Satisfaction.
(Loher, Noe, Moeller & Fitzgerald, 1985)**

employees who worked full-time. However, a study of full and part-time hospital employees yielded the opposite results, that is, part-time employees reported higher level of job satisfaction (Eberhardt & Shani, 1984). Most likely the different results stem from differences in job characteristics.

While the majority of part-time employment is concentrated in low-paying, nonchallenging occupations, the women employed part-time in the hospital received benefits comparable to full-time employees and occupied positions of high responsibility.

Demographic Characteristics

Demographic variables have consistently contributed little to the explained variance in job satisfaction (King, "et al.", 1982). For the most part, studies into their relationship with job satisfaction have yielded inconsistent findings. Several studies (Herzberg "et al.", 1957; Hulin & Smith, 1964; Sauser & York, 1978; Weaver, 1977), for example, have compared the job satisfaction of men and women and obtained varied results. Hulin and Smith (1964) suggest that these inconsistencies are not the result of sex but rather of a variety of factors which covary with sex, such as pay, promotional opportunities, and social norms. The results of three studies (King "et al.", 1982; Sauser & York, 1978; Weaver, 1978) support this claim.

Data on race differences in female samples show lower job satisfaction for black women when compared to white women (Andriansi & Shapiro, 1978; Nicholson & Roderick, 1973). Studies of race differences in male samples report similiar findings, although the differences were either not significant or in the opposite direction when controlled for personal, job and location characteristics (Bartel, 1981; Campbell, Converse & Rodgers, 1976; Weaver, 1977). Thus, racial differences in job satisfaction are likely the

result of past and present racial discrimination (Andrisani & Shapiro, 1978; Nicholson & Roderick, 1973).

The research into the relationship between age and job satisfaction has also yielded inconsistent results. The majority of research, however, supports the conclusion that job satisfaction increases with age (VanSell "et al.", 1979). Lee and Wilbur (1985) report that the positive relationship between job satisfaction and age remained even after the effects of salary, education and job tenure were removed.

Studies of the education-job satisfaction association have also produced mixed results. Several researchers report that those with higher levels of education tend to report higher levels of job satisfaction (Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Quinn & Mandilovitch, 1975; Weaver, 1980). Still others (Campbell "et al.", 1976; Gruneberg, 1980) find a significant negative influence by educational level. Finally, another group of researchers report no relationship (Andrisani & Shapiro, 1978; Martin, 1981; Rudd & McKenry, in press; VanSell "et al.", 1979; Weaver, 1974). The few studies whose samples consist solely of women fall into this final group of studies in which no linear relationship between education and job satisfaction is found.

One possible explanation for the confusing findings in relation to education and job satisfaction is given by Glenn and Weaver (1982), who suggest that education has negative as well as positive effects on job satisfaction. They suggest that while education increases the possibility of obtaining satisfying work, it also raises work expectations. If these expectations are not realized, dissatisfaction is likely to result.

Mottaz (1984) tested the education-work value hypothesis by measuring the relationship of education to the relative importance placed on

intrinsic and extrinsic work characteristics. In order to get an accurate estimate of this relationship the effects of age, occupation, job tenure, sex and marital status were held constant. The analysis revealed that when compared to the less educated workers, the better educated attached greater importance to intrinsic work characteristics and less importance to extrinsic features regardless of occupational category. In addition, he found that when intrinsic work components were held constant, education was negatively related to job satisfaction.

It appears, then, that higher levels of education may lead to dissatisfaction if workers find themselves in situations which do not provide the intrinsic features they expect. Thus, we could expect dissatisfaction in groups of underemployed individuals (Mottaz, 1984). Andrisani and Shapiro, (1978) for example, report that when educational level is held constant, women in jobs requiring little skill are less satisfied than those requiring greater usage of skills. Further evidence of the effect of underemployment on job satisfaction is provided by Nicholson and Roderick (1973) who found that, within occupational categories, women with the highest relative education reported high satisfaction less frequently.

Personality Characteristics

Examination of personality variables has focused primarily on how work-related values interact with job characteristics in determining job satisfaction. In addition to growth needs, the variables self-esteem and locus of control have been suggested as potential moderators of the job characteristic/job satisfaction relationship. Little empirical information is available to confirm either one as a moderator. Sims and Szilagyi (1976) found locus of control to be an ineffective moderator. Of these two variables,

self-esteem has received the most attention and the most support. Korman (1976) has suggested that workers with high self-esteem expect to fulfill their needs on the job while need satisfaction is not an expectation of low self-esteem workers. Thus, the relationship between intrinsic job characteristics and job satisfaction is stronger for high self-esteem individuals than for low self-esteem individuals. This proposition is empirically supported by Lopez and Greenhaus (1978) who found self-esteem to moderate between expressed job-related needs and job satisfaction.

Limited attention has been given to personality variables as direct predictors of job satisfaction. O'Connor, Rudolf and Peters, (1980) suggest that our understanding of job satisfaction would be expanded if main effects were investigated and reported more thoroughly. One example of a variable that appears to have an additive effect rather than a moderating effect is locus of control. Two studies provide support for a direct, positive relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction (Andrisani & Shapiro, 1978; King "et al.", 1982). In addition, self-esteem appears to have a positive relationship with job satisfaction in addition to the reported moderating effect. Lopez and Greenhaus (1978) report that self-esteem has a significant main effect on job satisfaction.

The influence of young women's work attitudes on their job satisfaction was examined by Spitze and Waite (1980). Two work attitudes "taste" for market work and attitudes toward women working, are measured prior to the completion of school and examined again in relation to satisfaction with their first job. Young women who preferred market to home work, had lower job satisfaction then those with a taste for home

work. Spitze and Waite suggested that possibly these women are harder to please than women who have only short term employment plans. In contrast, Andrisani and Shapiro (1978) report that work commitment, a variable very similar to taste for market work, was positively related to job satisfaction in a sample of older women.

On the other hand, Spitze and Waite found no relationship between early sex-role attitudes and job satisfaction. Other studies duplicate this finding (Andrisani and Shapiro, 1978; VanSell "et al.", 1979). A possible explanation for the lack of relationship was provided by Molm (1978), who argues that women's sex-role attitudes change in response to employment experiences. Thus, if working women have less traditional sex-role attitudes, little variance is likely to be observed among them.

It appears, then, that personality characteristics may influence job satisfaction in two ways. While our attitudes and values may influence our response to characteristics of our work environment, they may also function independently in influencing our job satisfaction. The majority of these studies used cross-sectional data making it unclear whether attitudes and values are a cause or a consequence of job satisfaction.

Family Characteristics

Limited attention has been paid to the family influences on job satisfaction. Family influences are largely considered to be a problem for working women rather than working men, since women are seen to have departed from the traditional role and retained the majority of the family responsibilities. Pleck (1977) has argued that social norms result in different interactions between the family and work worlds for men and women. For women, family demands are allowed to interfere with work,

while for men the opposite is true. As such, the small body of research which considers family influences on job satisfaction is primarily focused on women.

The research into the relationship between marital status and job satisfaction has produced inconsistent results. Spitze and Waite (1980) found married women to be less satisfied than unmarried women with their first job following full-time schooling. Andrisani and Shapiro (1978) found this same relationship between marital status and job satisfaction in their sample of women in 1967. However, analysis of the same sample five years later did not confirm this finding. In another study, the negative influence of marital status on job satisfaction was found only for black women (Nicholson & Roderick, 1973). Two additional studies (Martin, 1981; Weaver, 1978) found no significant relationship between marital status and job satisfaction.

Women who attempt to combine employment and motherhood report having difficulty fulfilling the number of demands from both roles (Crouter, 1984). Two studies provide empirical evidence that problems related to combining parent and employee roles have an impact on women's job satisfaction. Role overload was negatively related to job satisfaction in one study of working mothers (Rudd & McKenry, in press). In the other study, family-work conflict was negatively related to the job satisfaction of new mothers (Belsky, Perry-Jenkins & Crouter, 1985).

Ways to reduce the conflicts between family and work, short of dropping out of the labor force, include changing careers, reducing the number of hours employed and switching to a more accommodating employer. When job changes result in the underutilization of a woman's skills and

abilities, her job satisfaction is likely to suffer (Andrisani & Shapiro, 1978; Spitze & Waite, 1980). Another method of reducing family demands involves substituting purchased goods and services for household production. Hiring help for cleaning and using prepared foods are two examples of strategies used by busy families. The larger the family income the greater the ability to utilize these strategies.

Arranging adequate child care is recognized as a major constraint to women's ability to pursue employment. Two problems in the present child care system have been identified; limited availability and lack of quality. Both of these factors appear to have an influence on women's job satisfaction. A study by Rudd and McKenry (in press) found that women whose job choices were restricted by child care arrangements reported lower job satisfaction than women who had no such restriction. Two studies (Harrell & Ridley, 1975; McCroskey, 1980) report a positive relationship between satisfaction with child care and job satisfaction. Harrell and Ridley (1975) suggest inadequate child care arrangements negatively influence women's job satisfaction by interfering with their ability to concentrate on the employee role.

Finally, the attitudes of other members of the household may restrict or enhance a women's job satisfaction. Women who perceived their immediate family members to be supportive of their working were more highly satisfied than women who did not perceive such support according to two studies (Andriansi & Shapiro, 1978; Rudd & McKenry, in press).

The Transition To Parenthood and Job Satisfaction

Becoming a parent is seen as one of the most dramatic transitions in the life cycle, involving the assumption of demanding and generally

unfamiliar roles (Feldman & Nash, 1984). Problems experienced during this period include: (1) physical demands (e.g. loss of sleep, fatigue); (2) emotional costs (e.g. uncertainty about one's competence as a parent, guilt about leaving child in the care of others, and feelings of depression, frustration and resentment); (3) strain on husband-wife relationship (e.g. reduced leisure time together, changes in sexual relationship); (4) opportunity costs and restrictions (e.g. career restrictions, financial restrictions and pressures); (Sollie & Miller, 1980) and, (5) managing family and work demands (e.g. child care, time conflicts, role overload).

How do the problems associated with the transition to parenthood affect a woman's affective response to work? The limited research on family correlates to job satisfaction suggests that the particularly high family demands experienced during this period could result in lower levels of job satisfaction. However, no research has been found that tests the impact of first birth on women's job satisfaction. In fact, there is very little research on determinants of change in job satisfaction.

Summary

The review of literature suggests three different approaches to the investigation of the influence of becoming a parent on a woman's job satisfaction. All three of these approaches were explored in this study.

The first approach is to view problems of combining motherhood and work as potentially interfering with women's ability to attend to the intrinsic attributes of work, thereby reducing job satisfaction. The Loher Model suggests that the negative affect of first birth might be greater for women with lower growth needs. It might be expected that women with less need for growth and achievement in the workplace would find the demands of

employment to be particularly burdensome. On the other hand, women who are highly motivated by their jobs may perceive combining work and family as less difficult. Thus, job satisfaction is determined by the interactive effects of first birth, growth needs and job complexity.

A second approach is to look at the independent influence of transition to parenthood on job satisfaction. Hock, Gnezda and McBride, (1984) reported women to have ambivalent feelings toward employment during the first year of motherhood. Concern over child care and an increasing desire to be at home with their children resulted in a decrease in the emphasis of employment goals during this period. As a result, job demands may be viewed as interfering with a woman's ability to fulfill her primary role, resulting in dissatisfaction with her employment situation.

Finally, birth of the first child may only indirectly influence job satisfaction. In an attempt to balance their family and work responsibilities women may make employment adjustments which alter their job characteristics, thus threatening their job satisfaction. For example, reduction of hours of employment, a strategy which should lower overall demands, may result in a reduction in job satisfaction if the reduction in hours is combined with a reduction in skill usage.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Data Source

The Youth cohort of the National Longitudinal Survey (NLS-Youth) was the source of the data for this study. Originating in 1979 with youth aged 14 to 21, this data set consists of annual interviews of 12,686 individuals. Multiple, stratified sampling of dwelling and group quarters was utilized to provide a nationally representative sample. In addition, an oversampling of Hispanic, black and poor youth was included. The data were collected by the National Opinion Research Center for the Center of Human Resources Research at Ohio State University.

The purpose of the NLS-Youth Survey was to study the labor market experience of young men and women in the United States. The resulting data base provides a rich source of personal, family and labor force information. Given these strengths the data base was a logical choice for this study of the affects of first birth on new mothers labor force experience and job satisfaction.

Two limitations were presented by the selection of NLS-Youth for this study. First, the age of those sampled limited the researcher to young mothers. Thus, the growing number of women who delay their first birth to their late twenties and thirties were not represented in this study. It has been suggested that women who delay childbearing are more likely to adopt the simultaneous pattern of combining work and family (Daniels & Weingarten, 1984). Second, use of an existing data base prevented the

inclusion of some variables suggested in the review of literature. In addition, some of the key variables in this study were measured only during 1982, resulting in the restriction of the sample to women who had their first child in the year prior to the 1982 interview. In 1982 the sample includes women ages 17 to 25.

Sample

This study focused on those new mothers who returned to the labor force during the year following the birth. Two additional groups of women were included in the analysis in an attempt to determine if first birth had a unique affect the employment behavior and job satisfaction of women.

Out of the original 12,686, a primary sample ($n=338$) was drawn consisting of all women who were married in 1982, and employed during the 1980 and 1982 interviews. From this sample four subgroups were determined, new mothers (NM), childless women (CL), women with two or more children (Experienced Mothers-EM) and women with an only child older than one year of age (Other). The Other group was not included in the analysis in an effort to maximize the differences between the groups.

To obtain a true population representation of new mothers in the labor force, the data were weighted. Weights provided by the NLS to compensate for over-sampling of black, Hispanics and poor nonblack, nonHispanic youth were used in combination with a constant to maintain the original sample size (see Appendix A). Table 3.1 shows the effect of the weighting on subsample sizes.

Table 3.1 Effects of Weighting on Subsample Size

Subsample	Unweighted (n)	Weighted (n)	Change (n)
New Mothers	31	26	-5
Childless Women	171	189	+18
Experienced Mothers	62	56	-6
Other	74	67	-7
TOTAL	338	338	

Measures

Several variables were measured in both 1980 and 1982. To distinguish which variable is being used the year 80 or 82 is attached to the end of each code name.

Employment Measures

Weeks Worked (WEEK80, WEEK82), represented the weeks employed in the calendar year, including sick leave, vacation and maternity leaves of less than 90 days.

Weeks Unemployed (WKUNEM80, WKUNEM81), represented the weeks actively looking for work or on layoff during the 1980 and 1981 calendar years.

Weeks Out Of The Labor Force (WKOUT80, WKOUT82), represented the

weeks that the women were neither employed or unemployed in the 1980 and 1981 calendar years. Maternity leaves greater than 90 days in length were recorded as time out of the labor force.

Job Satisfaction (JS80, JS82). The measure of job satisfaction consisted of the response to the question: "How do you feel about the job you have now?" and was asked in both 1980 and 1982. Interviewees were given a choice of four responses: like very much, like fairly well, dislike it somewhat and dislike it very much. A low score represented a more favorable response.

Occupation (OCCCAT80, OCCCAT82), was coded using the U.S. Bureau of the Census (1971) 1970 Occupational Classification System. Jobs were assigned to one of 417 job titles which correspond to 12 independent categories. The 12 categories were professional, managerial, salesworker, clerical, craftsperson, armed forces, operative, laborer, farmer, farm laborer, service worker, and private household. In addition, jobs were divided into blue and white collar (COLLAR).

Hours Employed. Actual hours usually worked on current job (USHRWK80, USHRWK82) and full or part-time (PVF80, PVF82) were used in this study. A woman was considered to be employed full-time if she worked 35 hours or more per week.

Shift (SHIFT80, SHIFT82). Respondents were asked in both years what shift they usually work in their current job. The five response categories included regular day shift, regular evening shift, regular night shift, split shift and hours vary.

Fringe Benefits (FB80, FB82). Respondents were asked if their current job offers the following fringe benefits; medical insurance, life insurance and paid vacation. When all three were provided the respondent's score on

fringe benefits was coded 3, if two are provided coding was 2 and so on.

Tenure and Employers. Respondents were asked how many employers they had since the last interview. Total number of employers (TOTEMP) was determined by adding the responses during 1981 and 1982 interviews and subtracting one.

Job Complexity was measured using a shortened version of the Motivating Potential Score (MPS) developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975). In 1982 five questions (see Appendix B-1) measured the extent to which a woman perceives her job to provide the following characteristics; task significance, skill identity, skill variety, autonomy and feedback. The combination of these dimensions followed that described by Hackman and Oldham. The potential range of score was 1-125 with 125 representing the highest level of complexity. Only women who worked 20 hours or more were asked these questions.

Specific Job Characteristics. Respondents were asked how well the group of statements below describes their job. Four possible responses were available: very true, somewhat true, not too true, and not at all true. Very true was coded 4, while not at all true 1. As with the measure of job complexity, these questions were asked only of women working 20 hours or more.

You are given a chance to do the things you do best. (BEST80,BEST82)

The surroundings are pleasant. (SURR80, SURR82)

The skills you are learning would be valuable in getting a better job.
(OJT80, OJT82)

The pay is good. (PAY80, PAY82)

The job security is good. (SEC80, SEC82)

Your co-workers are friendly. (FRIE80, FRIE82)

The chances for promotion are good. (PRO80, PRO82)

Different Job (DIFJOB80, DIFJOB82), Individuals were asked the following question. "If you were free to go into any type of job, would you change jobs or stay at the same job?"

Change Variables

Several variables were created to reflect change during the two year period; 1980 to 1982. The direction and magnitude of change for variables with a continuous scale was calculated by subtracting the 1982 response from the 1980 response. For example, if a woman responded that she was highly satisfied with her job in 1980 and mildly dissatisfied in 1982 her responses were coded 1 and 3 respectively. The resulting change was -2, indicating a decrease in job satisfaction over the two year period. Thus, an increase in job satisfaction was indicated by a positive number. However, because of reverse coding for the remaining employment variables, positive changes in other continuous variables are represented by a negative sign. For example, if a women increased the number of hours worked from 34 in 1980 to 40 in 1982, her change score would be -6.0. The following change variables were created using this method. All change variables are indicated by a CH before the variable name.

Job satisfaction (CHJS)

Number of hours (CHHOURS)

Fringe benefits (CHFB)

Skill utilization (CHBEST)

Pay (CHPAY)

Work surroundings (CHSURR)

On-the-job training (CHOJT)

Job security (CHSEC)

Co-worker relations (CHFRIE)

Promotional opportunities (CHPR)

The creation of change variables for categorical characteristics such as shift worked was also done by comparing 1980 and 1982 responses. If no change occurred between 1980 and 1982 responses the value -1 was assigned, any change over the period was coded 1. The following variables were created in this manner.

Shift (CHSHIFT)

Marital status (CHMAR)

Employers (CHEMP)

Occupational category (CHOCCAT)

Occupational designation, white versus blue collar (CHCOLLAR)

Development of a Proxy for Growth Needs

A measure of growth needs, as defined by Hackman and Oldam (1975) was not available in the NLS-Youth data base. Thus, three variables thought to be expressions of growth needs; educational level, sex-role attitudes and taste for market work were examined for use as proxies. To be selected as a proxy for growth needs, a potential proxy was required to display a significant interaction with job complexity in regression analysis. The procedure for the development of a proxy involved running three separate regression analyses using the formula recommended by Champoux and Peters (1980) for detecting moderating effects.

$$(E)y = b_0 + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_1x_2$$

where y = job satisfaction (measured in 1982)

x_1 = MPS (Job Complexity)

x_2 = potential proxy for growth needs

x_1x_2 = interaction term

Personal and Family Measures

Race (RACE) was divided into three categories; white, black and other.

Age (AGE) was a continuous variable, measured in 1982.

Education (ED) was measured in 1982 and represents the highest level of education attained.

Self-Esteem (SESCALE) was measured in 1980 using Rosenberg's (1965) self-esteem scale (see Appendix B-2). This scale consists of the sum of 10 items scored 1-4 concerned with liking and/or approving one's self. Positive attitudes toward one's self is represented by a higher score.

Sex-role Scale (SRSCALE) was measured in 1982 using the Non-Traditionalism Scale developed by Mott (1983). This scale consists of the sum of four questions (see Appendix B-3) measuring individuals sex-role attitudes regarding womens' employment and family responsibilities.

Responses were coded from 1-4 with higher score reflecting more traditional values.

Taste for Market Work (WORK35) was defined as the preference for paid employment over unpaid work in the home. Respondents were asked what they would like to be doing at age 35. If a woman responded that she would like to be married and raising a family or keeping a house, she was asked if she would like to be working in addition. Responses were coded as working or not working. Taste for work reflects 1982 responses.

Marital Status (MARRY) By definition all women in this sample were married in 1982. Marital status in 1980 was categorized as never married, married, and other.

Stage in the Family Life Cycle (GROUP), indicates membership in one of the three subgroupings; New Mothers (NM), Childless Women (CW) and Experienced Mothers (EM).

Husband's Occupation (HUSOCC), The 1970 Occupational Classification System as previously described was used to code jobs in this data base.

Husband's Income (HINCOME), Total income of husband from wages and salary in the 1981 calendar year.

Family Income (FINCOME), Income (including wages, salary, investment income and transfer payments) from both spouses during the 1981 calendar year.

Data Analysis Procedures

The data analysis was divided into three stages. In the first stage characteristics of the sample were determined. Second, adjustments in the employment experience following birth were identified. In the final stage the influence of selected employment, personal, and family characteristics on job satisfaction was examined. The first two stages, being largely descriptive in nature, used weighted data, while the model building procedures in the third used unweighted data. Because of the exploratory nature of this study a .10 level of significance was used throughout.

Analysis of Sample Characteristics

Personal and family characteristics considered in this study were: age, education, race, self-esteem, taste for market work, sex-role attitudes,

family income and husband's occupation and income. Since the primary focus of this study was new mothers, characteristics of childless women and experienced mothers were discussed in comparison with new mothers. Chi-square and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to identify significant differences between the subgroups. When a difference between means was found in the ANOVA, a Newman-Keuls procedure was used to identify the means which were significantly different.

Adjustments in the Employment Experience

The examination of adjustments in the employment experience began with a comparison of employment behavior during the 1980 and 1981 calendar years. Included in this comparison were employment statistics for weeks worked, weeks unemployed, and weeks out of the labor force. With the majority of new mothers giving birth in 1981 this comparison provides insight into adjustments in work behavior surrounding the birth period.

The second method for determining adjustments involved comparison of a new mother's employment characteristics prior to the birth of her child with her employment characteristics following the birth. Specifically, the characteristics of the job held during the 1980 interview were compared to the job during the 1982 interview. Paired t-tests were used to determine significant within group changes for continuous variables. The magnitude of change in categorical variables was determined from the frequencies of the change variables.

In order to determine employment adjustments attributable to first birth, new mothers' employment characteristics were compared with the employment characteristics of the other two subgroups. Chi-square and ANOVA procedures were performed to identify significant differences

between groups in 1982.

Correlates of Job Satisfaction

The relationships between job satisfaction and three classes of independent variables; employment, personal, and family characteristics were explored. Two dependent measures of job satisfaction were considered; job satisfaction in 1982 and change in job satisfaction from 1980 to 1982. For this analysis the subgroups were treated together, with an indicator variable (GROUP) included to identify the effect of subgroup membership on job satisfaction.

Interactive Analysis of 1982 Level of Job Satisfaction

One proposition developed from the literature was that impact of first birth on job satisfaction would be influenced by both job complexity and growth needs. Since the questions measuring job complexity were asked only in 1982, this variable could not be explored in relationship to change in job satisfaction. However, analysis of the relationship of job complexity to job satisfaction in 1982, is comparable to previous studies of the Job Characteristics Model. Regression analysis utilizing an interaction term was used to explore the proposed relationships.

Linear Analysis of 1982 Level of Job Satisfaction

In addition to exploring the moderating influence of variables on 1982 level of job satisfaction, the independent influence of variables was considered. Identification of continuous variables with a linear relationship to job satisfaction was accomplished with Pearson correlation coefficient. Zero-order correlation coefficients were also calculated among the independent variables in order to test for multicollinearity. T-tests and ANOVA were used to identify differences in mean job satisfaction of

categorical variables.

Stepwise regression was then used to select the fewest possible independent variables that provided the best fit to the data. The first step in the stepwise regression procedure involved the selection of the independent variable explaining the most variance (largest t value) in the dependent variable. In the second step, the independent variable with the largest t value after the effect of the first variable was taken into account was added to the equation. Independent variables were added to the equation until no further variables could be found that yield significant t values in the presences of the variables in the model. At each step in the regression procedure RACE and GROUP were manually entered and removed if they were not significant. The following independent variables were considered;

Employment Characteristics

Type of job

Number of hours employed

Shift

Fringe benefits

Tenure

Job complexity

Skill utilization

On-the-job training

Co-worker relationships

Pay

Promotional opportunities

Job security

Physical work environment**Personal Characteristics****Race****Age****Education****Self-esteem****Taste for market work****Sex-role attitudes****Family Characteristics****Family income****Husband's income****Stage in the family life cycle****Analysis of Change in Job Satisfaction**

Factors associated with change in job satisfaction during the two year period were determined by correlation and chi-square procedures. The stepwise regression procedures described above were used to select the combination of variables which describe the largest variance in change in job satisfaction. The following independent variables were examined;

Change in Employment Characteristics**Type of job****Number of hours employed****Shift****Fringe benefits****Employers****Skill utilization****On-the-job training**

Co-worker relationships

Pay

Promotional opportunities

Job security

Physical work environment

Personal Characteristics

Race

Age

Education

Self-esteem

Taste for market work

Sex-role attitudes

Change in Family Characteristics

Marital status

Stage in the family life cycle

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the data analysis are divided into three sections. The first section describes the personal and family characteristics of the new mother subgroup and includes employment characteristics in 1980. The second section reports employment adjustments following the birth of the first child. In both sections one and two the characteristics of the childless women and experienced mothers are discussed in relationship to their similarities and differences with the new mothers. Factors relating to job satisfaction are examined in section three.

Description of the Sample

The sample consisted of three subgroups of young women. Common characteristics were that all women were married in 1982 and employed during the 1980 and 1982 interview periods. New mothers, the focal group of this study, were those women who had their first child less than 53 weeks prior to their 1982 interview.

Personal and Family Characteristics

Age

The mean age (in 1982) for new mothers was 22.91 with a range of 19-25. Childless women as a group were slightly younger with a mean age of 22.59 and experienced mothers slightly older with a mean age of 23.07.

The infants of new mothers ranged in age from 4 to 52 weeks, with a mean age of 31.37 weeks.

Race

The majority (95.8%) of the new mothers were white. The childless women were also predominately white, however the experienced mothers include a higher proportion of blacks (Table 4.1). Because of small cell size a chi-square test was performed with the black and other racial group combined. The resulting chi-square value of 11.96 with 2 degrees of freedom was significant at the .01 level and indicates a significant difference in racial composition between the subgroups.

Table 4.1 **Race by Subgroup**

	NM	CW	EM
	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
White	95.8 (25)	96.0 (179)	82.7 (45)
Black	3.0 (1)	2.3 (4)	15.3 (8)
Other	1.2 (-)	1.7 (3)	2.0 (1)

TOTAL 267
missing data (n=4)

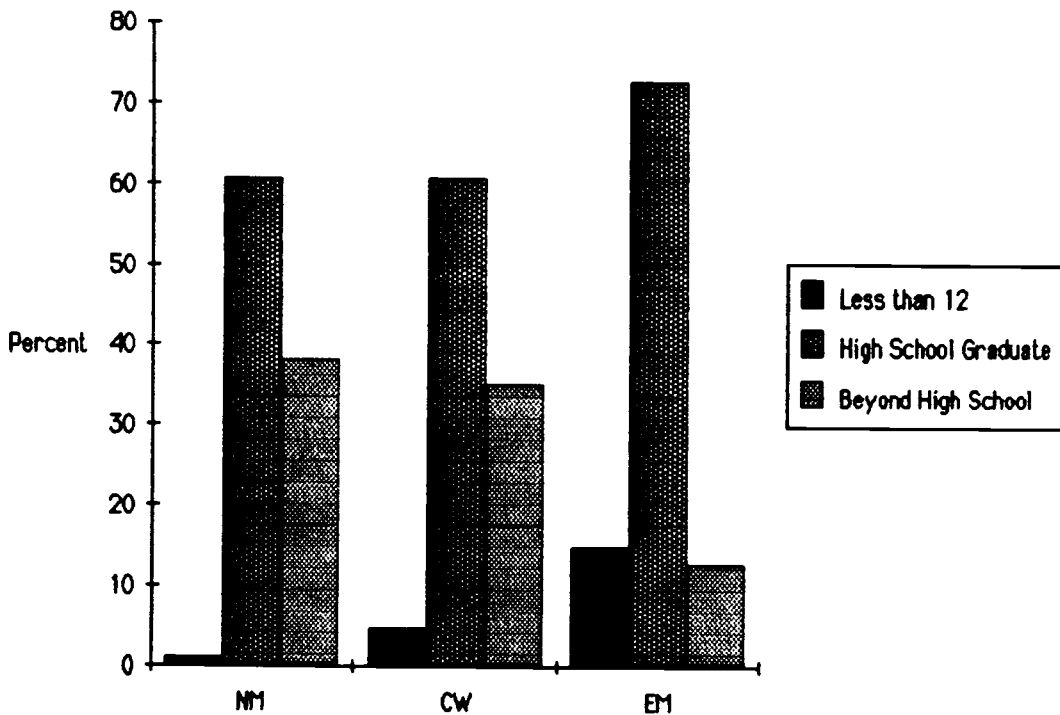
Due to weighting and rounding of numbers the sum of the individual items may not add up to 271.

Education

All but one percent¹ of the new mothers had completed at least 12 years of schooling by 1982. Thirty-eight percent had more than a high school education. New mothers' mean years of schooling completed was

12.96. Although the difference was not significant, new mothers had a slightly higher mean education level than that of the childless women with 12.63. The mean educational level of experienced mothers of 11.74 was significantly ($p = .00$) lower than the other two subgroups (see Appendix C-1). Figure 4.1 illustrates the differences between the groups.

Figure 4.1 Educational Level by Subgroup



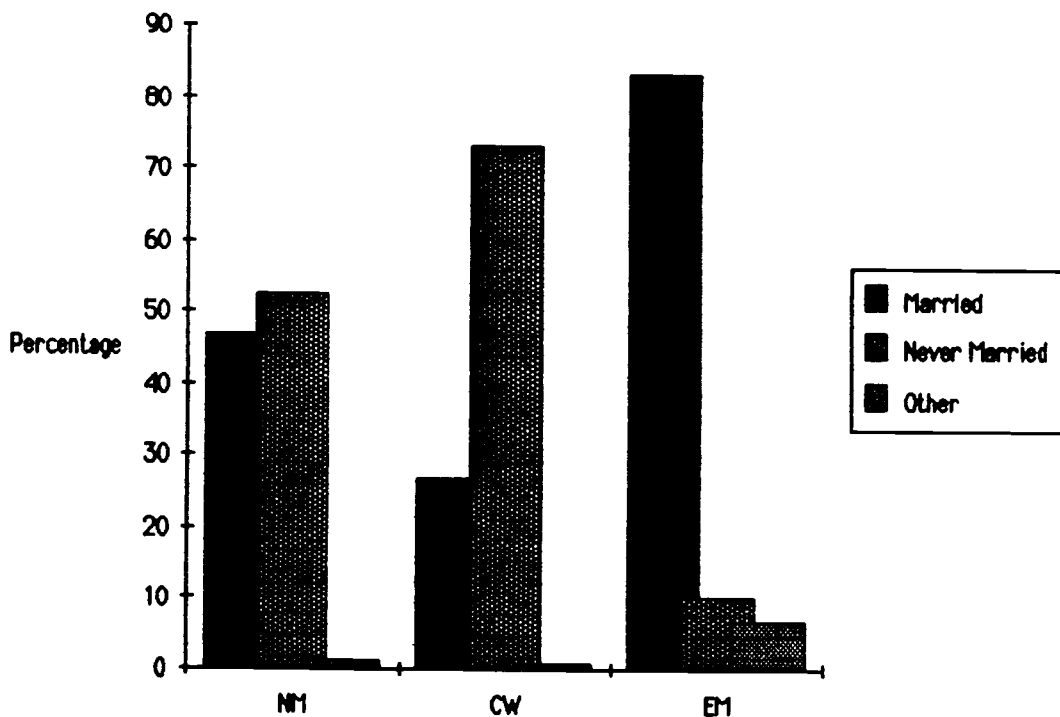
Marital Status

In 1982 all of the women in this sample are married. Given the youthfulness of this sample it was not surprising to find that in 1980 a number of these women were not married. Among the new mothers, 51 percent were never married in 1980 compared to 73 percent of the childless women and only 19 percent of the experienced mothers. Figure 4.2 depicts

the 1980 marital status by subgroup. A chi-square value of 86.49 (df= 4, p=.00) confirmed the observed differences.

Because of the potential compounding influence of marital change on the family life cycle approach taken in this study, change in marital status was added to the list of potential variables influencing change in job satisfaction.

Figure 4.2 Marital Status by Subgroup in 1980



Attitudes

Three different attitude measures were used in this study. The first, self-esteem, is designed to determine an individual's feeling of self-worth. New mothers had a mean score of 32.79, on a scale ranging from 10 to 40. This indicates a fairly high self-concept. New mothers were not significantly

different from the other two groups on this variable. Experienced mothers, with a mean of 31.89, were significantly lower than childless women at 33.95 (see Appendix C-2).

Attitude toward women's role in the work force was measure on a scale ranging from 4-16, with 16 representing more traditional values. With a mean score of 8.14, new mothers tended toward the egalitarian end of the scale. No differences in sex-role attitudes of new mothers were found in the one-way ANOVA ($p=.88$). Considering the previously noted research on sex-role attitudes of women, it is not surprising that a sample of employed women would tend toward nontraditional attitudes.

While sex-role attitudes reflect a woman's attitude towards other women working, taste for employment reflects her personal preference for market work. Sixty-nine percent of new mothers indicated a preference for market work. This was slightly higher than either of the other two subgroups, with 64.7 percent of childless women and 59.3 percent of experienced mothers reporting taste for employment. This difference, however, did not achieve significance in a chi-square test of significance (chi-square=1.10, $df= 2$, $p= .58$).

Income

Income values for family and husband's income were reported for the 1981 calendar year (see Table 4.2). Substantial variation in the family incomes of new mothers was seen in the range of \$2,638 to \$76,400, with a mean of \$24,797. Mean income for the husbands of the new mothers was \$15,203. No significant mean differences were found in a one-way ANOVA of either income measure by subgrouping.

It should be noted that the majority of births by new mothers were in

the same year that family income was reported. Additional analysis found that new mothers had a greater number of weeks out of the labor force during 1981 when compared to the other two subgroups. A correlation analysis indicated a significant negative relationship ($r = -.1458$, $p = .03$) between family income and weeks out the the labor force in 1981. From these findings one could speculate that the 1981 family income of the new mothers subgroup would have been significantly higher then their reported level had they not taken time out of the labor force to give birth.

Table 4.2 **Income Measures By Subgroup**

	NM	CW	EM
	mean (sd)	mean (sd)	mean (sd)
Family Income	24796.91 (11069.73)	25689.97 (14057.35)	24024.95 (17212.31)
Husband's Income	15203.03 (9068.35)	13942.51 (8330.44)	12364.77 (6340.76)

Husband's Occupation

Forty percent of the husbands of new mothers were employed in white collar jobs. The most represented occupational categories include operatives (21.8%), craftsmen (15.7%), and clerical (14.4%) (see Appendix C-3). Spouses of childless women had a slightly higher representation in white collar jobs. Closer inspection reveals 29.9 percent of the spouses of

childless women to be employed in professional and managerial jobs compared to 16.2 percent of the spouses of new mothers. White collar jobs were held by 26 percent of the husbands of experienced mothers with 17 percent categorized as professional or managerial.

1980 Employment Behavior

In 1980 the mean number of weeks worked by new mothers was 49.32. Mean weeks out of the labor force was 2.39 and less than 1 week unemployment. While there was little difference between the groups in unemployment, new mothers had a significantly greater number of weeks worked and fewer weeks out of the labor force than the experienced mothers (see Table 4.7). In sum, new mothers' work behavior in 1980, before the birth of their child, more closely resembles that of the childless women (which they were) than that of the experienced mothers.

1980 Employment Characteristics

The following characteristics describe the job held during the week of the 1980 interview. For the new mothers subgroup, this was the period prior to their pregnancy.

Occupation

New mothers were employed in a variety of occupation during the 1980 interview as illustrated in Table 4.3. Over half (62%) of the new mothers were employed in jobs classified as white collar. Clerical work accounted for the largest single category percentage, with 29.6 percent, followed by service workers (22.9) and professional (22.1).

While the clerical category was the single largest provider of jobs for all three groups, substantial differences were seen in group comparisons.

Table 4.3 Occupational Category by Subgroup in 1980 and 1982

	NM		CW		EM	
	1980	1982	1980	1982	1980	1982
	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
<u>White Collar</u>						
Professional	22.1 (6)	22.1 (6)	7.0 (13)	9.0 (17)	-	2.8 (2)
Managerial	8.5 (2)	1.4 (-)	2.1 (4)	4.5 (8)	10.3 (6)	3.9 (2)
Salesworker	1.9 (1)	13.4 (4)	5.5 (10)	5.7 (11)	4.0 (2)	-
Clerical	29.6 (8)	31.8 (8)	58.2 (110)	54.5 (103)	35.6 (20)	48.4 (27)
<u>Blue Collar</u>						
Craftsperson	-	-	-	3.7 (7)	-	1.4 (1)
Operative	15.1 (6)	22.2 (6)	6.3 (12)	8.4 (16)	35.3 (19)	25.5 (14)
Laborer	-	-	1.7 (3)	2.9 (6)	3.7 (2)	-
Service Worker	22.9 (6)	9.1 (2)	18.1 (34)	11.2 (21)	10.5 (6)	6.3 (4)
Private Household	-	-	1.0 (2)	.1 (-)	.4 (-)	11.6 (6)
TOTAL - 270, Missing data - 0						

Due to weighting and rounding of numbers the total does not add up to 271.

The chi-square analysis provided a highly significant chi-square value of 59.06 ($df = 14$, $p = .00$). However, due to small cell size, this statistic is interpreted with caution. A major difference between the groups was seen in the professional category with 22.1 percent of new mothers in this category compared to 7 percent of childless women and no experienced mothers. A disparity was also found in the service worker category with 35.3 percent of experienced mothers, 15.1 percent of new mothers and 6.3 percent of childless women.

Hours Usually Worked

The majority of new mothers worked full-time (85%) and had a mean of 37.99 hours per week. No significant differences in mean hours worked were indicated between the subgroups in a one-way ANOVA ($p = .21$, see Appendix C-4). There was also no significant difference between the groups in frequency of part-time employment (chi-square = 4.23, $df = 2$, $p = .12$).

Shift

Regular shift was the most common shift worked (74.4%) by new mothers. None of the new mothers reported working evening, night or split shifts (see Table 4.4). Twenty-five percent of new mothers reported that their hours varied. Among childless women and experienced mothers regular shift was also the most prevalent. However, both of these subgroupings contain women who worked evenings, nights and split shifts. These three shifts were combined for chi-square analysis due to small cell size using the original five categories. The resulting chi-square value of 15.70 was significant at the .01 level with 4 degrees of freedom.

Table 4.4 **Shift Worked by Subgroup in 1980**

	NM	CW	EM
	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
Day	74.4 (20)	80.9 (153)	62.5 (33)
Evening	-	4.4 (8)	8.0 (4)
Night	-	2.5 (5)	13.6 (7)
Split	-	1.7 (3)	-
Other	25.6 (7)	10.5 (20)	15.9 (8)
TOTAL = 267			
missing data (n=4)			

Fringe Benefits

The availability of three common fringe benefits was included in this study; life insurance, health insurance and paid vacation. Seventy-nine percent of new mothers received all three benefits, with paid vacation the most common (96%) benefit, followed by health insurance (85%) and life insurance (76%). New mothers received a higher level of benefits compared to the other two subgroups of women (chi-square = 8.1, df= 4, p= .09). Childless women and experienced mothers had similar percentages (66% and 65%) of women receiving all three benefits.

Specific Job Characteristics

Women who reported working 20 hours per week or more were asked if their jobs had the following desirable characteristics; ability to do what

they do best, pleasant surroundings, on-the-job training, good pay, job security, friendly co-workers and promotional opportunities. The four potential responses ranged from not at all (coded 1) to very true (coded 4). The mean scores and standard deviations for these characteristics for all three subgroups are displayed in Table 4.5.

Among new mothers, friendly co-workers received the highest rating (3.72) and promotional opportunities (2.64) and good pay (2.61) the lowest. This pattern was similar in the other two subgroups.

New mothers and childless women had no significantly different perceptions of these characteristics of their jobs. On-the-job training was the only characteristic on which new mothers and experienced mothers differed, with new mothers more likely to perceive their job as providing valuable training.

Childless women and experienced mothers had different perceptions on four out of the seven job characteristics; pleasant surroundings, friendliness of co-workers, job security and on-the-job training. In each case, childless women were more likely to perceive their job to have these qualities than experienced mothers.

Table 4.5 **Job Characteristics by Subgroup in 1980**

Characteristics	NM	CW	EM
	mean (sd)	mean (sd)	mean (sd)
BEST80	3.06 (.92)	3.33 (.74)	3.28 (.83)
SURR80	3.41 (.58)	3.47 (.67)	3.19 (.74)
OJT80	3.25 (.80)	3.43 (.76)	2.85 (.93)
PAY80	2.61 (1.02)	2.77 (.85)	2.87 (.81)
SEC80	3.44 (.69)	3.42 (.83)	3.12 (.96)
FRIE80	3.72 (.46)	3.66 (.64)	3.43 (.85)
PRO80	2.64 (.99)	2.86 (1.09)	2.58 (1.07)

Job Satisfaction

There were no significant differences in the means for job satisfaction ($p = .70$) between the subgroups. Thirty-eight percent of the new mothers, 40 percent of childless women and 36 percent of experienced mothers reported liking their job very much. Childless women and experienced

mothers had a substantially larger number of women who responded that they disliked their jobs (see Table 4.6). Only 2 percent of the new mothers dislike their jobs, compared to 12 percent for both childless women and experienced mothers.

When asked if they would take a different job given the opportunity, 47 percent of the new mothers said yes, compared to 70 percent of the childless women and 66 percent of the experienced mothers (chi-square= 5.33, df= 2, p= .07).

Table 4.6 **Job Satisfaction by Subgroup in 1980**

Response	NM	CW	EM
	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
Like very much	38.3 (10)	39.6 (75)	36.2 (20)
Like fairly well	59.7 (16)	48.0 (91)	51.9 (29)
Dislike it somewhat	.7 (-)	10.3 (19)	8.2 (5)
Dislike very much	1.2 (-)	2.1 (4)	3.7 (2)

TOTAL = 271

missing data (n= 0)

Chi-square= 7.15, df= 6, p= .31

Adjustments Following the First Birth

Employment Behavior Surrounding the First Birth

A comparison of 1980 and 1981 labor force statistics provides insight

to the new mothers behavior around the period of birth. In 1981 the mean weeks worked by new mothers was 40.41, representing a decrease of nearly 9 weeks from the prior year (see Table 4.7). This decrease was reflected in an increase in number of weeks out of the labor force rather than in weeks unemployed. Weeks out of the labor force reached 11.48, four times the 1980 mean, while unemployment decreased slightly. Childless women and experienced mothers demonstrated the opposite behavior by decreasing their number of weeks out of the labor force and increasing their total number of weeks worked. There were no significant differences in any of the three subgroup comparisons on mean weeks unemployed for 1980 or 1981. These data support Shapiro and Mott's (1979) findings that the majority of women take some time off from work during the birth process.

Table 4.7 Summary of Labor Force Experience 1980-81

	NM	CW	EM
	mean (sd)	mean (sd)	mean (sd)
Weeks worked 1980	49.32 (6.31)	48.96 (7.08)	43.14 (10.93)
Weeks worked 1981	40.41 (12.5)	49.13 (7.29)	44.35 (12.95)
Weeks unemployed 1980	.24 (1.19)	.88 (3.04)	1.45 (5.24)
Weeks unemployed 1981	.11 (.40)	1.23 (4.66)	1.25 (3.98)
Weeks out of LF 1980	2.39 (5.89)	1.76 (4.81)	7.25 (9.45)
Weeks out of LF 1981	11.48 (12.47)	1.61 (4.96)	6.05 (11.81)

Changes in Employment Characteristics

Occupation

In the two year period between interviews, 27 percent of the new mothers changed occupational categories. Decreases were seen in the service work and managerial categories while increases were apparent in the operatives and sales categories (see Table 4.3). Very few (6.7 %) of these women changed from blue to white collar jobs or vise versa.

The occurrence of occupational change by new mothers was not unique.

Thirty percent of childless women and 41 percent of experienced mothers changed occupational categories in the same period. A chi-square analysis comparing these frequencies between groups was not significant (chi-square= 2.76, df= 2, p= .25). Childless women had increases in the categories most likely to have the highest pay; professional, managerial, craft and operatives. In contrast, increases for experienced mothers were in traditionally low paying female dominated jobs; clerical and household workers.

Employers

The mean number of employers during the two year period for the new mothers subgroup was 2.49, compared to 2.93 for childless women and 3.73 for experienced mothers. The one-way ANOVA indicated that these differences were close to significant at .11. Additional analysis, however, revealed significant mean differences for number of employers between 1981 and 1982 interviews (see Table 4.8), the period new mothers gave birth. Ninety-one percent of new mothers had only one employer during this period, compared to 65 and 70 percent of childless women and experienced mothers respectively. None of the new mothers had more than two employers, while the range in the other two subgroups was from one to five employers. In addition, the mean for new mothers between 1981 and 1982 of 1.09 was a decrease from the prior year (1980-81), when the mean was 1.40. There were no significant differences in mean number of employers between the 1980 and 1981 interviews among the subgroups.

Thus, it appears from these data that the majority of new mothers returned to the same employer following the birth of their child. The ability to stay with the same employer may be pivotal in women's decisions to

return quickly to the labor force following birth. Women who have taken advantage of a leave may feel an obligation and possibly even a requirement to return to work at a predetermined time.

Possibly the enjoyment of motherhood in combination with the growing awareness of the complexities of balancing employment and family demands result in some women delaying their return to the labor force and as a result they are not apart of this sample. One study of new mothers reported that the preference for staying home increased following birth when compared to that prior to birth (Hock, "et al.", 1984).

Another explanation for the large percentage of new mothers with only one employer in 1981, is that women may be less likely to change jobs when they are pregnant. Thus, the lower number of employers may partially reflect pre-birth behavior rather than post-birth behavior.

A women returning to the same employer does not necessarily return to the same job and these data do not allow this potential change to be determined. In 1982 thirty-eight percent of new mothers responded they were interested in changing jobs. This represents a decrease over the 1980 level of 47 percent. Childless women and experienced mothers also reported a decreased interest in changing jobs in 1982 when compared to their 1980 level. In 1982, 63 percent of childless women and 64 percent of experienced mothers would change jobs. In both 1980 and 1982, new mothers were significantly less likely to be interested in a different job when compared to the other two groups.

Table 4.8 **Comparison of Number of Employers**
Between the 1981 and 1982 Interview by Subgroup

Source	df	MS	F	p value
Number of Employers	268	.41	3.19	.04
Group	mean	sd		
New mothers	1.09	.29		
Childless women	1.43	.66		
Experienced mothers	1.40	.69		

Newman-Keuls procedure indicates that new mothers have a significantly different mean number of employers from both childless women and experienced mothers at the .05 default level.²

Hours Per Week

The mean number of hours worked per week by new mothers during the 1982 interview was 34.55, a decrease of nearly three and half hours from 1980. This change came close to significance at .12 in a paired t-test (see Table 4.10). Forty-three percent of the new mothers decreased the number of hours worked, with 27 percent having decreased fifteen hours or more. Twenty-seven percent also increased their hours during this period. New mothers were the only subgroup to have a mean decrease in the number of hours worked.

While there was no difference in the hours worked in 1980 by subgroups, a significant difference emerged in 1982. The one-way ANOVA indicated a significant mean difference at the $p=.01$. The Newman-Keuls

showed a significant difference between the new mothers and the other two subgroups at a default level of .05 (see Appendix D-1). New mothers' mean of 34.55 hours per week is significantly lower than childless women at 38.41 and experienced mothers' mean of 38.23.

In addition, the percent of new mothers working part-time doubled over the two year period to 30 percent, while the other subgroups decreased their percentage of part-time workers. A chi-square analysis of part versus full-time employment in 1982 between the subgroups was significant at .04 (chi-square= 6.64, df= 2).

Table 4.9 Level of Employment by Subgroup in 1980 and 1982

		NM		CW		EM	
		%	(n)	%	(n)	%	(n)
Part-time	1980	15.0	(4)	13.1	(25)	24.6	(13)
	1982	30.2	(8)	12.0	(23)	18.5	(10)
Full-time	1980	85.0	(22)	86.9	(164)	75.4	(41)
	1982	69.8	(18)	88.0	(166)	81.5	(45)

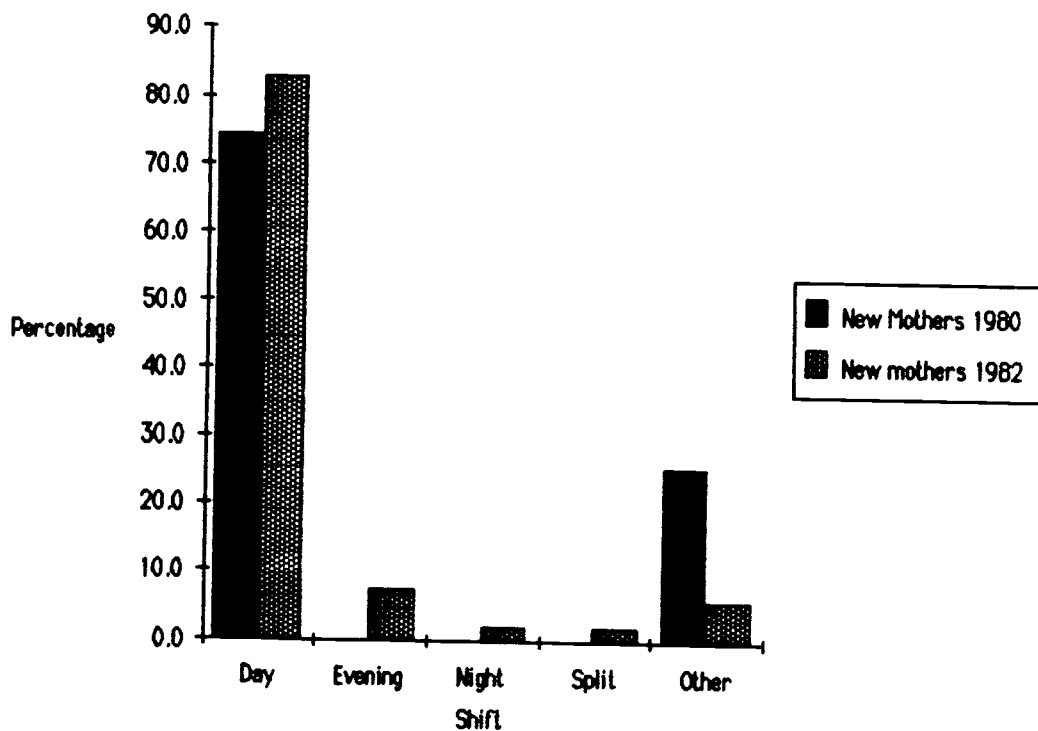
Shift

Over 40 percent of the new mothers reported a shift change between 1980 and 1982. Figure 4.3. illustrates the changes in shift over the two year period for new mothers. These changes include an increase in day, evening, night and split shift and decrease in other.

The frequency of change in the new mothers subgroup was twice that

reported in the childless women (20.3) and similar to that of experienced mothers (38.1). The chi-square analysis for the change in shift between the groups indicated a significant ($p=.01$) chi-square of 10.20 with 2 degrees of freedom.

Figure 4.3 Shift Worked by New Mothers in 1980 and 1982



Fringe Benefits

A slight decrease in level of fringe benefits was observed in the new mother subgroup from 1980 to 1982. A paired t-tested indicated that this change was not significant (see Table 4.10). During the same period both childless women and experienced mothers had significant changes in their mean level of fringe benefits (Appendix D-2 & D-3). Childless women had an increase in fringe benefits to a level higher than new mothers, while the

experienced mothers reported a decrease from their 1980 level.

Specific Job Characteristics

The idea that women take jobs which underutilize their skills and limit training and salary in order to balance the responsibilities of parenthood was not supported in these data. Comparison of the jobs held before pregnancy and in the year following birth did not reveal any decreases in these characteristics. While decreases in hours of employment, change in shift and occupation were reported during this period, new mothers' perceptions of the characteristics of their job remained fairly stable. In comparing the means for these variables using paired t-tests, only one change was detected (see Table 4.10). New mothers had a significant increase in their perception of having good pay.

Similar to the new mothers, experienced mothers had only one significant change in perception of their job characteristics. Over the two year period experienced mothers perception that their job had good promotional opportunities decreased.

In contrast to the other two groups, childless women reported substantial change in their perceptions of job characteristics over the period. An increase was seen in their perception of good pay, while decreases were found in perceptions of pleasant surroundings, on-the-job training, and promotional opportunities (see Appendix D-2). The significant increase in perception of good pay is not surprising based on the previous observation that this subgroup had an increase in the type of jobs offering the highest pay.

No significant mean differences in perception of 1982 job characteristics were indicated in the one-way ANOVAs and Newman Keuls

when comparing new mothers perceptions of job characteristics to the other two subgroups.

Table 4.10 Change In Employment Characteristics Of New Mothers

Variable	1980	1982	mean difference	sd	p value
USHRWK	37.99	34.55	3.44	10.88	.12
FB	2.59	2.42	.17	.86	.34
BEST	3.06	3.13	-.07	.65	.60
SURR	3.40	3.31	.09	.52	.40
OJT	3.22	3.13	.10	1.11	.67
PAY	2.58	2.98	-.40	.75	.02
SEC	3.43	3.33	.10	.58	.41
FRIE	3.72	3.57	.14	.51	.18
PRO	2.60	2.57	.03	1.14	.92
JS	1.65	1.57	.08	.59	.49

A negative mean difference reflects an increase for all variables except job satisfaction.

Change in Job Satisfaction

A central aim of this study was to examine how the addition of the parent role related to the job satisfaction of new mothers. Three approaches

to this question were proposed: (a) independent influence of becoming a parent on job satisfaction, (b) interaction of job complexity, growth needs and stage in the life cycle, and the resulting level of job satisfaction (c) indirect influence of birth on job satisfaction through changes in employment characteristics. The results of the first two approaches are presented first. The third approach is discussed in the context of the correlates of job satisfaction later in this chapter.

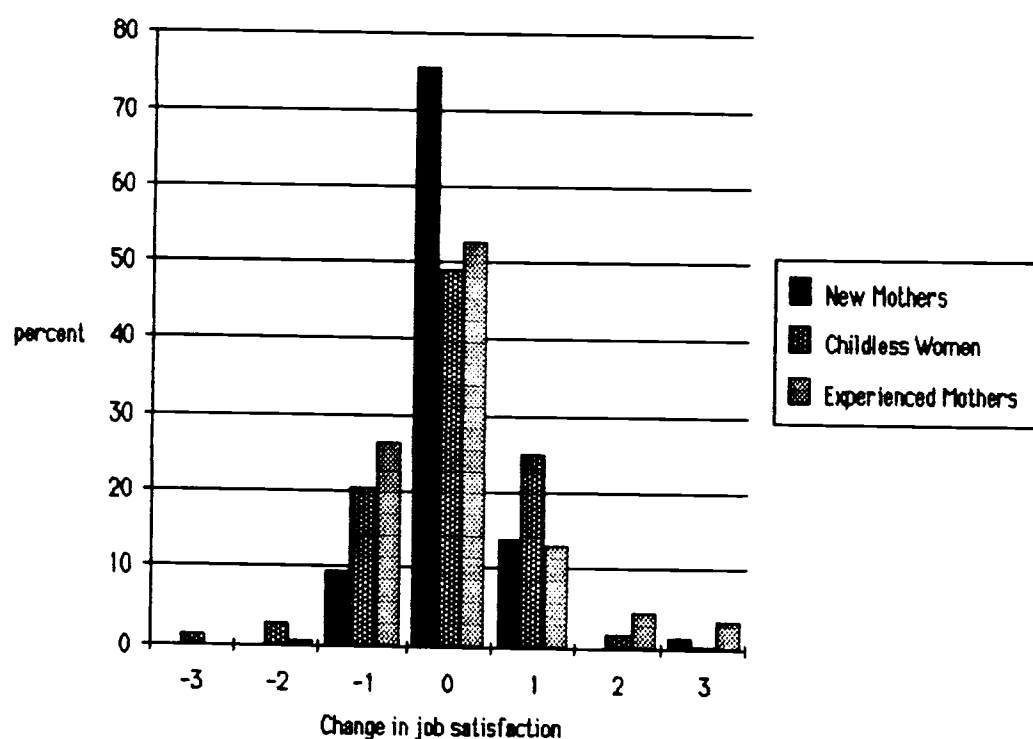
Independent Approach

The changes in job satisfaction for all three groups are shown in Figure 4.4. Negative numbers indicate decreases in job satisfaction and positive numbers an increase. Contrary to expectations, the job satisfaction of new mothers stayed fairly stable during the two year time period. There was a slight increase in the number of new mothers reporting high satisfaction with their job, from 38 percent in 1980 to 44 percent in 1982. A paired t-test indicated that the slight increase in mean satisfaction for new mothers was not significant (Table 4.10). Similarly, no significant change was found in the means of the other two subgroups (Appendix D-2, D-3). In addition, no significant mean differences were found in magnitude of change by subgroup in the one-way ANOVA (see Appendix D-4). It appears, then, from these data that becoming a new mother did not result in a positive or negative change in job satisfaction.

Further analysis using stepwise regression supports this conclusion. At each step in the stepwise regression for change in job satisfaction, GROUP was manually added to the equation. The effect of stage in the life cycle represented by GROUP did not reach significance at any step. In effect, when characteristics important in explaining job satisfaction were held constant,

GROUP did not add to the explained variance in change in job satisfaction.

Figure 4.4 Change in Job Satisfaction



Interactive Approach

Before the effect of an interaction of growth needs, job complexity and stage in the life cycle could be tested, a proxy for growth needs needed to be found. Three variables (educational level, taste for market work, and sex role attitudes) were tested for the moderating influence on the job complexity-job satisfaction relationship displayed in previous studies. Unfortunately, none of the interaction terms were significant (Table 4.11). Thus, these variables did not display a relationship similar to that characterized by growth needs as defined by the Job Characteristic Model. Considering the fact that previous research has been inconsistent in finding a

moderating effect of growth needs, it is probably not surprising that the proxy measures used here were unsuccessful as a "stand in" to replicate the interaction.

As a result the interaction model tested included only the interaction of job complexity and stage in the life cycle. This model tests the proposition that women at different stages in the life cycle attend to job characteristics in different ways which, in turn, influences their job satisfaction. As seen in Table 4.12 the interaction term was not significant.

Table 4.11 **Regression Analysis for Development
of Growth Needs Proxy
(unweighted data)**

Variable	Coefficient	p value
Constant	2.11072	.00
MPS	-.00663	.57
ED	.00869	.88
MPSxED	-.00021	.82
$R^2 = .14$		
Constant	2.36885	.00
MPS	-.01203	.03
SRSCALE	-.02302	.58
MPSxSRSCALE	.00042	.56
$R^2 = .13$		
Constant	2.15434	.00
MPS	-.00613	.02
WORK35	.02271	.91
MPSxWORK35	-.00382	.25
$R^2 = .15$		

**Table 4.12 Moderating Effect of Stage in the Life Cycle
and Job Complexity on Job Satisfaction
(unweighted data)**

Variable	Coefficient	p value
Constant	2.06815	.00
MPS	-.00961	.12
GROUP	.06697	.66
MPSxGROUP	.00026	.93
$R^2 = .14$		

Summary

This study compared a number of aspects of new mothers' jobs in an attempt to identify the extent and nature of any labor force adjustments. Contrary to expectations, new mothers reported very few changes over the two year period. The fact that new mothers were highly attached to one employer during this two year period, may account for the lack of change in perception of job characteristics and in job satisfaction.

Strategies for managing the new demands of parenthood appear to include a decrease in hours on the job and change in shift. The comparison of the pattern of part-time employment by new mothers and experienced mothers suggests that reduction in hours is related to age of children. The younger the children the greater the extent of part-time employment by mothers. On the other hand, change in shift was used to the same extent by both groups of mothers. Perhaps as children's needs change, mothers

change their work schedules in an attempt to manage these demands.

The increase in part-time employment was expected to result in an decrease in the utilization of skills, on-the-job training, and promotional opportunities, due to the lack of quality of part-time jobs. However, this was not the case. New mothers experienced no significant change in any of these characteristics following childbirth. This may be due to employer willingness to provide flexible employment arrangements in an attempt to keep valued employees.

Correlates of Job Satisfaction

Static Job Satisfaction Model

In general, job characteristics related more strongly to level of job satisfaction in 1982 than personal or family characteristics. Correlation coefficients are presented in Table 4.13. The pattern of the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction was consistent, higher levels of job characteristics relating to a higher level of job satisfaction (represented by a lower number on the JS82 scale). Both intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics were significant predictors of job satisfaction, with skill utilization having the strongest linear relationship of all variables.

Of the personal and family characteristics only self-esteem and taste for market work were significant. The correlation coefficient of $-.2024$ indicates that higher levels of self-esteem in 1980 were related to higher levels of job satisfaction. A t-test was used to compared the mean job satisfactions of women with taste for employment versus work at home. The job satisfaction mean of 1.63 for women with a taste for employment was significantly lower

Table 4.13 **Correlation of Independent Variables
with Job Satisfaction in 1982
(unweighted data)**

Variable	Coefficient	n	p value
Job Characteristics			
MPS	-.3732	225	.00
TOTEMP	-.1507	264	.01
BEST82	-.5083	251	.00
SURR82	-.3980	251	.00
OJT82	-.3544	251	.00
PAY82	-.3775	251	.00
FRIE82	-.2809	249	.00
SEC82	-.2709	251	.00
PRO82	-.3517	251	.00
USHRWK82	-.0093	263	.88
FB82	-.0149	251	.82
Personal Characteristics			
AGE	.0173	264	.78
ED	-.0814	264	.19
SRSCALE	.0570	254	.37
SESCALE	-.2024	264	.00
Family Charactersitics			
HINCOME	-.0259	232	.70
FINCOME	-.0385	232	.56

*Negative sign indicates a positive relationship.

contribute information for the prediction of job satisfaction. ($p = .01$) than 1.86 for women who prefer work in the home. Thus, women with a taste for market work were more highly satisfied with their jobs than women who preferred home work. Analysis of variance was used to identify if job satisfaction varied by race or subgroup. No significant mean differences were found.

Results of the stepwise regression are shown in Table 4.14. Seven variables were selected for the final model (see Appendix E-1), accounting for 44 percent of the variance in job satisfaction. Skill utilization entered the equation first and accounted for 28 percent of the variance in job satisfaction. Other job characteristics entering the model were promotional opportunities, pleasant surroundings and good pay. Taste for market work and self-esteem were also important in explaining the variance in job satisfaction. The positive relationship of these variables to job satisfaction indicated in the correlation is confirmed in the regression analysis.

Several variables identified in the correlation analysis as having significant relationship with job satisfaction did not enter the regression equation. Variables identified as significant in a correlation may not enter the regression equation if they contribute redundant information (McClave & Dietrich, 1979). Correlations among job characteristics are shown in Table 4.15. As expected, most of the job characteristics were significantly intercorrelated. Despite the fact that total number of employers, job complexity, on-the-job training, friendly co-workers and job security did not enter the regression equation, the correlation coefficients indicate that alone they contribute information for the prediction of job satisfaction.

Most notably, job complexity did not enter the regression equation. Based on the literature it was expected that job complexity would be the first variable to enter the regression equation. It appears then, that the intrinsic job characteristics of skill utilization and promotional opportunities, both of which were moderately correlated with job complexity, were better variables for explaining variance in job satisfaction for this sample of women. Job complexity did, however, explained 14 percent of the variance.

Several other employment, family and personal variables were included in the regression procedure but not selected for the final model. Employment variables not seen in the final model included occupational designation, fringe benefits, shift and hours worked. Consistent with previous research, demographic variables were not important in explaining job satisfaction. Age, race, educational level, family income and husbands' income had low correlation coefficients and were not selected in the regression equation. In addition, sex-role attitudes and subgroup were not important variables in explaining job satisfaction.

**Table 4.14 Stepwise Multiple Regression For Selected Personal, Family
and Employment Predictors of Job Satisfaction in 1982
(unweighted data)**

Variable	Entering Coefficient	Entering F	p value	R ²
Term entering				
1. BEST82	-.475004	76.64	.00	.28
2. PR082	-.185108	17.87	.00	.34
3. WORK35	-.152269	12.61	.00	.38
4. SURR82	-.177297	10.50	.00	.41
5. PAY82	-.133381	6.93	.01	.43
6. SESCALE	-.018352	3.13	.08	.44

Table 4.15

Correlation Among Major Variables in Static Job Satisfaction Model
(unweighted data)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. JS82										
2. SESCOLE	-.2024 (.00)									
3. MPS	-.3732 (.00)	.3705 (.00)								
4. BEST82	-.5083 (.00)	.1468 (.02)	.3003 (.00)							
5. SURR82	-.3980 (.00)	.1378 (.03)	.2416 (.00)	.3617 (.00)						
6. OJT82	-.3544 (.00)	.2732 (.00)	.4158 (.00)	.3665 (.00)	.1486 (.02)					
7. PAY82	-.3775 (.00)	.1386 (.03)	.2977 (.00)	.2194 (.00)	.2654 (.00)	.2241 (.00)				
8. FRIE82	-.2809 (.00)	.2103 (.00)	.2523 (.00)	.2665 (.00)	.3130 (.00)	.1310 (.04)	.2358 (.00)			
9. SEC82	-.2709 (.00)	.2635 (.00)	.3205 (.00)	.2671 (.00)	.3106 (.00)	.2532 (.00)	.3226 (.00)	.3190 (.00)		
10. PRO82	-.3517 (.00)	.1674 (.01)	.3096 (.00)	.2634 (.00)	.2983 (.00)	.2757 (.00)	.3207 (.00)	.3054 (.00)	.3844 (.00)	
11. TOTEMP	-.1507 (.01)	.1427 (.02)	.2277 (.00)	.1377 (.03)	.1182 (.06)	.0759 (.23)	.0791 (.21)	.1504 (.02)	.0769 (.23)	.0998 (.12)

Change in Job Satisfaction Model

As in the static model of job satisfaction just described, job characteristics had the strongest relationships to change in job satisfaction. Increases in assessment of job characteristics were related to positive change in job satisfaction. Correlation coefficients for change in job satisfaction and the independent variables are displayed in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16 **Correlation of Independent Variables
to Change in Job Satisfaction
(unweighted data)**

Variable	Coefficient	n	p value
TOTEMP	.2093	263	.00
CHFB*	-.1119	236	.09
CHBEST*	-.3639	238	.00
CHSURR*	-.2193	238	.00
CHFRIE*	-.2301	237	.00
CHPRO*	-.3887	238	.00
CHPAY*	-.2340	238	.00
CHSEC*	-.2237	237	.00
CHOJT*	-.2941	238	.00
CHHOURS*	-.0491	261	.43
AGE	-.0024	263	.97
SESCALE	-.0050	263	.94

* Positive change in these variables is indicated by a negative number.

Ten variables were selected in the stepwise regression, describing 37 percent of the variance (Table 4.17). Change in skill utilization, entered the equation first and accounted for 16 percent of the variance. Increases in skill utilization had a positive relationship with change in job satisfaction, as did increases in promotional opportunities, pay and surroundings. Change in major job category (CHCOLLAR), representing a change from white to blue collar job or vice versa was related to a decrease in job satisfaction.

Table 4.17 Stepwise Multiple Regression for Selected Personal, Family and Employment Predictors of Change in Job Satisfaction (unweighted data)

Variable	Entering Coefficient	Entering F	p value	R ²
Term entering				
1. CHBEST*	-.371344	40.2731	.00	.16
2. CHPRO*	-.217142	21.4288	.00	.24
3. TOTEMP	.126434	7.4013	.01	.27
4. CHPAY*	-.133633	5.7165	.02	.29
5. WORK35	.130236	5.5310	.02	.31
6. CHSURR*	-.113375	3.6576	.06	.32
7. CHEMA	-.168239	3.9733	.05	.34
8. SESCALE	-.025911	3.7113	.06	.35
9. CHCOLLAR	-.162470	3.7411	.05	.36
10. CHMARRY	.097157	2.9311	.09	.37

*Negative score of these variables indicates a positive change.

Changes in fringe benefits, co-worker relationships, job security and on-the-job training, all which had a significant linear relationship with change in job satisfaction in the correlation analysis, did not enter the regression equation. Correlation analysis indicates that these variables were significantly related to job characteristics included in the stepwise regression (Table 4.18).

Much to the surprise of the researcher, both change in employer, (a dichotomous variable) and total number of employers entered the stepwise regression. As these variables were highly related it was anticipated that only the best of the two variables would enter the equation. The larger R^2 when both of these variables were in the model, indicates that these variables taken together are better than either alone. Close inspection of the regression coefficients revealed that when change in employers entered the equation, the coefficient for total number of employers increased from .126434 to .238929 (see Appendix E-2). While the number of employers was positively related to change in job satisfaction, the coefficient for change employer was negative (-.184725). The result of having both positive and negative coefficients in the equation is that having one employer is apparently better than two different employers, with three or greater being better than either one or two.

Tastes for market work and self-esteem were also included in the model. As with the static model, those women who prefer employment have a greater increase in job satisfaction than those who would rather not work outside the home. The presence of self-esteem in the equation was somewhat of a surprise, since the correlation coefficient was not significant.

Table 4.18

Correlation of Change Variable
(unweighted data)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. CHFB								
2. CHBEST	.0421 (.52)							
3. CHSURR	.0152 (.82)	.2031 (.00)						
4. CHFRIE	.1224 (.06)	.2405 (.00)	.2379 (.00)					
5. CHPRO	.1924 (.00)	.2120 (.00)	.2310 (.00)	.2866 (.00)				
6. CHPAY	.2572 (.00)	.0930 (.15)	.1190 (.07)	.1077 (.10)	.3581 (.00)			
7. CHSEC	.2592 (.00)	.1879 (.00)	.2076 (.00)	.3111 (.00)	.3630 (.00)	.3015 (.00)		
8. CHOJT	.1416 (.03)	.2063 (.00)	.1373 (.03)	.1425 (.03)	.2445 (.00)	.1827 (.01)	.1702 (.01)	
9. TOTEMP	-.1483 (.02)	-.1764 (.01)	-.1013 (.12)	-.1573 (.02)	-.1317 (.04)	-.1077 (.10)	-.0554 (.40)	-.0789 (.23)

However, when changes in skill utilization, promotional opportunities, employers, surroundings, pay and taste for market work were controlled, self-esteem added to the explained variance in change in job satisfaction.

What is puzzling about self-esteem is the direction of its' relationship with change in job satisfaction. With all other variables held constant, self-esteem had a negative affect on change in job satisfaction. Individuals with a lower self-esteem in 1980 had a greater increase in job satisfaction than high self-esteem individuals over the two year period. This seems to be in direct opposition to the earlier finding that self-esteem was positively related to level of job satisfaction in 1982. Perhaps the relationship of self-esteem and change in job satisfaction is relevant on only one half of the scale. Thus, individuals with low self-esteem in 1980 might have the greatest potential for change in job satisfaction. The measurement of change in self-esteem, unavailable in these data, would be helpful in clarifying these findings.

The only family variable which enters into either of the job satisfaction models is change in marital status. Those women who were single in 1980 and wed during the two year period had a greater positive change in job satisfaction than those who were married during the entire period.

As previously discussed, subgroup was not significantly related to change in job satisfaction at any step in the regression procedure. Other variables included in the list of potential model components but not selected were personal variables; age, race, educational level, sex-role attitudes and change variables; hours and shift.

Summary

Taken together these results provide strong support for the importance of job characteristics in explaining job satisfaction. It appears that new mothers considering job changes in an effort to balance family and work demands may be threatening their job satisfaction if changes would result in decreases in skill utilization, good pay, promotional opportunities and other valued job characteristics. Decreases in hours of employment and changes in shift, the two strategies used by new mothers in this sample to meet demands were not related to job satisfaction.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

This exploratory study focused on the employment experience of new mothers. Specifically, labor force adjustments such as changes in employers, hours, occupations and job satisfaction were examined. In addition, the influence of personal, family and job characteristics on the job satisfaction of these young women was explored. This study is one of the first to examine employed women's work adjustment behavior and attitudes across the transition to parenthood.

The data for this study were taken from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth. The sample consists of married, employed women interviewed in the 1982 wave, who were also employed during the 1980 interview. Due to data base restrictions the sample represents women who were aged 17 to 25 in 1982. New mothers who gave birth to their first child in the year prior to the 1982 interview were the primary focus of the study. A pre-post design was utilized, with 1980 representing the period prior to pregnancy, and 1982 the period preceeding the child's first birthday. Comparisions of the employment behavior and job characteristics of new mothers with childless women and women with two or more children, allowed identification of changes attributable to being a new parent.

Summary of Findings

Characteristics of New Mothers

Consistent with previous research on working mothers of infants, the

typical new mother was well educated, had strong feelings of self worth, and had nontraditional attitudes toward working women. During the two year period under study, substantial personal change was experienced by these women. Not only were they confronting the responsibilities of parenthood, but also half were married for the first time during the period.

Adjustments in Employment Experience 1980-82

Comparison of 1980 employment characteristics with 1982 employment characteristics revealed few changes in the patterns of responses. The presumption that new mothers would choose jobs which underutilized their skills and limited the upgrading of skills, occupational advancement and earnings in an attempt to balance family and work responsibilities was not supported in this study. In fact, new mothers had a significant change in their perception of good pay during the period. No change was observed in their perception of skill utilization, promotional opportunities and on-the-job training.

The stability observed in job characteristics of new mothers was also apparent in the experienced mothers subgroup. In contrast, childless women experienced several changes including increases in hours worked, fringe benefits, pay, and decrease in perception of pleasant surroundings, on-the-job training, and promotional opportunities.

One of the most interesting findings relates to the number and pattern of employers over the period. Previous research has noted that women with prior work experience return more quickly to the labor force following the birth of their first child than those with women with lesser prebirth work experience. Two possible reasons have been given for this behavior. First, maternity leaves may provide women with the opportunity to return to the

same or similar job and second, the knowledge and contacts obtained while working may help women acquire employment more quickly than women without such experience. The data from this study supported the first of these explanations. In the year their children were born, ninety-one percent of new mothers remained with the same employer. This percentage of new mothers staying with the same employer was significantly higher than the percentage of the other two groups of women who stayed with one employer.

Adjustments were observed in two aspects of new mother's employment. First, new mothers doubled their participation in part-time employment, from 15% in 1980 to 30% in 1982. Over this same period, both childless women and experienced mothers were decreasing their frequency of part-time employment.

The second change is seen in shift worked, with over 40 percent of the new mothers reporting a change. Increases were experienced in day, evening, night and split shifts while decreases were observed in the other category. This frequency of change, while similar to the experienced mothers, was significantly higher than that of childless women.

Given the difficulties of integrating work and family demands, combined with the additional stress of being a new parent, the transition to parenthood was expected to impact the job satisfaction of new mothers. Three different approaches to this analysis were taken. First, being a new mother was explored as a moderator of the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction as suggested by the Job Characteristic Model. It was hypothesized that the problems of combining motherhood and work would interfere with a woman's ability or desire to attend to the

intrinsic characteristics of her work, resulting in a decrease in her satisfaction with her work. A second approach involved looking at the independent influence of transition to parenthood on job satisfaction. And finally, the indirect influence of transition to parenthood on job satisfaction was examined. This approach suggests that changes in employment behavior as a result of being a new parent, such as the decrease in hours employed or change in shift, might be directly related to change in job satisfaction. The results of the analysis did not support any of these three approaches. New mothers did not experience a significant change in job satisfaction and their level of job satisfaction did not differ from either of the comparison groups.

Correlates of Job Satisfaction

The analysis of factors related to level of job satisfaction in 1982 and change in job satisfaction over the two year period revealed similar findings. As was expected, job characteristics, both intrinsic and extrinsic, were of primary importance in describing variation in job satisfaction of the young women in this study. Job satisfaction was directly and positively related to job complexity, skill utilization, surroundings, on-the-job training, pay, co-worker relationships, job security and promotional opportunities.

In addition, the total number of employers was related to job satisfaction in a rather complex way. The more changes a woman made in employers the higher the job satisfaction, with one exception. If a woman had only one employer during the two years she had a greater positive increase in satisfaction than women who had just two employers. Those women with more than two employers had the greatest increases in job satisfaction.

The models did differ in two respects. First, the fringe benefits variable, while not related to level of job satisfaction in 1982, was significantly related to change in job satisfaction between 1980 and 1982. Also change in job designation (white to blue collar or vice versa), a variable not included in the static analysis, was significantly related to a decrease in job satisfaction.

Two personal variables, both reflecting attitude, were also related to job satisfaction. Of the two variables, a woman's attitude toward her own employment had the largest and most consistent relationship. Those women who planned to work at age 35 had a higher level of job satisfaction in 1982 and a larger positive increase in job satisfaction over the two years compared to women who did not plan to be in the labor force at that age. Self-esteem, a variable measured only in 1980, was significantly related to job satisfaction in both models, however, the direction of the relationship was not consistent. In the static model, self-esteem was positively related to job satisfaction, while in the change model, lower levels of self-esteem were related to positive change in job satisfaction.

The only family variable to enter into either equation was change in marital status. Women who changed marital status, that is were wed between the 1980 and 1982 interviews had greater positive change in job satisfaction when compared to women who were married during the entire period. Neither family or husband's income was found to be related to job satisfaction. As previously discussed, transition to parenthood was also not related to job satisfaction.

Implications

There is considerable debate over the appropriateness of employment for the mothers of very young children. The issue of maternal care and children's development will most likely keep many women from working during this period. Despite the conflicts between child care and employment demands, increasing numbers of new mothers are choosing to retain close ties to the labor force during childbearing. Awareness of the potential long-term economic consequences of intermittent labor force activity has increased the desirability of remaining in the labor force for many women.

In response to this trend both employers and employees have become concerned about personnel practices and policies which allow individuals to meet the demands of family and employment. The findings of this study have implications for the planning of such policies. In particular, the data in this study provide support for policies such as maternity leave which allow women to return to the labor force following childbirth. For the women in this sample, the ability to return to the same employer probably made the difference between being employed or remaining at home in the year prior to their child's first birthday.

The differential patterns of part-time employment exhibited by the subgroups of women in this study suggest that choice of part-time employment is related to stage in the life cycle. Unfortunately, part-time jobs which are challenging and provide opportunity for additional training and promotion are practically nonexistent (Polit, 1978). When a reduction in hours is accompanied by a reduction in the quality of the employment situation the level of job satisfaction is likely to be lessened. The findings of this study support the desirability of part-time opportunities in a broad

range of occupations for new mothers.

Adjustments in the timing of hours worked during the day is another strategy used by mothers in this study. Perhaps these women adjusted their work times in such a way to allow a family member (spouse or relative) to assume child care responsibilities while they worked. Off-scheduling among spouses is more common in families with preschool children than families at any other stage in the life cycle (Nock & Kingston, 1984). However, this strategy may add to the conflict experienced by families. In a recent study, families with members who worked other than the day shift experienced greater family and work conflict than regular day workers (Staines & Pleck, 1984). Certainly, couples who work different shifts have less time available for being together. Thus, the benefits and costs of this strategy need to be assessed before recommendations for its use are made.

The results of this research also have implications for the development of job satisfaction theory. Investigation of the moderating effect of stage in the life cycle on the relationship between job complexity and job satisfaction based on the Job Characteristics Model did not prove fruitful. In fact, several other job related variables were more important than job complexity in describing the variation in job satisfaction. Additionally, the importance of examining personality variables as predictors rather than moderators of job satisfaction is underlined by the findings of this study. However, before this model can be discounted as a framework for this type of problem, it should be noted that data base restrictions made testing of the model difficult. In particular, the inability to find a proxy for growth needs interfered with a true testing of the model.

These findings do indicate that there is no simple relationship

between family influences and the quality of an a woman's work experience. Overall there were no differences in the job satisfaction of childless women, new mothers and experienced mothers. This finding is contrary to the hypothesis that the stresses experienced during the transition to parenthood carry over to the feelings a women has about her job. Rather, the variation in job satisfaction tended to depend on job characteristics and personality variables. It is probable that the stresses and conflicts of being an employed new mother are multidimensional, affecting some parts of women's work experience and not others. A beneficial direction for research will be to examine family influences on job satisfaction using more refined measures of family and work conflict.

Finally, these findings must be viewed as tentative. While the sample was selected from a nationally representative data base, the subsample of new mothers is relatively small. Furthermore, the data were representative only of women between the ages of 15 and 26 who stay married. A more complete understanding of the dynamics of the labor force behavior of new mothers requires responses from a larger sample representing all ages of married and unmarried women. Nonetheless, several patterns seem to emerge which should provide important information to policy makers, employers, professionals and families members who are involved in the development of strategies for alleviating family and work tension.

Specific Recommendations for Further Research

1. Further analysis of these data should include a comparision of personal, family and employment characteristics of employed new mothers with new mothers who did not return to the labor force in the year following their

child's birth. This analysis may provide valuable information on the factors influencing women's labor force behavior during this life cycle period.

2. Several variables which have potential for impacting on new mothers' job satisfaction were unavailable in the NLS-Youth data base. Future studies may find measures of satisfaction with working, child care, family life and life in general useful in explaining change in job satisfaction across the transition to parenthood. In addition, direct measurement of family-work conflict should be considered, as women are likely to differ in their ability to adjust to the addition of the parent role.

3. Additional research should also be aimed at clarifying the relationship between personality measures and job satisfaction. One question in particular is raised by these data; How is change in job satisfaction influenced by self-esteem? Longitudinal research which measures both variables at various points in time may shed some light on this relationship.

ENDNOTES

¹ In the weighting procedure adjustment is made for the oversampling of Hispanic, black and poor youth. As a result, some of the percentages reported represent less than one person.

² Two levels of default (.05 and .10) were used in the Newman-Keuls procedure throughout the study. No additional significant relationships were identified at the .10 level.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

WEIGHTING

A constant of 3341.89 was determined by dividing the sum of the primary sample weights (1,129,559.70) by 338, the primary sample size. The sum of the weights for each subgroup were divided by this constant to arrive at the adjusted subsample size.

Group	Sum of Weights	Weighted Subsample size	Unweighted Subsample size
NM	88,196.75	26.39	31
CW	630,655.29	188.71	171
EM	185,907.17	55.63	62
Other	224,800.45	67.27	74
TOTAL	1,129,559.70	337.97	338

APPENDIX B

MEASURES

Appendix B-1

Job Complexity

Job complexity was measured using the shortened version of the Motivating Potential Score (MPS) developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975). Three questions (listed below) measure the extent to which a women perceives her job to provide the following characteristics; task significance, skill identity, skill variety, autonomy and feedback. The combination of these dimensions is

$$\text{MPS} = \frac{\text{task significance} + \text{task identity} + \text{skill variety}}{3} \times \text{autonomy} \times \text{feedback}$$

1. We would like to know what kinds of opportunities (this job offers/ your most recent job offered) you. (First/Next), how much opportunity (does/did) this job give you -- a minimum amount, not too much, a moderate amount, quite a lot, or a maximum amount?

To do a number of different things.

For independent thought or action.

To do a job from beginning to end.

2. How much (does/did) your job give you the feeling that the job itself (is/was) very significant or important in the broader scheme of things -- a minimum amount, not too much, a moderate amount, quite a lot, or a maximum amount?

3. How much (does/did) your job give you the feeling that you know or not you are performing you job well or poorly -- a minimum amount, not too much, a moderate amount, quite a lot, or a maximum amount?

Appendix B-2

Self-Esteem Scale

Rosenberg's (1965) Self-Esteem Scale was used in this study.

Respondents were asked how much they agreed or disagreed (coded 1-4) with the following list of opinions people have about themselves.

- 1. I am a person of worth. (+)**
- 2. I have a number of good qualities. (+)**
- 3. I am incline to feel that I am a failure. (-)**
- 4. I am as capable as others. (+)**
- 5. I feel I have nothing much to be proud of. (-)**
- 6. I have a positive attitude. (+)**
- 7. I am satisfied with myself. (+)**
- 8. I wish I had more self-respect. (-)**
- 9. I feel useless at times. (-)**
- 10. I sometimes think I am "no good" at all. (-)**

The score on the positively worded statements were reversed and the responses summed. The resulting scale has a range of 10-40, with 40 representing a high level of self-esteem.

Appendix B-3

Non-Traditionalism Scale

This scale developed by Mott (1983), consists of four questions measuring individual sex-role attitudes regarding wives' employment and family responsibilities. Respondents were asked how strongly they agreed or disagreed with the following statements:

- 1. A woman's place is in the home, not in the office or shop.**
- 2. A wife who carries out her full responsibilities doesn't have time for outside employment.**
- 3. It is much better for everyone concerned if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family.**
- 4. Women are much happier if they stay at home and take care of the their children.**

Questions are scored from 1-4 and summed creating a potential range of 4-16. Lower scores reflect more egalitarian responses and higher scores represent more traditional values.

APPENDIX C

PERSONAL, FAMILY AND EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

Appendix C-1
Comparison of Educational Level by Subgroup

Source	df	M.S.	F	p value
Education	268	2.18	9.26	.00

Group	mean	sd
New mothers	12.96	1.54
Childless women	12.63	1.49
Experienced mothers	11.74	1.40

Newman-Keuls procedure indicates that experienced mothers have a significantly different mean than both new mothers and childless women at a default level of .05.

Appendix C-2
Comparison of Self-Esteem by Subgroup

Source	df	MS	F	p value
Self-Esteem	268	16.47	5.88	.00
Group	mean	sd		
New Mothers	32.79	3.68		
Childless Women	33.95	4.13		
Experienced Mothers	31.89	3.98		

Newman-Keuls procedure indicates that experienced mothers had a significantly different mean self-esteem from childless women at the .05 default level.

Addendix C-3
Husband's Occupation by Subgroup

	NM	CW	EM
	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
Professional	7.9 (2)	10.9 (20)	7.6 (4)
Managerial	8.3 (2)	19.0 (35)	9.4 (5)
Salesperson	6.6 (2)	8.1 (15)	4.2 (2)
Clerical	14.4 (4)	4.2 (8)	3.2 (2)
Craftsmen	15.7 (4)	15.9 (29)	23.4 (12)
Armed Forces	9.7 (2)	2.1 (4)	5.1 (3)
Operatives	21.8 (5)	23.6 (43)	19.4 (10)
Laborers	10.9 (3)	6.7 (12)	6.8 (3)
Farmers	1.4 (-)	.2 (-)	3.8 (2)
Farm laborers & formen	-	1.1 (2)	-
Service workers	2.4 (1)	6.0 (11)	16.4 (8)
Did not work	.8 (-)	2.1 (4)	-
Never worked	-	-	.9 (-)
TOTAL 259 missing data (n= 12)			

Due to weighting and rounding of numbers the total may not add up to 271.

Appendix C-4
Comparison of Hours Worked by Subgroup in 1980

Source	df	MS	F	p value
Usually hours worked	266	51.43	1.58	.21

Group	mean	sd
New Mothers	37.99	7.62
Childless Women	37.55	6.35
Experienced Women	35.69	9.38

APPENDIX D
EMPLOYMENT ADJUSTMENTS

Appendix D-1
Comparison of Hours Worked by Subgroup in 1982

Source	df	MS	F	p value
Hours usually worked	267	45.41	3.84	.02

Group	mean	sd
New Mothers	34.55	9.67
Childless Women	38.41	5.60
Experienced Mothers	38.23	8.42

Newman-Keuls procedure indicates that new mothers have a significantly different mean from both childless women and experienced mothers at a default level of .05.

Appendix D-2

Change in Employment Characteristics of Childless Women

Variable	1980	1982	mean difference	sd	p value
USHRWK	37.55	38.41	-.86	6.53	.07
FB	2.32	2.50	-.18	1.13	.04
BEST	3.32	3.26	.06	.99	.42
SURR	3.47	3.30	.17	.83	.01
OJT	3.47	3.28	.19	.88	.01
PAY	2.81	2.96	-.15	1.11	.09
SEC	3.47	3.47	-.00	1.07	.96
FRIE	3.71	3.73	-.02	.63	.71
PRO	2.89	2.65	.24	1.27	.01
JS	1.75	1.75	-.00	.87	.95

For all variables except JS a negative mean difference indicates a increase from 1980 to 1982.

Appendix D-3

Change in Employment Characteristics of Experience Mothers

Variable	1980	1982	mean difference	sd	p value
USHRWK	35.76	37.64	-1.88	9.52	.15
FB	2.48	2.00	.48	1.49	.03
BEST	3.28	3.28	.00	1.04	.99
SURR	3.18	3.31	-.13	1.00	.38
OJT	2.85	2.87	-.02	1.01	.88
PAY	2.87	2.90	-.03	1.00	.83
SEC	3.11	3.06	.05	1.43	.81
FRIE	3.40	3.29	.11	1.34	.56
PRO	2.58	2.25	.33	1.09	.04
JS	1.79	1.75	.04	.95	.73

For all variables except JS a negative mean difference indicates a increase from 1980 to 1982.

Appendix D-4

Comparison of Change in Job Satisfaction by Subgroup

Source	df	MS	F	p value
Change in Job Satisfaction	267	.75	.15	.86
Group	mean	sd		
New Mothers	.08	.59		
Childless Women	-.00	.87		
Experienced Mothers	.04	.95		

APPENDIX E
FINAL REGRESSION MODELS

Appendix E-1
Final Regression Model for Static Job Satisfaction

Variable	Coefficient	p value
Constant	4.62525	.00
BEST82	-.331203	.00
PRO82	-.112499	.01
WORK35	-.137339	.00
SURR82	-.159964	.00
PAY82	-.122250	.02
SESCALE	-.018352	.08

$n = 199, R^2 = .44$

Appendix E-2

Final Regression Model for Change in Job Satisfaction

Variable	Coefficient	p value
Constant	.388050	.39
CHBEST	-.234268	.00
CHPRO	-.169962	.00
TOTEMP	.238929	.00
CHPAY	-.141268	.01
WORK35	.164157	.00
CHSURR	-.127479	.03
CHEMP	-.184725	.03
SESCALE	-.028956	.03
CHCOLLAR	-.146376	.08
CHMARRY	.097157	.09

n= 206, $R^2 = .37$