

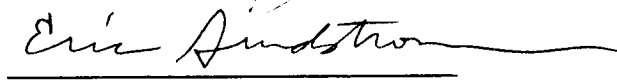
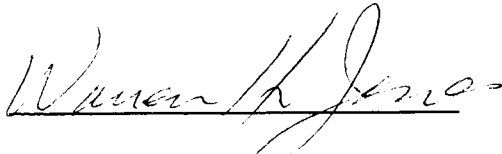
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Jerri Leigh Yates entitled "Identity Salience and the Life Domains of Work and Nonwork". I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Psychology.



John W. Lounsbury, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:



Accepted for the Council:



Associate Vice Chancellor and
Dean of The Graduate School

**IDENTITY SALIENCE
AND THE LIFE DOMAINS OF
WORK AND NONWORK**

**A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville**

Jerri Leigh Yates

December 1996

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband,

George Randolph Cooper III,

and my daughter,

Elizabeth Leigh Yates Cooper.

George has always been at the core of my decision to follow this path, providing love, support, challenge, and purpose, especially during those times when I would have faltered without his gentle prodding. He has sacrificed much in order to enable me to complete this part of my journey.

To my daughter, Leigh, I am dedicated to helping her find her path, *and* her identity. She, too, has given much during the birthing of this dissertation as her start in this life coincided with the timing of this project, although she may not understand all of her contributions for many years to come.

Without them both, my identity would be sorely lacking.

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I wish to acknowledge my committee chair, John Lounsbury, without whom I would most likely not have become a psychologist. John is known for mentoring his students, particularly early on in their endeavors, and I was no exception. His interest and support was fundamental to my decision making to return to school, and I am grateful to him for all of his efforts since that time.

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In addition, I would be remiss if I did not mention the support I received from my research experience over the past four years with the Children's Mental Health Services Research Center. Charles Glisson, Tony Hemmelgarn, Jim Bailey, Carey Peters, and Lisa Martin provided challenge, resources, laughter and commiseration during the process of the NIMH work and this dissertation. I will always remember that experience with fondness and appreciation.

Lastly, I wish to thank John Montgomery for all of his hard work in preparation for this project. He enabled me to focus where and when I needed, and I feel extreme gratitude for his always conscientious efforts.

ABSTRACT

The present study investigated the concept of identity salience, the relative importance of a given identity for self definition. The knowledge base of identity salience was extended in two ways. First, an exploratory study of the nature of individual's freely chosen identities was conducted, including the number and types of identities people choose when contemplating their total selves. Second, a multidimensional measure of identity salience was constructed which classified participants into one of four subgroups utilizing the most salient nonwork and work identities (i.e., low/low, low/high, high/low, or high/high). The subgroups were used to investigate the predictive interaction of identity salience with other predictors of job involvement. This was accomplished by developing and analyzing a symmetrical conceptual model incorporating work and nonwork domain variables. Multigroup structural equation modeling techniques were utilized. Participants (N=201) were volunteers who were paid employees in one of nine organizations which took part in the study. An anonymous self-report questionnaire was used to gather the data which included scales to measure identity salience, job involvement, and the other predictor variables (i.e., work centrality, role conflict, social support, and person-environment fit). All hypotheses with the exception of one were supported. The moderating effect of identity salience was found for all paths in the conceptual model. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

According to Super (1982), the word salience "...comes from the Latin word salire, to go out, from which come also the terms sally port, a small door in a castle or city wall from which soldiers might go out on reconnaissance..., and salient, a bulge in the line of advance of an army on the move..." (p. 97).

Although Super was referring specifically to career/work salience in the cited article, the implication that salience denotes relative importance or "the degree to which a given role stands out from others played" is the conceptualization of identity salience used in this study.

Identity is clearly a contemporary issue of interest to psychologists and laypersons alike. A vast literature incorporating the self, identity and role contemplation can be found from multiple sources, both academic and non-academic. Popular management theory (e.g., Bennis, 1989; Covey, 1989), best-selling vocational and career guidance (e.g., Boldt, 1991; Bolles, 1996) and myriad "self-help" titles all weigh in by advocating the importance of identity as a facet of modern work and nonwork life. In the research realm, aside from the existing, divergent clinical psychology and sociology perspectives and research on the concept of identity, increased psychological exploration into identity salience from a social and individual perspective is needed.

This study was designed to extend the knowledge base of identity salience in two ways: by investigating the concept of an individual's identity salience via freely chosen identities, and by elaborating the construct as multidimensional. Identity salience has been traditionally viewed in a unidimensional manner, thereby limiting the range of complexity that is inherent. The first goal of this study involved the exploratory investigation of the nature of individuals' freely chosen identities; that is, how many and what type of identities people choose when considering their total selves, how salience varies from identity-to-identity and person-to-person, and how work and nonwork identities relate to one another in terms of comparative salience.

By moving from the predominant role-specific measures of identity salience found in the literature to a measure incorporating the interaction of an individual's multiple identities, a greater understanding of the reciprocal nature of both the work and nonwork domains of contemporary employees may be gained. For this study the nature of work was defined as paid employment outside of the home. Certainly the concept of work is broader than paid employment in a workplace (e.g., work on the "second shift" experienced by many contemporary couples as noted by Hochschild, 1989). Furthermore, other "nonwork" arenas such as freely chosen leisure activities and volunteer commitments may retain the vestiges of work for many individuals (Guterman, 1994). Nonetheless, this study necessarily bounds the concept of work by

constraining it to paid employment outside of the home, facilitating the second goal of this study in a parsimonious fashion.

The second goal of this study was to utilize a multidimensional measure of identity salience to investigate the predictive interaction of identity salience with work and nonwork domain variables in the explanation of a work-based outcome, specifically job involvement. This was accomplished by developing a symmetrical conceptual model which incorporated both work and nonwork domain constructs, and by testing the model in a more appropriate and statistically powerful manner employing structural equation modeling techniques.

Generally considered to be the two major areas of individuals' lives, the work and nonwork domains are sometimes called spheres (Zedeck, 1992), other times referenced as life spaces (Splink, 1975), sectors (Kanter, 1977), and domains (Zedeck). It has long been understood that the work identity is not the only important identity an individual may have, even if that knowledge has not been comprehensively incorporated into contemporary research regarding the workplace (Kanter). The workplace is now experiencing changes in demographics which predicate shifts in employee attitudes, motivations, and values, including an increased desire for balance between work and nonwork life (Offerman & Gowing, 1990). The reality for large numbers of people is that the demands of everyday work are not psychologically consuming (Erikson, 1990), and many individuals turn to activities outside the domain of paid work

for a sense of meaning and identity (Freidson, 1990). Individuals may consider their nonwork domain identities more salient than their work identities, a phenomenon which has been called "double lives" by Wheeler (1990).

In addition, it has been advanced that the relationship between the domains is reciprocal (i.e., each one having an impact upon the other), and the concept of reciprocity between work and nonwork is gaining recognition in organizational studies (Zedeck, 1992). If research incorporating the individual in the workplace is to have meaningful explanatory power, awareness and inclusion of multiple identities (e.g., identities from each domain) is essential in those studies where the work and nonwork domains are included and considered reciprocal. And as Kanter (1977) advised, there are very few areas, if any, where the domains are not reciprocal.

When identity salience is considered in a unidimensional manner, the accompanying loss of complexity is a limiting factor. The literature is replete with examples of one-role-at-a-time salience studies, but is lacking in research conceptualizing identity salience in a multiply-determined manner. Given the existence of multiple roles and the importance of nonwork identities in individuals' lives, a challenge to the unidimensional operationalization of identity salience is needed. To address the challenge, the following research question was posed: What is the multidimensional nature of identity salience for individuals' work and nonwork identities?

Job involvement has been a fixture in the psychological literature for over thirty years; more, in fact, if surrogates of the construct are considered (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). As the need for increased productivity and decreased turnover are ever-present, an individual's psychological withdrawal from a job may be a significant liability to an organization (Jackson & Schuler, 1990). The opportunity for increasing the understanding of antecedents of job involvement is substantial, particularly if nonwork domain factors are included (Rabinowitz, Hall, & Goodale, 1977).

Erikson (1990) lamented the decline of valued work and the increase of routinization in jobs, as it "takes from everyday work some of its meaning, its creativity, its ability to provide identity" (p. 7). Offerman and Gowing (1990) proposed that modern workers, when compared with past generations, have a growing perception of entitlement to greater job involvement. Couple the decreasing ability of work to meet identity needs for some individuals with increasing expectations for job involvement, and the integration of identity salience into work and nonwork predictors is reasonable to enhance prediction of job involvement.

According to Pittman and Orthner (1988a), complex conceptual models are necessary to more fully understand the relationships of variables across the domains of work and nonwork. Incorporation of the complex, multi-factor approach is increasingly seen as researchers build organization, family, social, and personal factors into models (e.g., Pittman, 1995; Frone, Russell, & Cooper,

1992a; Howard, 1992; Burke, 1988; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986). To continue in that tradition, this study describes a potential causal model where reciprocal work and nonwork domain factors are included to predict job involvement.

Identity salience as proposed in this study may enhance the understanding of the relationships among work and nonwork contributions to outcomes in both domains in the broad framework of work and nonwork linkages. In this study, job involvement in the work domain was the outcome of interest. Given the opportunity for improved understanding of the work and nonwork contributors to job involvement, the second research question was set forth: Is there an interaction effect between identity salience and work and nonwork predictors of job involvement?

In order to address both of the general research questions, an investigation examining identity salience and job involvement was conducted. The purpose of the study was two-fold. The first general research question attempted to examine the multidimensional nature of identity salience across two major life-space domains: work and nonwork. Secondly, the study utilized a unique classification of identity salience to investigate the relationships among a specific set of work and nonwork variables. This was accomplished by creating a multidimensional measure of identity salience. A conceptual model was used to examine possible causal relationships among variables. Identity salience was proposed to moderate the relationships of the predictor variables

(i.e., person-nonwork domain fit, nonwork-to-work interference, person-work domain fit, work-to-nonwork interference, and work centrality) to the criterion variable, job involvement. Please see Figure 1.1 for a graphical representation of the conceptual model.

In order to specifically test the hypotheses, a structural model analysis approach was utilized. Structural equation modeling is a comprehensive statistical approach to testing hypotheses about models where the model is basically a statistical statement about the relationships among the latent variables of interest (Hoyle, 1995). The use of structural equation modeling permits simultaneous testing of multiple direct and mediator effects on a single criterion (James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1992). In addition, the analysis provided by structural equation modeling allows for a more complete integration of complex relationships among variables. Lastly, the use of structural equation modeling is appropriate for the comparison of multi-level moderating effects across many relationships, as was accomplished in this study. A particular form of structural equation modeling, multigroup structural equation modeling, was specifically employed in order to determine the interaction of the multidimensional measure of identity salience with the conceptual model variables.

Empirically, the most precise answer to a question concerning multiple mediation, multiple moderation, and complex interrelationships among a number of latent variables is through the use structural equation modeling. Given the multidimensional nature of the proposed moderator, identity salience,

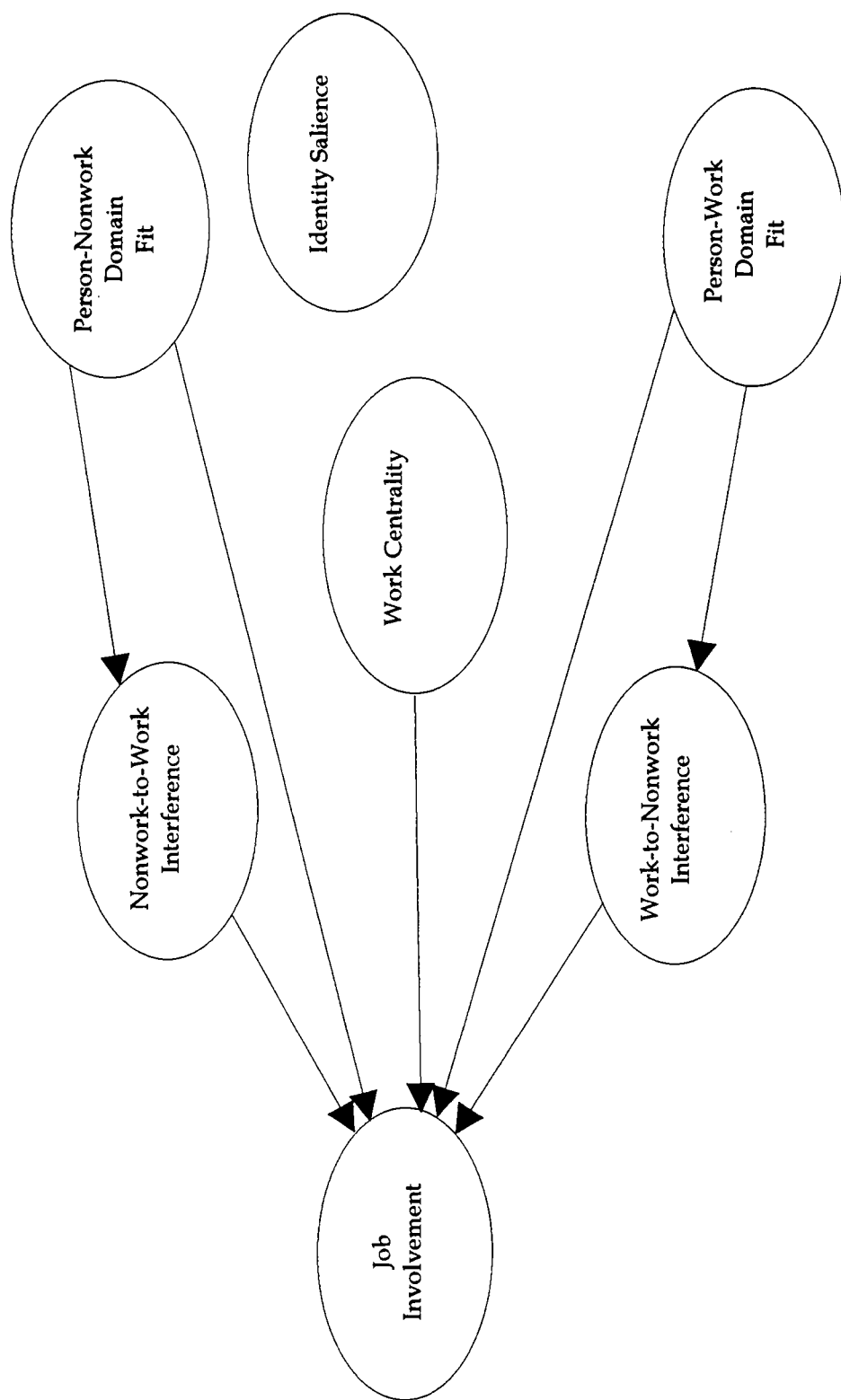


Figure 1.1. Conceptual Model.

the hypotheses were examined with the appropriate use of multigroup structural equation modeling. Multigroup structural equation modeling is uniquely suited for exploring these questions because of its ability to test a theoretical model for applicability to different groups simultaneously. A single goodness-of-fit statistic evaluates a set of complex models. In this study, the subgroups (i.e., the four identity salience subgroups) were evaluated against the universal structural model.

Both a universal model and a group model are estimated. The universal model hypothesizes both an equivalent model fit for all groups and no significant group differences in parameter estimates. The second, "group-sensitive," model estimates group differences by recognizing that the subgroups may have distinct relationships among the variables, despite the general applicability of the theoretical model. Extending the potential of single modifier analyses, this study assumed that the interaction of work and nonwork identity saliences may predict different relationships in a conceptual model with work and nonwork predictors of job involvement. This technique had not been previously utilized in cross-domain research of a similar nature, regardless of the outcome investigated.

In addition to incorporating multigroup structural equation modeling to facilitate the understanding of complex relationships, this study plowed new ground with respect to the general concept of identity salience. To date, no previous empirical studies have investigated individuals' freely chosen identities

or the salience ascribed to them. Nor has previous research examined the proposition that identity salience may moderate the relationships delineated in Figure 1.1. By completing this research, in addition to conceptualizing identity salience more appropriately as multidimensional than unidimensional, the study provided greater insight to work and nonwork contributions to job involvement.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of the present section is to review the relevant literature for the study and provide a foundation for the research questions and hypotheses. This section begins with a formal review of the existing literature regarding identity salience. As the context of the study involves a person's work and nonwork identities, an overview of the reciprocal domains of work and nonwork as a framework is included. The literature review of each specific predictor and criterion variable is then presented. To set the stage for the hypotheses, the linkages among the predictor and criterion variables are discussed as is the proposition that identity salience serves as a moderating influence of those relationships. Finally, the general research questions and hypotheses are presented.

Framework

Identity Salience

The origins of identity salience can be traced as far back as the Scottish moral philosophers (Stryker & Serpe, 1986), but for the purposes of this study, an often cited William James's perspective will be considered as a starting point. James's (1890/1950) notion of the multiplicity of selves and the varying value an individual places on each of those selves is the basis for identity salience. The proposition that there are as many selves as there are distinct groups whose

opinions have importance (Hoelter, 1983) follows James and leads to symbolic interactionism (Stryker, 1968, 1980), which also preceded the current view of identity salience.

Symbolic interactionism (Stryker, 1980) views the self as a structure of identities or role identities (McCall & Simmons, 1966). Identities are defined in part by the social structure and in part by the individual. Stryker (1980) stated that "identity theory grows directly out of symbolic interactionism where the self develops through a social process by which we come to know who and what we are through interaction with others" (p.60). When taken together, the distinct identities are said to represent the person (Callero, 1985). Identity salience is, therefore, a "particularization" of the larger concept of the self (Stryker).

Some researchers prefer the term role, others use identity, and yet others refer to parts of the self. For purposes of this review, all related terms will be deemed identity for clarity and continuity.

Stryker (1968) and McCall and Simmons (1966) led the charge in examining the relative importance of identities for defining the self as a whole. Identity prominence (McCall & Simmons) and identity salience (Hoelter, 1983; Stryker) are labels referencing essentially the same construct. According to Stryker (1980), the self must be seen as complex and differentiated as well as constructed from diverse parts which are discrete identities. Identities are considered hierarchically ordered in terms of their probabilities of being invoked in a given situation or across situations. Of great importance is the

assumption that some identities are more a part of the self than others. The separate identities may then have variable effects on the self-concept of individuals. For one person, the occupational identity may be dominant; for another, it may be a non-occupational identity such as parent, religious affiliation, or friend. The most salient identity is the dominant aspect of the self which will take precedence over other identities (Callero, 1985).

Definitions of Identity Salience. As such, Stryker specifically defined identity salience "as the probability, for a given person, of a given identity being invoked in a variety of situations. Alternatively...as the differential probability among persons of a given identity being invoked in a given situation" (1968, p. 560). This view argues that the higher the salience of an identity within one's self-concept, the greater that identity's motivational significance to the overall self.

Hoelter (1983) defined identity salience in a congruent, but simpler and more general way: identity salience is the relative importance or centrality of a given identity (or role) for defining oneself. In other words "... identity salience is defined as the importance of an identity for defining one's self relative to the other identities an individual holds" (Hoelter, 1985b, p.119). It is Hoelter's definition and method of operationalizing identity salience that this study adopted.

Before progressing to further explanation of Hoelter's approach, other research methods of investigating identity salience will be reviewed. Tracing

the research incorporating identity salience is done by reviewing two general elements. First, when reviewing the number of identities examined, a contrast is found between one-identity-at-a-time investigations and those studying multiple identities within and across individuals. Secondly, the measurement techniques used to assess salience are differentiated.

Number of Identities Examined. Most studies employing the concept of identity salience have either looked at a single identity in isolation or compared one identity with another. Even those studies utilizing multiple identities generally focused on two or sometimes three identities as contrasts. The primary identity in a number of studies has been the work identity, including those where actual contrasts have been made. There are, however, some studies which included as many as seven identities, although these did not generally provide comparisons across the identities. Each study will be referenced below.

Prior to the early 1970s, few studies had examined the relative importance of life identities unless they were studies of work and leisure (e.g., Champoux, 1981). Greenhaus (1971) was among the first to use the term salience in an applied psychological sense, operationalizing the construct by devising a measure of the relative importance of work. Other identities were not studied by Greenhaus, but careers were compared a priori to other nonwork areas of life. For example, one item of Greenhaus's instrument is "I intend to pursue the job of my choice even if it cuts deeply into the time I have for my family". Many studies utilizing Greenhaus's scale have been published, including those

investigating career salience of South African adolescents (Watson & Stead, 1990); college students (Fannin, 1979; Greenhaus, 1973); nurses and teachers in Singapore (Aryee & Tan, 1992); and managers in the United States (Sugalski & Greenhaus, 1986), among others.

Other one identity-at-a-time studies included religious identity salience (Grasmick, Bursik, & Cochran, 1991; Stryker & Serpe, 1986); ethnic identity salience (White & Burke, 1987); mother identity salience (Nuttbrock & Freudiger, 1991); parental salience (Simon, 1992); and involuntarily childlessness as an identity (Matthews & Matthews, 1986).

Few studies have directly compared two or three identities. A study investigating career salience operationalized it as a continuum with career at one end and family at the other (Lobel & St. Clair, 1992), thereby comparing work versus family identities. Despite the supposition that two identities were being assessed, only one dichotomy was analyzed, implying that work versus family is the accurate way to view the identities in concert. Another more clearly two-identity study was done by Adler and Adler (1987) in a comparison of college athletes' academic and athletic identities. In multi-identity evaluations by Shamir (1992) and Callero (1985), three identities were assessed. However, each study was interested primarily in only one of the identities. Shamir measured leisure salience for college students along with student and family identities; Callero measured blood donor salience, but compared it with the relative importance of religious and work identities. In one of the few other multi-

identity studies, Burke and Reitzes (1981) appraised college student identities by comparing undergraduates with different levels of graduate students.

A series of studies have incorporated the measurement of multiple home and family identities in a four identity framework. In a critique of the unidimensional measurement of the contrast between work and family identities, Amatea and colleagues (Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby, 1986) developed a scale which assesses four life identities: occupational, spouse, parent, and homemaker. The Life Role Salience Scales (LRSS) were designed to improve upon those measures which typically conceptualize work and family identity involvements as mutually exclusive attitudes and structure them as bipolar opposites along one continuum. Per Amatea et al., life identities are likely multidimensional constructs and probably vary both dependently and independently of one another. Another goal for the instrument was to broaden the application to men in addition to women. The LRSS have been used by Aryee (1992) with married professional women in Singapore, when comparing childless career-oriented women with those who were mothers (Reading & Amatea, 1986), and when contrasting male and female MBA graduates (Chi-Ching, 1995).

Another multiple-identity measure of identity salience was developed by Super (1982) which broadened the scope of identities beyond those of work and family. The Salience Inventory measures salience as the relative importance of up to five life identities (student, worker, citizen, homemaker, and leisurite).

Several studies have used the Salience Inventory in conjunction with the Time Scale and the Values Scale, all three instruments associated with the Work Importance Study, an international project with which Super was intimately involved. In addition, other research has employed the instrument (e.g., Cook, 1994; Duarte, 1995; Super & Nevill, 1984).

Hoelter's efforts (1983; 1985a; 1985b), described in more detail below, also offered the opportunity to examine more than one identity at a time. Seven identities—student, child, friend, worker, athlete, religious person, and dating person—were assessed in research by Hoelter and Hoelter and Harper (1987). As in all of the previously described multiple-identity research, the identities were chosen a priori for the participant by the researcher. In contrast, Jackson (1981) described a manner in which multiple identities were freely chosen by the participants. This method, too, will be highlighted below.

Measurement Techniques. Regarding which identities an individual evaluates, practically all of the literature relates that the selection of identities is accomplished by the researcher. As mentioned above, Jackson (1981) developed a methodology by which each participant selects the identities he/she wishes. This approach was particularly appropriate for this study, as will be described in a subsequent section.

The actual measurement of identity salience has typically consisted of Likert type questions answered on an agreement scale. The career salience instrument developed by Greenhaus (1973) contained 28 items measured on a

Likert type scale, consisting of three factors: the relative priority of careers; general attitudes toward work, and career advancement and planning. The multiple-identity LRSS (Amatea et al., 1986) also uses a Likert type response scale for two aspects of each identity: the personal importance or value attributed to participation in a particular identity, and the intended level of commitment of personal time and resources to the enactment of an identity. Both the Greenhaus career salience measure and the scales of the LRSS report mean values.

The Salience Inventory (Super, 1982) used three scales to assess salience of each identity: the Commitment scale, the Participation scale, and a Role Values Grid. The Participation scale assessed the behavioral components in the identities whereas the Commitment scale estimated the affective component for each identity. Each scale consisted of ten items rated for each identity via 5-point response options. A mean value is calculated from each of the two scales in order to represent a "percent of life space" for each identity. The Role Values Grid evaluated twenty values from Super's Value Scale for each identity and generated an overall mean for each value considered. Of the instruments reviewed, the Salience Inventory offered the largest amount of information and the greatest complexity when considering identity salience. Given its complexity and multiple scales, this may explain why, when compared to other instruments, it has been used infrequently in identity salience research, but more often in vocational counseling.

Other, less complex methods to assess salience have also been used. In contrast to the Salience Inventory, an overly simplistic approach was used by Simon (1992) to measure parental salience. One item was used, asking respondents how committed they were to being a parent. In a novel approach, White and Burke (1987) estimated salience with others as the frame of reference, evaluating ethnic salience in terms of how the respondent thought others think of him/her. Another notable difference from the Likert type scales includes Burke and Reitzes (1981) usage of semantic differential techniques and discriminant function analysis to measure the identity of interest (undergraduate college students) relative to other relevant counter-identities that serve to anchor the identity in question.

Hoelter (1983, 1985a, 1985b) and Hoelter and Harper (1987) also utilized a semantic differential scale by measuring salience with a 7-point semantic differential response for three items for each of seven identities. Transformation of the mean values into z-scores to allow both within and across individual comparison set Hoelter's methodology apart from all the previously mentioned research. This improvement will be further highlighted below.

One approach to the measurement of specific identity salience has been elaborated by Hoelter (1983, 1985a, 1985b) and Hoelter & Harper (1987). As mentioned above, most studies have computed a value for a specific identity's salience via summing scale items. This method fails to consider the relative positioning of a set of scores across an individual's multiple identities. For

example, a low score relative to the overall sample for an individual's work identity salience may not be clearly understood if that individual's nonwork identity salience values were even lower than his/her work value.

Hoelter proposed an alternative where measurement begins by considering the locations of identities with respect to each other in varying importance for self-definition. In this manner, identity salience is computed as a standard score using the mean and standard deviation from the salience distribution of an individual. By computing a set of z-scores for each individual, salience is then standardized, allowing meaningful comparisons of identity salience both across an individual's roles and across individuals. This methodology operationalizes identity salience as the importance of an identity for self-definition relative to other identities an individual holds rather than relative to other individuals. As stated earlier, it is this operationalization of identity salience that this study uses.

In no study, however, has the multiple dimensionality of work and nonwork identities been directly examined. Individuals have not been classified in a multiply-determined manner so that it is possible to have, for example, high salience of both work and nonwork identities combined in such a way as to distinguish those individuals from others who may have high work but low nonwork identity salience. Adults in contemporary society occupy multiple identities (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1995), and maintaining involvement in them is not automatically negative or conflicting for all individuals (Williams &

Alliger, 1994). Research has demonstrated that employees can sustain high levels of psychological involvement in both their work and families (Bartolome & Evans, 1985; Romzek, 1989). Therefore, high levels of psychological attachment to a job do not necessarily mean a lack of psychological energy to sustain commitments to family or other aspects of nonwork life. Individuals can sustain several psychological attachments simultaneously; work and personal involvements do not necessarily have to be in conflict. Moreover, employees with high levels of job involvement are not by default exclusively or excessively absorbed in their jobs (Romzek, 1989), yet this is the manner in which most related studies of identity salience have framed the issue. The findings of Barnett and Baruch (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Baruch & Barnett, 1986) in studies of women's multiple identities of paid worker, wife and mother were illustrative of this critique. Their results suggested that the important issues are more the qualitative versus quantitative aspects of identity involvement. It seems that the impact of multiple identities is related to perceived quality of the identity, among other things, and not just the status of having an identity per se.

Prior to Greenhaus (1971), little research had occurred dealing with the extent to which individuals differ along the dimensions of career salience or work importance. And as reviewed above, the concept of the multidimensional nature of identity salience is not found operationalized in the literature other than the LRSS (Amatea et al., 1986). Despite Amatea and colleagues independent assessment of multiple identities, the LRSS was limited to work-

family measures; furthermore, no research has been conducted where combinations of the LRSS identities have been considered. This study advances the idea that it is possible to classify an individual's identity salience in a meaningful multidimensional manner. The premise that viewing work and nonwork as reciprocal domains actually necessitates the multidimensional treatment of identity salience is addressed in the next section.

Reciprocal Domains of Work and Nonwork

In a pioneering treatise to reshape the view of the domains of work and nonwork and how they are studied, Kanter (1977) asserted that the separation of the worlds of work and family was, in fact, a myth. Kanter challenged the arbitrary separation of the institutions and argued for the importance of examining both domains. The challenge was answered by a dramatic increase in the research including both work and family domain constructs, but the results fall short of the potential. The complex models necessary to incorporate both domains simultaneously may be one reason for the shortfall. Piotrkowski (1978) suggested contemporary patterns of work and family are shaped by complex relationships including cultural, psychological, and structural factors. Bielby (1992) proposed that by considering the connections, intersections and transactions between the workplace and nonwork domains, the reciprocal dynamics between the domains can be identified. Translating that awareness into empirical study, however, has been a challenge for researchers.

Researchers now recognize that there are mutual influences between the domains, and much empirical work has been published and reviewed examining some of the microlevel linkages (see Greenhaus, 1988; Lambert, 1990; Swanson, 1992; Voydanoff, 1988; and Watkins & Subich, 1995 for comprehensive reviews). Several limitations in the research were noted by Bielby (1992): the micro- versus macro-level approaches taken by most researchers, the specification of unidirectional versus bidirectional effects between the domains, and the predominance of work-to-family variable effects, with family-to-work effects neglected. Nonetheless, Lambert concluded that the growing knowledge base supports the position that nonwork responsibilities and identities are important considerations for factors effecting workers' job experiences.

Regardless of the research accomplished, Lobel (1991) asserted that the processes which explain career and nonwork investments have yet to be elaborated. To aid in that elaboration, a framework employing identity theory in which a model of an individual's allocation of investment in the work identity and the impact on work-related outcomes was delineated by Lobel and St. Clair (1992). Limited research utilizing that framework has been conducted.

Indirectly addressing the concept of allocation of investments in life roles, Kelly and Kelly (1994) stated that the question is no longer whether work is central to life, but under what conditions work centrality is produced. Loscocco (1989) asserts that the real question is under what conditions are workers likely to define employment as primarily instrumental and supportive of other life

areas. For the most part, analyses of life domains have concentrated on single themes. A more comprehensive approach would attempt to identify the relative salience of multiple life themes (Kelly & Kelly). More attention should be given to the qualitative aspects of multiple identities, particularly how work and nonwork identities interact. Baruch and colleagues (Baruch, Biener, & Barnett, 1987) advise that attention to the qualitative aspects of identities is necessary to understand both interactions of and involvement in multiple identities.

Two major views of the relationship of multiple identities to life outcomes are the scarcity hypothesis (Goode, 1974) and the enhancement hypothesis (Sieber, 1974; Marks, 1977). These competing hypotheses are referenced in the literature to either support or detract from the positions that occupying multiple identities is either "good" or "bad". The scarcity hypothesis assumes that human energy is of a fixed and limited quantity. As a result, the greater the number of identities an individual occupies, the greater the potential for stress, conflict, and a reduced ability to fulfill identity expectations in a high quality manner. In contradiction to the zero-sum view of the scarcity hypothesis, the enhancement hypothesis views additional identities as opportunities to have greater potential sources of life-enhancing support (e.g., self-esteem, stimulation, privileges, and social identity). Baruch et al. (1987) take the position that both theories are incomplete because they focus on the quantity as opposed to the nature and quality of the identities. Assessment of qualitative factors of

identities in the work and nonwork domains can also illuminate understanding of the relationship between multiple identities and outcomes in the domains.

Some cross-domain models have proposed integrative frameworks for understanding the relationships among individual factors, nonwork and work setting characteristics, demands and rewards, and outcomes in each domain (e.g., Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986; Howard, 1992). Greenhaus and Parasuraman suggested a model which includes each of those facets in order to produce outcomes in the work domain (performance, absenteeism, accidents, and turnover) and the nonwork domain (marital dissolution, major illness, and suicide). The model included many direct, mediated, and reciprocal paths in an attempt both to address the interactive nature of the domains and to enable adequate prediction of the outcomes in each domain. Another complex model was proposed by Howard in which life satisfaction was framed as the resultant of two parallel but reciprocal paths of work and nonwork domains. The model included each of the above mentioned factors along with a complicated maze of direct, mediated, reciprocal, and feedback paths. The complexity and comprehensiveness of these types models make them difficult to test empirically (Burke, 1988). Regardless, research must include comprehensive frameworks so that a wide variety of relationships and concepts can be considered simultaneously. This study provided such a framework in order to more fully understand relationships among constructs within and across domains, while limiting the scope to make empirical testing feasible.

Another means of more fully examining the relationships across domains is to broaden the research population to include the diversity that is inherent and increasing at a rapid rate in the workplace (Offerman & Gowing, 1990; Jackson & Schuler, 1990). Traditionally, work-nonwork research has limited generalizability by representing certain subsets of workers: working mothers, dual career couples, managers, and those in white collar jobs are prominently featured in the literature. The specific sample research approach has been at the expense of single (e.g., unmarried or not living as married) individuals, blue collar workers, and non-professionals in general.

The minimization in the research of the nonwork lives of single individuals' has created an under-examined area in work-nonwork research. It seems as though the formal nuclear family has been viewed as not only the ideal orientation but also the primary recipient of research focus (Parker & Hall, 1992). Single parents have been neglected (Burden, 1986; Grief, DeMaris, & Hood, 1993; Voydanoff, 1988) at a time when the percentage of single parents in the workplace is dramatically increasing (Offerman & Gowing, 1990). Non-parent singles may have consuming nonwork responsibilities as well, such as the care of elderly relatives (Neal, Chapman, Ingersoll-Dayton, & Emlen, 1993; Voydanoff, 1988), which is becoming an additional nonwork "job" for many of the baby boom generation and those who follow (Friedman & Galinsky, 1992).

Another limitation of the general work-nonwork research has been to focus exclusively on work versus family identities (Parker & Hall, 1992;

Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). No less important to many single (and non-single) individuals are consuming leisure interests which compete with the workplace for prominence in the total life space. Consider the marathon runner, a dedicated choir member, or others who spend significant time and energies in nonwork and non-family related pursuits. Unless other nonwork influences are included in interactive models, the assumption that family is the only nonwork influence that has any impact is limiting (Parker & Hall). Research should investigate nonwork domains other than family in order to fully understand individual motivations and meanings (Howard, 1992). Some attempts have been made to investigate leisure and work (e.g., Staines & O'Connor, 1980), but there is a significant leisure literature (e.g., Iso-Ahola, 1980) which has not been integrated. Examples of nonwork activities of potential importance to individuals are spiritual foci, volunteer commitments, social and political activism, and significant leisure endeavors such as artistic endeavors, hobbies and personal athletics. These have been referred to as "labors of love" by Freidson (1990). This study sought to broaden the scope to nonwork in general to represent other identities of importance, particularly to those individuals for whom the family identity is not central or exclusionary of other important identities.

One recent study has intentionally attempted to utilize a large, heterogeneous sample representative of employed adults in order to address the lack of generalizability in the work-nonwork literature (Frone et al., 1992a).

Following Frone et al.'s lead, this study sought diversity in the sample of participants. In addition, the study attempted to include a diversity of nonwork identity options in addition to family to provide the opportunity for all respondents a meaningful contrast to the work identity.

Person-Domain Fit

In a critique of the research incorporating both work and nonwork domain variables, Zedeck and Mosier (1990) listed several major concerns. The first related to the fact that many variables ignore the processes of the quality of the experience for an individual; in essence, they do not capture the nature of the relationship of the individual to the environment. One such example is the reason an individual works as opposed to the individual's employment status per se. Another criticism invokes the use of global measures of satisfaction or quality of life which do not provide information on the source of satisfaction or quality. Also, most measures employ statements of affect, whereas few have dealt with what is sought or derived from the environment. As Zedeck and Mosier state, these "...measures do not allow us to understand why the person entered the environment, what was sought, or what was expected" (p. 242). Addressing the last concern, they suggest an improvement over existing research perspectives would be the adoption of a transactional model where the person and environment are viewed in a conjoint relationship.

A means to address several of the concerns and incorporate recommendations posed by Zedeck and Mosier (1990) is inclusion of the person-

environment fit concept. The concept of fit is a rich one which has received only limited treatment given its theoretical potential (Pittman, 1994). An individual's perception of person-environment fit could affect identity investments such as job involvement. The concept of an ideal or congruent fit between an individual and his/her work and nonwork environments has been expressed in various areas of psychology, but primarily in occupational and vocational specialties (Furnham & Walsh, 1991). Congruence between an individual and the environment has been referenced as person-environment interaction (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977), person-environment fit (e.g., Hesketh & Gardner, 1993), and person-organization fit (e.g., O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). These concepts have been used to assess the "fit" of an individual with a particular environment on the basis of psychological needs (e.g., Medcof & Handsdorf, 1995), stress perception (Edwards & Cooper, 1990), perceived versus desired control (Conway, Vickers, & French, 1992), value congruence (O'Reilly et al.), organizational responsiveness (e.g., Pittman), and individual-to-family and family-to-community congruence (McBride, 1990). And though not always specifically labeled as "fit", job involvement has been viewed as a product of the person-environment interaction (Rabinowitz & Hall) in previous research (e.g., Hackman & Lawler, 1971).

The concept of fit has been seen as a general framework in psychology since the work of Lewin in the 1930s (Edwards & Cooper, 1990). As Pervin (1968) noted, the concept assumes that for each individual there are

environments (interpersonal and non-interpersonal) which provide more or less a match with the individual. This view of a transactional model between the individual and his/her environment may be applied to needs, traits, attitudes, and values (Pervin). Two conceptualizations of person-environment fit have been highlighted in the literature by French and colleagues (French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982). The first involved a correspondence between environmental supplies and personal motives, goals, and values. The second focused on the match between environmental demands and personal skills and abilities. French et al. submit that these different concepts may be described by both objective and subjective means. While the two versions have different theoretical bases, research has indicated that the use of them concurrently is defensible (French et al.).

Fit has been measured as a difference score, an interaction score, and a proportion filled. Each of these methods have been critiqued for methodological shortcomings (Edwards & Cooper, 1990). One approach to measuring fit is to assess what the environment consists of or provides when compared to what the individual has or desires. When measuring fit in this manner, the implication is that the environment is compared to a standard set by the person, from which person-environment fit can then be measured on an agreement scale thereby avoiding the problems associated with difference, interaction, and proportion scoring analyses.

When determining the bases for comparison of person-environment fit across individuals for the broad domains of work and nonwork, several considerations should be taken into account. First, since not all characteristics apply to every individual and what provides potential differentiation across individuals is that which is salient to each (O'Reilly et al., 1991), a broad basis of measures must be included. According to O'Reilly et al. this necessitates that the appropriate set of relevant situational attributes be included. In the same vein, Edwards and Cooper (1990) critiqued the studies that have characterized fit in terms of a single dimension as limiting the potential of the fit concept.

Secondly, as Pervin (1968) asks, should the perceived or actual environment be considered? In addition to Zedeck and Mosier (1990), Kline and Cowan (1988) have critiqued the simplistic means of recording work and nonwork variables (e.g., employment status, marital status, number of children, etc.) found in cross domain research. Rarely have data about the flexibility of working conditions or the individual's perception of the broader relevance of work and nonwork been examined. The psychological meaning that individuals assign to their work both in and out of the home has been neglected as a research variable (Kline & Cowan; Zedeck & Mosier). Incorporating the meaning of work from the worker's perspective recognizes that each individual's unique situation constitutes important referents for the individual from which to examine his/her environment. This appeal is equally justified for the nonwork domain. Conway et al.'s (1992) efforts implied that it is not only necessary to consider what

individuals perceive they have, but it is also important to ask them what they want to have in reference to their environments. A case in point, what constitutes one individual's negative stress may be another's welcomed challenge. In support of this approach, Medcof and Hausdor (1995) suggested that measuring fit along dimensions that relate in meaningful ways to people will improve the articulation of fit.

Recently some research (McBride, 1990; Orthner & Pittman, 1986; Pittman, 1994; Pittman & Orthner 1988a, 1988b) has used the concept of fit to apply across the boundaries of work and family, individual and family, and family and community. The measures used by these researchers are broadly based to assess general or overall perceived fit. Pittman developed an instrument which included individual item assessments as an omnibus measure of fit: satisfaction assessments, perceptions of the organization's ability to meet the needs of the family, intention to remain in the organization, and perceived impact of the organization on the family. Pittman submitted that the notion of fit is a dynamically negotiated perception, existing at the individual level, but built from an assessment of relevant data from experience and interaction with the environment; as such, the measurement of fit need not be uniquely defined, for as the person-environment exchange is multidimensional, fit can be assessed in terms of abstractions with broad applicability.

In an exploration of person-environment fit, experience relevant to both domains is important when recognizing the complexity of fit. These should

include perceptions of immediate personal experience, social support, and the organizational environment (Pittman and Orthner, 1988b). Much of work-family research relies on self-reports to provide measures, but researchers have not taken advantage of the strength of self-reports to provide a more differentiated view of what work means to the worker (Kline & Cowan, 1988). In order to determine appropriate fit between an individual and an environment, it is reasonable to take advantage of the use of self-report to capitalize on the method to provide a more differentiated view of what work and nonwork mean to the individual (Kline & Cowan). As Zedeck and Mosier (1990) declared, individuals differ in reasons for working (e.g., "I have to work" versus "I want to work"). This type of distinction is important to an individual's definition of the meanings of work and nonwork in his/her life. To illustrate, personal reasons for working could include wanting to work because of boredom or exploration of new challenges, as contrasted with having to work because of financial obligations.

This study utilized omnibus, subjective measures of person-environment fit: one for person-work domain fit and a second for person-nonwork domain fit. As has been prescribed by other cross-domain constructs (e.g., role conflict), there are clear indications that fit may be more appropriately assessed bidirectionally versus unidirectionally, specific to a domain as opposed to globally across domains. Conceptualizing fit as a within-domain construct allows the subjective assessment of that which is unique to each of the domains of interest. In addition, the construct of social support is proposed to be a facet

of person-domain fit. The following section provides the rationale for the inclusion of social support.

Social Support as a Measure of Person-Domain Fit. One construct that applies equally well across the domains of work and nonwork as a measure of fit between the person and the environment is social support. Social support has been viewed as a relational concept describing the person-environment fit by Veiel (1987). In addition, social support has been mentioned as a focus for integrative research in psychology, including the areas of personality and social psychology (Gottlieb, 1983). Specifically in work and nonwork research, social support has been examined in a variety of studies, where, while not explicitly stated, the construct acted as a surrogate measure for fit (Cohen & Wills, 1985).

Social support is a multidimensional construct assuming many different forms and encompassing a variety of relationships, behaviors, and consequences (Streeter & Franklin, 1992). Despite the diversity of definitions of social support, most focus on the helping elements and processes of the social-relational systems in which the individual is located (Turner, Frankel, & Levin, 1983). It has been argued that a global concept of social support be abandoned in favor of more precise concepts (Barrera, 1986). Perceived social support has emerged as a prominent concept and is relevant to the assessment of perceived domain fit. Heitzmann and Kaplan (1988) advised that conceptualizing social support in purely functional terms may not be as useful as viewing the perception of support being available if it is needed. Social support can also be regarded as a

personal experience rather than a set of objective circumstances or even a set of interactional processes (Turner et al.). Fit has been conceptualized in this study as subjective, personal experience, and the perception of social support is proposed to be one of the means by which an individual may feel he/she "fits" within a specific domain. As mentioned earlier, this approach has been advocated by Pittman & Orthner (1988b).

The construct of perceived social support views support as a cognitive appraisal of one's connections to others (Barerra, 1986). Measures of perceived social support recognize that not all linkages between individuals and their environments result in social support. Even if the potential exists for a particular relationship to generate expressions of support, it is not likely to do so unless it is perceived as available or adequate to meet the need (Streeter & Franklin, 1992; Procidano & Heller, 1983). Many measures incorporate dimensions of perceived availability and adequacy of supportive ties (e.g., Procidano & Heller).

For purposes of this study, perceived social support was used as an indicator of person-domain fit differentiating assessments of the support available for the nonwork domain from the work domain. Friends, family, coworkers, and supervisors were the targets of support queries.

Role Conflict

One of the ways in which person-domain fit, including social support as a particularization of person-domain fit, is related to outcomes in either domain is via either the reduction of or increase in stress related to role conflict (Cohen &

Wills, 1985; House, 1981). When "misfit" occurs, negative effects can occur psychologically, physically, and behaviorally (French et al., 1982). Role conflict has been linked to work and nonwork outcomes, including the impact on an individual's psychological and physical resources which can, in turn, reduce involvement in a job (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986).

Role conflict has been defined in terms of role theory by Kahn and colleagues (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Interrole conflict occurs when the compliance with one role is incompatible with the full compliance of another role. The accompanying forces to perform two incompatible roles produce strain. Work-family conflict is a particular type of interrole conflict.

The work-nonwork field has extensively studied work-family conflict (see Gutek, Larwood, & Stromberg, 1986 for a comprehensive review). However, the operationalization of the construct has been unclear and most likely has contributed to the mixed findings represented in the research. The vast majority of research on interrole conflict has used an omnibus construct with a variety of work and nonwork indicators (e.g., Aryee, 1992; Burke, 1988; Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Greenhaus, Bedian, & Mossholder, 1987). Wiley (1987) criticized the omnibus approach, implying that relating global dimensions of role conflict to other constructs potentially masks differential relationships.

Given the acceptance of the reciprocal nature of work and nonwork, this study conceives of work-nonwork conflict as a bidirectional versus

unidirectional construct. Several studies have employed this clearer conceptualization of interrole conflict (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991; Williams & Alliger, 1994; Frone et al., 1992a). Work-nonwork role conflict can come about because work interferes with an individual's nonwork life (e.g., an important business meeting runs late and prevents attendance at a child's soccer game) or when nonwork roles interfere with work in some way (e.g., a dependent elder parent requires transportation to the physician's office during work hours).

Gutek et al. (1991) showed that bidirectional measures of work-to-family interference and family-to-work interference were clearly separable and relatively independent of one another, as did Frone et al. (1992a) and Wiley (1987). Frone et al. also demonstrated that each form of role conflict has differential relationships associated with predictor and outcome variables including job involvement. It is clear that role conflict measures should be bidirectional in nature and included in a comprehensive, cross-domain model predicting job involvement, therefore, work-to-nonwork interference and nonwork-to-work interference were variables included in this study.

Work Centrality and Job Involvement

The conceptual separation between work centrality and job involvement has been an issue for more than a decade (Kanungo, 1979). Only a few researchers, in fact, have actually understood and utilized the distinction (Blau, 1985; Kanungo, 1982a, 1982b; Paullay, Alliger, & Stone-Romero, 1994

Williams & Alliger, 1994). Furthermore, although not clearly defined as such, work centrality and job involvement have been used as surrogates for identity salience in several studies (e.g., Lobel & St. Clair, 1992; Frone et al., 1995).

Despite the poor conceptual and operational distinctions of the three constructs in some research, there is sufficient support for their theoretical separation. As this study proposed to improve the prediction of job involvement by utilizing measures of work centrality and identity salience, clear conceptualizations of all three constructs are necessary. Identity salience was previously defined in this chapter in terms of the relative importance of the multiple identities which make up the self. The distinctions between work centrality and job involvement will now be delineated.

The conceptualizations of work centrality and job involvement have been muddled in the literature in the majority of research studies conducted. A line of work begun by Kanungo (1979, 1982a, 1982b), followed by Blau (1985), and Paullay and colleagues (Paullay, et al., 1994) have clarified the distinctions, theoretical and empirical, between the two constructs. Construct validity efforts by Kanungo and Paullay et al. provided theoretical bases and measures to guide appropriate use of the constructs. While Kanungo used the term work involvement, Paullay et al. designated the construct "work centrality". To distinguish between the job and work involvement, this study also adopted the label work centrality.

To put the differentiation between work centrality and job involvement in a historical context, a review of the critique of traditional approaches to the conceptualization and measurement of job involvement in the literature will be now be given. Two major reviews of the literature were conducted in the late 1970s. The first focused solely on the psychological literature, whereas the second attempted a more comprehensive and integrative review. However, both reviews criticized the previous conceptualization and measurement of job involvement as confusing and inadequate.

In the first major review, Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) listed nine terms/concepts in addition to job involvement which have been used to describe the construct: central life interests, work role involvement, ego-involvement, ego-involved performance, occupational involvement, morale, intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction. Two conceptual differences in the above list are posited as an attempt to draw distinctions among job involvement conceptualizations. The first, performance-self-esteem contingency, referred to the extent to which self-esteem is affected by performance. Job involvement as a component of an individual's self-image was the second conceptualization. The central position of one's job in one's life or the psychological identification with the job describes the latter formulation.

In a different approach, Kanungo's major review (1979) initially separated the distinctions into sociological and psychological perspectives. The perspectives differ in conceptual and measurement foci (e.g., theoretically versus

empirically driven; generalized life versus work context; and alienation versus involvement centered). Within the psychological approach, "excess meaning" is attributed to the variations of existing job involvement measures in four ways: a lack of separation from the concept of intrinsic motivation; confusion with the identification of antecedents, consequences, and the actual state of job involvement; inclusion of cognitive and affective states of the individual; and the implicit and explicit combination of both generalized work and specific job contexts in a single measure.

The predominant measures used in psychological research have been the Lodahl and Kejner (1965) and Saleh and Hosek (1976) instruments. The most widely used measure (Lodahl & Kejner) defined job involvement as the degree to which an individual is identified psychologically with work, or the importance of work in his/her total self-image. The original instrument was a 20-item Likert type agreement scale shown to have four distinct factors and moderate reliability. However, most research citing the use of this scale does so in an "adapted" fashion, utilizing only four, five or six of the items and demonstrating much improved reliability (e.g., Rabinowitz, Hall, & Goodale, 1977).

Saleh and Hosek (1976) developed an instrument to measure job involvement as "the degree to which the person identifies with his job, actively participates in it, and considers his performance important to his self-worth" (p. 223). This three-factor, multidimensional view of the construct was

measured with 30 items and has consistently shown good reliability (e.g., Cronbach alpha at or above .80). As with the Lodahl and Kejner (1965) instrument, most subsequent research utilizes only a portion of the original instrument. For example, Wiley (1987) used but five items of the Saleh and Hosek scale, those with factor loadings above .50.

As Kanungo (1982a) pointed out, both of the widely used scales have "excess meaning" based upon his criteria, as do many of the other, less frequently cited measures. For example, two of the items from the Lodahl and Kejner (1965) scale were "I live, eat, and breathe my job" and "Sometimes I'd like to kick myself for the mistakes I make in my work." Another example of excess meaning comes from Saleh and Hosek (1976): "The most important things I do are involved with my job", and "How much chance to you get to do things your own way?" These examples clearly illustrate a multi-factor view of job involvement which constitutes the predominant empirical base.

Given the traditional approaches used, Kanungo (1979, 1982a, 1982b) argued for the reformulation of the constructs to eliminate problems of excess meaning or "conceptual ambiguities and measurement inadequacies". Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) were also concerned with the "conceptual confusion and proliferation of terms" in the literature. In an attempt to remedy the problems, a motivational approach was presented by Kanungo where involvement was identified with the cognitive belief states of the individual in contrast to an affective view of involvement. In this manner, involvement is

conceptually separable from "...many associated covert feelings or affective states expressed in terms of satisfactions or dissatisfactions experienced ... in work or job contexts" (1982b, p. 76). This framework also distinguished involvement as a cognitive state from other, more overt measures of associated behavior or worker participation. Involvement, then, was viewed as a cognitive state of psychological identification with employment, to the extent that the work/job has the potential to satisfy an individual's needs and expectations.

The motivational approach was also the basis for a conceptualization of the relationship between involvement and alienation. Kanungo (1979) defined the concepts of involvement and alienation as opposite sides of the same phenomenon, where the phenomenon references the psychological states of an individual worker and was cognitive and unidimensional in nature.

The conceptual difference between "work" and "job" is subsequently addressed. As defined by Kanungo and others, the differentiation between work centrality and job involvement was highlighted as both differences in context (i.e., generalized or specific) and causation (i.e., normative or contemporaneous.) Work centrality was defined as the degree of importance that work, in general, plays in one's life. It was presumed to be a relatively stable set of beliefs that does not fluctuate greatly in response to conditions in the work environment. It was considered to be normative, and at least partially due to past cultural conditioning or socialization. Job involvement, in contrast, was related to a particular job context versus a generalized work context. Job

involvement is the degree to which one is cognitively preoccupied with, engaged in, and concerned with one's present job (Paullay et al., 1994). It was defined as a belief description of involvement with the present job and hypothesized as contemporaneously caused.

As described above, a clear conceptual distinction can be made between job involvement and work centrality. For example, an individual may view work as central to life, but be particularly disenchanted with his/her current job situation. However, because the objects of the two beliefs belong to the same "universe" in which a job represents a specific category of work in general, some degree of positive relationship should exist between the two constructs (Kanungo, 1982a).

The prediction of job involvement as an outcome has been studied since the inception of the concept, although most studies have utilized it as an antecedent and a correlate (see Kanungo, 1982b and Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977 for detailed reviews which lie outside of the scope of this research). For job involvement as an outcome, however, the empirical research has been limited and, again, fraught with excess meaning. Reviews of the literature (Kanungo, 1979; Rabinowitz & Hall; Thompson & Blau, 1993) show that job involvement has not been easily explained. A smaller than desirable percentage of variance was typically found (generally 3 to 25%) when using traditional personal, attitudinal, and job variables such as age, sex, marital status, achievement motivation, work values, job satisfaction, job level, relationships at work, and job

scope either independently or in multivariate models of limited complexity.

Broadening the predictor base, Saal (1978) found that job involvement was more completely explained by the inclusion of both personal-demographic and personal-psychological variables in a multivariate analysis. According to Lambert (1991), job involvement was affected both by workers' experiences outside the workplace and within it. There is clearly an opportunity to add to the knowledge base in predicting individual differences in job involvement. Future research should measure additional variables which may be related to job involvement in order to improve prediction (Rabinowitz, Hall, & Goodale, 1977). Examples of these variables were included in this study: role conflict, person-domain fit, work centrality, and identity salience.

As stated before, another reason for the previously limited levels of prediction was due to the lack of clear conceptualization and measurement of job involvement used in much of the research (e.g., Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Saleh & Hosek, 1976). This study adopted the Kanungo distinctions between work centrality and job involvement which, when combined with work and nonwork domain predictor variables and identity salience as a moderator, sought to enhance the understanding of job involvement.

Hypotheses Development

Based upon the previous literature review, the foundation is now formed to address the development of the general research questions which were put forth in the Introduction. The first question addressed the multidimensional

nature of identity salience across the domains of work and nonwork in participants' lives. Secondly, the interrelationships among each of the conceptual model variables and identity salience are of interest, particularly the way in which identity salience interacts with the proposed predictor variables to explain differences in job involvement.

This section will highlight identity salience as a multidimensional concept in order to set the stage for the first research question. Then the literature relating each of the conceptual model variables will be reviewed, including unresolved issues relevant to the study. Throughout, the hypotheses related to the second research question will be presented.

Identity Salience as Multidimensional

Identity salience as a multidimensional construct has been introduced as a significant concept in this study: the selection of identities, the assessment of the salience of those identities, and the multidimensional nature of a combination of those identities are of primary interest. The first research question was posed to guide the investigation of identity salience in the study.

Research Question I: What is the multidimensional nature of identity salience for individuals' work and nonwork identities?

In order to address the first research question, participants were led through a series of exercises during which they chose up to nine identities.

Assessment of the salience of those identities then occurred. The data collected were examined in an exploratory fashion for information relating to the number and type of identities individuals choose, the distribution of the saliences of those identities, and the relative positioning of identities with respect to the work identity. The salience for the work identity and the most important nonwork identity were then "linked" to form a multidimensional measure of a combination of high and low identity salience for two domains. This classification was used in the investigation of the interaction of identity salience and the conceptual model.

The focus will now turn to the conceptual model with which identity salience was hypothesized as a moderating factor.

Conceptual Model Overview

In the Introduction, a conceptual model was presented in Figure 1.1. The conceptual model consists of five predictor latent variables in a work-nonwork reciprocal framework which are hypothesized to aid in explaining individual differences in the criterion latent variable, job involvement. The conceptual model including the work and nonwork domains describes a possible causal relationship scheme among the latent variables. In the following section, each conceptual linkage for the basic model will be reviewed. Then, the rationale for the second research question will be completed via the discussion of the proposed moderation effects of identity salience on each of the direct linkages.

The five predictor latent variables were derived from three constructs: person-domain fit, role conflict, and work centrality. Two of the constructs, person-environment fit and role conflict, were operationalized in a bidirectional manner. However, the following section will generally address the conceptual model linkages at the construct, not the operationalized level. The five specific predictor latent variables were person-nonwork domain fit, work-to-nonwork interference, person-work domain fit, nonwork-to-work interference, and work centrality. The operationalized predictor latent variables will be specified in each of the hypotheses.

In order to set the framework for the following hypotheses, the second research question was posed. Specific hypotheses were then derived.

Research Question II: Is there an interaction effect for identity salience and the predictor variables in the conceptual model explaining job involvement?

Direct Hypothesized Linkages

Person-Domain Fit and Job Involvement. Person-domain fit was proposed to be directly related to job involvement as well as mediated through role conflict. The rationale for the direct relationship is given in this section. The perception of fit between an individual and the environment can support involvement (Pittman & Orthner, 1988b; Rice, McFarlin, Hunt, Near, 1985). If fit

occurs, it can be assumed that the demands and needs of the individual are able to be met by the environment, and available resources can be utilized for involvement. For purposes of this study, a dual concept of person-environment fit was adopted: person-nonwork domain fit and person-work domain fit. The dual operationalization of fit allowed a customization of that which is most appropriately ascribed to each domain and separate from the other domain.

A cross-domain approach suggests that good person-work domain fit and good person-nonwork domain fit not only minimize strain, but augment involvement. In this vein, Pittman (1994) found that the best "fit" between individual and organization predicted job commitment, which, while not involvement per se, may be considered a surrogate for purposes of advancing the hypotheses. Lambert (1991) showed that after covariates of intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics were controlled, men and women did not differ significantly in psychological attachment to their jobs. None of the variables capturing presence of children, age of youngest child, or spouse's employment explained job involvement. The results indicated that it is not a simple measure of status, but the conditions of employment and family identity relationships which impact work response. The research clearly needs better measures than simple demographic variables to link domain facets to job involvement. An improved means of assessing domain fit in terms of these types of variables is proposed to demonstrate the hypothesized relationships.

Social support, also proposed to be a facet of person-environment fit for this study, has been related to job involvement. Gerpott (1990) demonstrated that collaborative social support had a strong relationship with job involvement. In addition, family support and organizational support for families have shown direct positive relationships to job commitment (Orthner & Pittman, 1986), which is conceptually aligned with job involvement. In addition, there is an extensive body of research linking social support to better individual functioning (e.g., Cohen & Wills, 1985) including support from coworkers and supervisors (Daniels & Moos, 1988), with some research demonstrating direct linkage between relationships with others at work and job involvement (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977).

Person-domain fit was conceptualized as two distinct "fit" options in order to more appropriately and completely investigate the perception of fit associated with each domain. Greenhaus & Parasuraman (1986) state that support can come from either the work or nonwork domain, and this proposition is extended to social support and overall person-environment fit.

Hypothesis 2 (2.a. and 2.b.) was thus proposed:

2. Domain Fit Factors will be positively related to Job Involvement.

**2.a. Person-Work Domain Fit will be positively related to
Job Involvement.**

**2.b. Person-Nonwork Domain Fit will be positively related to
Job Involvement.**

Person-Domain Fit and Role Conflict. As person-domain fit was proposed as a dual concept for the nonwork and work domains, it is also appropriate to conceptualize role conflict as more than a unitary measure. The critique in the review of the literature related that omnibus work-family conflict measures have contributed to mixed results found in previous work-family research. As such, role conflict was split into two distinct variables in the study.

Several studies support the notion that “fit” and role conflict are conceptually related. The conceptual basis is that as fit improves, overall role conflict is decreased. Greenhaus & Beutell (1985) proposed a model where items such as hours worked, flexibility of work schedule, and levels of leader support appear to reduce conflict. Thomas and Ganster (1995) found evidence to suggest that employee-preferred organizational practices were related to reduction in role conflict. Izraeli (1993) also found that flexible work schedules may reduce work-family conflict. And, referring to a specific type of fit, Bartolome and Evans (1980) found that poor person-job fit was related to work stress and conflict.

Also relevant to the debate over whether multiple identities lead to role conflict is the qualitative aspect of the assessment of person-domain fit. Consistent with the theories of Sieber (1974) and Marks (1977), researchers have found evidence that multiple roles have positive effects (e.g., Thotis, 1987). The implications that multiple identities are necessarily producers of role conflict have been addressed by researchers. The idea of multiple identities serving as a

buffer (Cohen & Wills, 1985) is a possibility: as a case in point, although people may put in many hours in the workforce and in unpaid work at home so that they suffer role overload, role conflict is not necessarily perceived as a consequence. The qualitative assessment of person-domain fit is proposed to answer some of these questions.

Social support as a specific facet of domain fit has clearly demonstrated relationships with role conflict. Role conflict has been related to social support effectiveness in general (Holtzman & Gilbert, 1978), and specifically through supervisor supportive relationships (Jones & Butler, 1980; Thomas & Ganster, 1995); other workplace supportive relationships (Greenhaus et al., 1987); and spousal support (Israeli, 1993; Loerch, Russell, & Rush, 1989). Wiersma and Van den Berg (1991) examined the average correlation between emotional support from others and role conflict in a number of studies and found a corrected correlation coefficient of $-.39$. Those results indicate that emotional support can minimize the impact of work-related stressors.

It has been shown that support both at work and at home is important in reducing stress and conflict (Greenglass, Pantony, & Burke, 1988). Burke (1988) found work-family conflict was weakly correlated with demographic antecedents such as marital status, but strongly correlated with social support. Despite the acknowledged importance of social support, a more thorough specification of the support process is required (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985),

therefore social support was assessed for both the work and nonwork domains from supervisors, coworkers, friends, and family for each domain.

It is appropriate to include measures of support for each domain as well as conflict related to each domain. As referenced above, Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1986) state that support can come from either the work or nonwork domain and can be applied to stressors in either domain. Role conflict was operationalized in a bidirectional manner and specifically designated as work-to-nonwork interference and nonwork-to-work interference in an attempt to capture the unique perspective of each domain.

Hypothesis 3 (3.a. and 3.b.) was thus proposed:

3. Domain Fit will be negatively related to Role Conflict.

3.a. Person-Work Domain Fit will be negatively related to Work-to-Nonwork Interference.

3.b. Person-Nonwork Domain Fit will be negatively related to Nonwork-to-Work Interference.

Role Conflict and Job Involvement. In order to justify the direct negative relationship hypothesized between role conflict and job involvement, it is instructive to review the concerns of how each of the constructs has been operationalized in previous research. As discussed above, work-family conflict measures have generally consisted of unidimensional measures of a mixture of work and family-centered items which do not unequivocally state the cause or focal point of the conflict. Given the "excess meaning" found within the job

involvement literature, tracing the historical impact of role conflict on job involvement as operationalized in this study is difficult at best.

Mixed results have been shown in the literature when examining role conflict and job involvement. Some studies have shown positive relationships (e.g., Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Greenhaus & Kopelman, 1981), some negative (Burke, 1988; Jones & Butler, 1980), and some mixed (Wiley, 1987). Per Wiley, the conflicting results in these studies are at least partially due to differences in the conflict construct. Wiley also recommended that more complex studies of job involvement would aid in efforts to decipher the relationships.

As described before, excess meaning and unclear operationalization of both constructs make the previous research difficult to synthesize. However unclearly or inconsistently operationalized the measures may have been, there is some evidence which suggests that the relationship between conflict and job involvement is negative; that is, that as conflict is reduced, more resources are available for increased (or at least not reduced) psychological involvement in the job. An explicit test of the relationships as proposed should enable testing the underlying theoretical proposition that the constructs are negatively related.

Hypothesis 4 (4.a. and 4.b.) was thus proposed:

4. Role Conflict will be negatively related to Job Involvement.

4.a. Work-to-Nonwork Interference will be negatively related to Job Involvement.

4.b. Nonwork-to-Work Interference will be negatively related to Job Involvement.

Work Centrality and Job Involvement. Based upon the construct validation efforts of Kanungo (1982a, 1982b) and Paullay et. al (1994), exclusive theoretical and empirical distinctions have been shown to exist between work centrality and job involvement. As discussed previously in the review of the literature, these constructs were proposed to be related given the common conceptual framework of the two. A direct, positive relationship was predicted from work centrality to job involvement as work centrality was considered a "larger" or more fundamental antecedent of the more specific, current job-centered focus of job involvement.

Hypothesis 5 was thus proposed:

5. Work Centrality will be positively related to Job Involvement.

The relationships among conceptual model variables was expected to be more completely understood with the inclusion of identity salience as is highlighted in the next section.

Moderated Hypothesized Linkages

The study sought to understand the relationship that identity salience plays when integrated into a conceptual model incorporating work and nonwork domains predictors of an outcome in one of the domains. The second research question was posed to spur investigation of the proposed interaction

effect of identity salience with each of the hypothesized direct linkages. The hypothesized moderating relationships with each variable is reviewed next.

Identity Salience and Person-Domain Fit. The theoretical linkage between identity salience and person-domain fit is somewhat tentative. The concept of congruence between an individual and the environment as previously presented takes on additional complexity when the issue of identity salience is added. There is, nevertheless, some theoretical basis for the prediction of the interaction between identity salience and person-domain fit.

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) posited that self perceptions of identity requirements are significant antecedents of pressure within a given domain. Differently stated, identity pressures are not entirely produced by others, but at least partially due to individual differences in beliefs and values. Greenhaus and Beutell also proposed that identity salience moderates the relationship between externally produced identity pressures and internal conflict. This is based on the assumption that persons for whom an identity is highly salient are more responsive to pressures because success and rewards related to the salient identity are so important. When an identity is central, there will be stronger relationships between demands and conflict.

In addition, Greenhaus (1988) alluded to the importance of relativity of salience in the relationship between the environment fit and the individual. As an antecedent to role conflict, person-domain fit is relevant in the following example: a person whose work commitment structurally conflicts with nonwork

activities (e.g., his/her work schedule prevents attendance of a child's soccer match) may experience relatively little psychological conflict if the nonwork identity is not particularly important to his/her self concept. It follows that an interaction between poor fit in one domain (e.g., one works because one has to) and a highly salient identity in the other (e.g., strong family identity) is defensible. Which identity takes precedence may depend on the salience of each identity as well as the negative sanctions associated with noncompliance in each domain (Greenhaus). For example, Cotton and colleagues (Cotton, Antill, & Cunningham, 1989, 1990) found that mothers with high work attachment indicated a variety of motivations for employment, whereas low work attachment mothers cited only financial need as reason for working.

Also tentative is the linkage to the perceived social support literature. Given that person-domain fit is proposed to include perceived social support, it follows that an individual's identity salience will interact with the perception of social support needed to sustain that identity.

Hypothesis 1.a. and 1.b. were thus proposed:

1.a. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between Person-Work Domain Fit and Job Involvement.

1.b. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between Person-Nonwork Domain Fit and Job Involvement.

Identity Salience and Role Conflict. The relationship between identity salience and role conflict also enlists the concept of congruence. From an

identity perspective, Wiley (1991) postulated that a possible source of stress is conflict between actions confirming disparate identities. Lobel (1991) concurred in that conflict occurs when values associated with identities are distinct, thereby necessitating separation of identities. Greenhaus (1988) also agreed by stating that psychological conflict between identities depends not only on the environmental pressures, but the relative salience of work and nonwork identities. As discussed above (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), identity salience may moderate the relationship between externally produced role pressures and conflict.

The assertion that more stress will result from conflict between two highly salient identities has been made by several researchers (Aryee, 1992; Greenhaus, 1988; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Lobel, 1991; Wiley, 1991). Lobel advised that conflict can be minimized by either separating the identities or applying consistent values across identities. However, Wiley stipulated that individuals with two highly salient identities can cite occupancy of one to justify neglect of other identities, thereby reducing role conflict.

There are mixed results when examining salience surrogates and role conflict measures. Evidence of a positive relationship between work salience and work-to-family conflict has been shown (Greenhaus & Kopelman, 1981). However, Holahan and Gilbert (1979) found no relationship between role conflict for career and noncareer women after controlling for social support. Mixed results using the LRSS measures and role specific conflict measures were

found by Aryee (1992): marital role salience was found to be positively related to job-spouse conflict, but the occupational role salience was negatively related to job-spouse conflict; parental role salience was positively related to job-parent conflict as was occupational role salience; and the homemaker role salience was positively related to job-home conflict.

These oft-times conflicting results were perhaps due in part to the operationalization of identity salience in a unidimensional fashion. Also, the measures of role conflict used in the cited studies are generally unidimensional versus the bidirectional approach this study advocated.

With a multidimensional approach to the measurement of salience and incorporation of bidirectional measures of role conflict, the proposed study sought to clarify the work and nonwork role conflict contributions to job involvement via the integration of identity salience.

Hypotheses 1.c. and 1.d. were thus proposed:

1.c. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between Work-to-Nonwork Interference and Job Involvement.

1.d. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between Nonwork-to-Work Interference and Job Involvement.

Identity Salience and Work Centrality. Predicting an interaction between identity salience and work centrality is not conceptually clear nor based upon the results of many empirical studies. Stryker and Serpe (1994) addressed the question of the relationship between identity salience and centrality and

concluded that there are conceptual distinctions. The centrality or psychological importance of an identity assumes a level of self awareness that is not inherent in the concept of salience, according to Stryker and Serpe. Salience as such is considered an antecedent to centrality, a more "available" perception, and necessarily affects centrality.

In an empirical study investigating the extent to which salience and centrality overlapped or were conceptually distinct, Stryker and Serpe (1994) found evidence that there was overlap for some identities (correlation coefficients in the 0.5 range), but none for others (correlation coefficients less than 0.1). In addition, structural modeling analyses (in which centrality was alternately included and omitted) predicting time spent in identity as an outcome showed poorer fit for the model excluding centrality. These analyses were conducted using specific identity salience measures as opposed to framing the measure in a multidimensional manner. Given the correlational analyses independence found for some identities and poorer fitting models when centrality was excluded, Stryker and Serpe recommended the inclusion of both centrality and salience in subsequent research models.

As described before, there was expected to be some direct, positive relationship between work centrality and job involvement due to the nature of the two construct's common identification. However, it was proposed that a multidimensional measure of identity salience will moderate the relationship

between the work centrality and job involvement due to Stryker and Serpe's (1994) limited evidence.

Hypothesis 1.e. was thus proposed:

**1.e. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between
Work Centrality and Job Involvement.**

Identity Salience and Job Involvement. From the examination of the aforementioned linkages, it is hypothesized that identity salience, as related to the predictor constructs, will moderate those constructs' relationships with the criterion, job involvement. The conceptual distinction described between identity salience and work centrality is also reasonable for identity salience and job involvement given the related nature of work centrality and job involvement as described above.

Rabinowitz, Hall, & Goodale (1977) explained that three possible sources of influence in individual job involvement can be identified: personal background and socialization, job characteristics, and a combination of them. Rabinowitz et al. suggested a second way that job characteristics and individual differences might jointly relate to job involvement is through moderator or interaction effects. In addition, Lobel (1991) postulated that in terms of identity investment, increasing identity salience predicts increasing investments in the associated identity. Investment can be considered as a proxy for involvement in this framework. It follows that the relative salience of the identities should determine an individual's relative investment in work and nonwork. Lobel and

St. Clair's (1992) study found that the effects of career identity salience on work related outcomes, though modest, were stronger than the effects associated with gender or family responsibility.

Frone et al. (1995) submitted that the magnitude of the relationship between identity related stressors and personal outcomes may be moderated by the psychological salience of the identity. Job involvement is one such personal outcome in the work domain.

The multiple role literature also supports the notion of identity salience as a moderator of job involvement. One perspective suggests that multiple identity occupants may or may not be job involved depending upon the salience of the identities (Campbell, Campbell, & Kennard, 1994). Implicit in this particular approach is the assumption that multiple identity commitments will lead to reduced work commitment when an individual who is not motivated doesn't utilize existing resources to fulfill all identities well. This specific approach suggests that it is the interaction between the value an individual places on a particular identity and the amount of time he/she must devote to it that determines the effects of identity expansion. In the same vein, a qualitative approach to the expansion hypothesis (Baruch et al., 1987) argues that an increase in number of identities may increase the rewards and resources available to the individual, but it depends on the qualitative perceptions as to how and if the resources will be allocated.

In order to provide an umbrella for the specific hypotheses previously describing identity salience as a moderator, a general hypothesis relating identity salience and job involvement was also delineated.

Hypothesis 1 was thus proposed:

- 1. Identity Salience will be related to Job Involvement through moderator relationships with the predictor variables.**

A summary of all hypotheses is found in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. Hypotheses.

-
1. Identity Salience will be related to Job Involvement through moderator relationships with the predictor variables. Specifically:
 - 1.a. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between Person-Work Domain Fit and Job Involvement.
 - 1.b. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between Person-Nonwork Domain Fit and Job Involvement.
 - 1.c. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between Work-to-Nonwork Interference and Job Involvement.
 - 1.d. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between Nonwork-to-Work Interference and Job Involvement.
 - 1.e. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between Work Centrality and Job Involvement.
 2. Domain Fit Factors will be positively related to Job Involvement.
 - 2.a. Person-Work Domain Fit will be positively related to Job Involvement.
 - 2.b. Person-Nonwork Domain Fit will be positively related to Job Involvement.
 3. Domain Fit will be negatively related to Role Conflict.
 - 3.a. Person-Work Domain Fit will be negatively related to Work-to-Nonwork Interference.
 - 3.b. Person-Nonwork Domain Fit will be negatively related to Nonwork-to-Work Interference.
 4. Role Conflict will be negatively related to Job Involvement.
 - 4.a. Work-to-Nonwork Interference will be negatively related to Job Involvement.
 - 4.b. Nonwork-to-Work Interference will be negatively related to Job Involvement.
 5. Work Centrality will be positively related to Job Involvement.
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CHAPTER III

METHOD

Participants

The participants in this study comprised an anonymous, volunteer sample of 201 individuals who worked outside of the home for pay a minimum of 15 hours per week. It was desired that this study have broad diversity in the types of participants with respect to gender, education level, job type, and family demographics. To that end, a variety of organizations were contacted to request voluntary participation of employees across all organizational levels. Service and manufacturing settings were targeted, including health, business, and government service, as well as multiple manufacturing sites. The sampling method was non-random, but purposive as highlighted above.

A total of nine organizations participated. A total response rate is approximate as an exact number of employees who were offered participation opportunity is difficult to gauge. A rough estimate of the response rate is 16%, which includes variance in response rates of up to 50% in one organization and as low as 3% in another. Appendix A lists the best estimate of the response rate for each organization. Demographic variables and corresponding percentages of those who did participate are presented in Table 3.1.

TABLE 3.1. PARTICIPANT DEMOGRAPHICS.

Demographic Characteristics	Classification	Percentage of Participants
Gender	Male	36%
	Female	64
Age	Up to 29 years	18
	30 to 39 years	32
	40 to 49 years	32
	50 to 59 years	18
	60 to 69 years	2
Education	High School or GED	12%
	Some College	20
	Associates Degree	9
	Bachelors Degree	31
	Some graduate work	10
	MA/MBA/JD	15
	Ph.D./MD	2
Personal Income	Under \$10,000	5%
	\$10,000 to 19,000	21
	\$20,000 to 29,000	20
	\$30,000 to 39,000	14
	\$40,000 to 49,000	14
	\$50,000 to 59,000	4
	\$60,000 to 69,000	9
	More than \$70,000	12
Family Income	Under \$10,000	3%
	\$10,000 to 19,000	9
	\$20,000 to 29,000	7
	\$30,000 to 39,000	8
	\$40,000 to 49,000	10
	\$50,000 to 59,000	14
	\$60,000 to 69,000	13
	More than \$70,000	35
Marital Status	Never Married	14%
	Widowed	2
	Separated	1
	Divorced	8
	Married / Living as Married	75
Spouse Work Status	Doesn't Work	13%
	Works Under 40 hrs/week	8
	Works 40+ hrs/week	80

TABLE 3.1. PARTICIPANT DEMOGRAPHICS (continued).

Demographic Characteristics	Classification	Percentage of Participants
Number of Children	0	35%
	1	19
	2	34
	3	10
	4 or more	2
Age of Youngest Child	No children	35%
	Older than 18 years	19
	13 to 18 years	16
	6 to 12 years	14
	Younger than 6 years	15
Responsibilities for Adults with Special Needs	Yes	21%
	No	79
Responsibilities for Children with Special Needs	Yes	7%
	No	93
Job Type	Professional/Technical	44%
	Mangerial	21
	Sales	3
	Clerical/ Administrative	22
	Service	5
	Manufacturing	0
	Other	5
Job Tenure	Less than 1 year	20%
	1 to 2 years	19
	3 to 4 years	11
	5 to 9 years	17
	10 to 19 years	16
	20+ years	17
Years of Work Experience	Less than 1 year	0%
	1 to 2 years	4
	3 to 4 years	6
	5 to 9 years	16
	10 to 19 years	33
	20+ years	41
Work Schedule	Works Under 40 hrs/wk	14%
	Works 40+ hrs/wk	86

Materials

Data were collected via a paper and pen self-report questionnaire. All questionnaires were identical in presentation and content with the single material difference being the varying organization-specific cover letter used to outline administration and return procedures. The questionnaire in its entirety appears in Appendix B.

Measures

In order to assess participants' identity salience and the latent constructs, scales used in previously published research were utilized. In addition, two composite measures were generated by the researcher and appropriated to estimate domain-environment fit.

All latent constructs were assessed on 7-point scales, some of Likert type, others of paired comparison or forced-choice format. Each latent construct was identified by two or more scales, excluding the domain-environment fit scales which were used at the multiple-item level. All existing scales possessed acceptable validity and internal consistency in previous research; the items in their entirety and previous psychometric statistics are listed in Appendix C.

Identity salience measures, the latent constructs and the scales employed to estimate them are described briefly below. In addition, Table 3.2 provides a summary of each latent construct and lists the number of scales and items used to estimate the construct.

TABLE 3.2. DESCRIPTION OF STUDY CONSTRUCTS.

Construct	Number of Scales (Items)	Description
PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT		
Person-Work Domain Fit	1 (7)	Preference vs. current state for the work domain
Social Support for Work Domain	1 (8) ^a	Perceived social support for the work domain
Person-Nonwork Domain Fit	1 (9)	Preference vs. current state for the nonwork domain
Social Support for Nonwork Domain	3 (27)	Perceived social support for the nonwork domain
ROLE CONFLICT		
Work-to-Nonwork Interference	2 (6)	Role conflict from the work domain to the nonwork domain
Nonwork-to-Work Interference	2 (6)	Role conflict from the nonwork domain to the work domain
WORK CENTRALITY	2 (10)	Generalized importance of work in life
JOB INVOLVEMENT	2 (7)	Psychological involvement with the present job

^a8 items formed 4 subscales of 2 items each.

Identity Salience

Identity salience was generated by a series of computational steps using the following exercise and scale. Each is briefly described along with its purpose for inclusion in the study.

Generation of Identities. This procedure was adapted from Jackson (1981) and allowed for generation of up to nine identities freely chosen by each participant. A description of seven generic categories of identities was given as well as examples for each type. Participants were asked to list a minimum of five identities.

Identity Salience. As adapted from Hoelter (1983, 1985a) and Shamir (1992), this scale consisted of three items which were used to assess each of the identities generated, including "worker" even if an occupational identity had not been previously chosen. It employed a paired comparison format, contrasting a bipolar continuum for each of three descriptors (e.g., centrality, self-description, and value affirmation) for each identity chosen. The values established by this scale formed the basis for the identity salience score for each identity chosen by each participant: a salience mean was computed from the three items.

Person-Environment Fit

The assessment of person-environment fit was separated for each domain; that is, the fit of the nonwork domain was estimated independently of the fit of the work domain. Fit was assessed utilizing two general constructs: the perception of the participant's fit within the domain and the social support

perceived for the specific domain. For the perception of fit, participants rated their preference for a variety of fit indices as compared to the current state in the domain specified. For example, one set of paired items contrasts the following items as an index of fit in the nonwork domain: "I am happy with the number and variety of friends I have in my life" versus "I don't have the number and variety of friends I want in my life". Social support was assessed as perceived social support for the specified domain. Measures used for each domain are described below.

Person-Nonwork Domain Fit. A multi-item scale was constructed to measure the participant's perception of general fit in the nonwork domain. The Person-Nonwork Domain Fit scale was created for this study and consists of nine items with a paired comparison response format. A composite mean score was calculated to characterize nonwork domain fit.

Four scales were used to measure nonwork-oriented social support. Three Social Support for Nonwork Domain scales were used to measure perceived social support for the nonwork domain. The first scale consisted of two items assessing the perception of nonwork support from each of four categories of individuals (i.e., friends, family, supervisors, coworkers) from Greenglass et al. (1988). Expanding Procidano and Heller's (1983) scale from a 3-point to 7-point response format, perceived social support from friends and family was measured using five items for each target. Supervisor support for

nonwork was also independently assessed using Thomas and Ganster's (1995) nine item scale.

Person-Work Domain Fit. Person-Work Domain Fit was assessed utilizing the perception of the participant's fit with his/her work life and the social support perceived for his/her work life. A multi-item scale similar to the nonwork domain fit scale was constructed to measure the participant's perception of general fit in the work domain. The Person-Work Domain Fit scale was created for this study and consists of seven items. A composite score was calculated to characterize work domain fit. Also used from Greenglass et al. (1988), two items from the Social Support for Work Domain scale assessed perceptions of work support from each of the same four categories of individuals (i.e., friends, family, supervisors, coworkers).

Role Conflict

Role conflict was measured for each domain, allowing the separation of role conflict from the work to the nonwork domain with that of role conflict experienced from the nonwork to the work domain. The operationalization of these measures is highlighted below.

Work To Nonwork Interference. The measure of role conflict from work to nonwork was assessed by two instruments: a four-item scale by Gutek et al. (1991); and a two-item scale adapted from Frone et al. (1992a).

Nonwork To Work Interference. The measure of role conflict in the nonwork to work direction was also assessed by two instruments, the counterparts to those above for the work to nonwork interference measures: four items by Gutek et al. (1991), and two items from Frone et al. (1992a).

Work Centrality

Work Centrality was measured utilizing two scales: the Work Involvement scale adapted from Kanungo's research (1982a), and via reverse coding of the Work Alienation scale, originally developed by Shepard (1972) but revised by Passino (1983). As operationalized, work centrality references the generalized importance of work in the participant's life.

Job Involvement

Job Involvement was specifically defined as the psychological involvement the participant has with his/her present job. As such, the construct was estimated by a combination of a traditional Likert type scale employed extensively by Frone and colleagues (Frone & Rice, 1987; Frone et al., 1992a, 1995), and a graphic scale adapted from Kanungo (1982a). The Likert type scale consists of five items, and two figures comprise the graphic scale.

Procedure

Each of the participating organizations had a contact individual for the distribution and collection of questionnaires. The method of informing potential participants varied from organization to organization. For example, in one service organization, the executive director of the agency informed employees of

the study during a mandatory staff meeting; one manufacturing organization included the opportunity for participation in the company newsletter; another organization allowed the researcher to personally request consideration of participation from employees in an attachment to a manager's email signaling support for the study; and so on. In each case, however, the completely voluntary and anonymous nature of participation was stressed. These methods are outlined in Appendix A.

After distribution of the questionnaires, follow-up procedures were also customized for each group of participants. The provision of individual, stamped, self-addressed envelopes for direct return to the researcher was made for some organizations. Other organizations had a common return area with sealed envelopes, and yet others provided locked boxes for return options.

Each organization was also offered the opportunity to have feedback reports prepared from aggregated data and presented to appropriate management. Three of the organizations requested feedback reports. All participants who desired feedback regarding the study results were supplied information at the time of the questionnaire distribution to enable them to do so.

All questionnaires were distributed between May, 1996 and July, 1996.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In this chapter the data relating to the research question dealing with the characteristics of identity salience are described first. Next, data pertaining to the second research question and the testing of the hypotheses are presented.

Research Question I: What is the multidimensional nature of identity salience for individuals' work and nonwork identities?

Identity Salience

The number of identities chosen by participants, the types of identities chosen, the mean identity salience values within participants, and the variation of the salience among those identities chosen were calculated. First, the data below highlight the findings for general descriptive statistics; secondly, the multidimensional classification is reviewed.

Descriptive Statistics.

Table 4.1 provides the general descriptive statistics for the identity salience measures. As shown, on the average participants chose seven or more identities. All participants who completed the selection exercise chose the requested minimum of five identities and a majority chose the maximum of nine.

Table 4.2 highlights the actual categories of identities chosen, including the number of identities per category. As shown, only 5% of the participants did not chose at least one kinship identity, whereas over 51% did not choose any

TABLE 4.1. IDENTITY SALIENCE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS.

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Total Number of Identities Chosen ^a	7.43	1.46	5.00	9.00
Total Number of Work Identities Chosen	1.05	.53	0.00	3.00
Mean Identity Salience for Identities Chosen ^b	5.64	.70	3.73	7.00
Standard Deviation of Identity Salience for Identities Chosen	1.12	.58	0.00	2.71
Value of Most Salient Nonwork Identity	6.78	.42	5.00	7.00
Value of Most Salient Work Identity	5.62	1.29	1.00	7.00

^aRange possible: 1 to 9.

^bScale anchors: 1 to 7.

TABLE 4.2. IDENTITY CATEGORIES CHOSEN BY PARTICIPANTS.

Category	Number of Identities Chosen from Category	Number of Participants	Percentage of Participants
Associational	0	103	51.2
	1	80	39.8
	2	17	8.5
	3	1	0.5
Kinship	0	10	5.0
	1	87	43.3
	2	58	29.9
	3	39	19.1
	4	4	2.0
	5	2	1.0
	6	1	0.5
Occupational	0	23	11.4
	1	149	74.1
	2	27	13.4
	3	2	1.0
Acquaintanceship	0	44	21.9
	1	120	59.7
	2	33	16.4
	3	4	2.0
Recreational	0	69	34.3
	1	80	39.8
	2	38	18.9
	3	10	5.0
	4	3	1.5
	5	1	0.5
Life Orientations	0	45	22.4
	1	95	47.3
	2	44	21.9
	3	14	7.0
	4	3	1.5
Romantic	0	44	21.9
	1	151	75.1
	2	6	3.0

TABLE 4.3. IDENTITIES CHOSEN BY PARTICIPANTS.

Category	Identity	Number	Percentage
Acquaintanceship	Friend	137	68.84
Romantic	Spouse	133	66.83 ^a
Kinship	Parent	123	61.81 ^b
Occupational	Worker/Employee	98	49.25
Kinship	Sibling	84	42.21
Kinship	Child	79	39.70
Occupational	Job Specific Label	55	27.64
Acquaintanceship	Coworker	44	22.11
Life Orientation	Pet Owner	41	20.60
Occupational	Supervisor/Manager	34	17.09
Associational	Volunteer	32	16.08
Life Orientation	Christian	32	16.08
Kinship	Uncle/Aunt	24	12.06
Associational	Student	23	11.56
Life Orientation	Baptist	23	11.56
Kinship	Relative-Generic	19	9.55
Recreational	Reader	18	9.05
Associational	Member-Generic	17	8.54
Life Orientation	Democrat	16	8.04
Recreational	Recreational-Generic	16	8.04
Kinship	Grandparent	15	7.54
Life Orientation	Republican	14	7.04
Recreational	Golfer	11	5.53

^a92% of self-reported married participants.

^b95% of self-reported parents.

TABLE 4.3. IDENTITIES CHOSEN BY PARTICIPANTS (continued).

Category	Identity	Number	Percentage
Associational	Leader-Generic	10	5.03
Romantic	Lover/Partner	10	5.03
Recreational	Athlete	9	4.52
Recreational	Gardener	9	4.52
Recreational	Hunter	9	4.52
Romantic	Romantic-Generic	9	4.52
Acquaintanceship	Acquaintanceship-Generic	8	4.02
Associational	Associational-Generic	8	4.02
Occupational	Professional	8	4.02
Recreational	Musician	8	4.02
Recreational	Runner	8	4.02
Recreational	Walker	8	4.02
Life Orientation	Catholic	7	3.52
Life Orientation	Life Orientation-Generic	7	3.52
Recreational	Skier	7	3.52
Romantic	Boy/Girlfriend	7	3.52
Acquaintanceship	Neighbor	6	3.02
Associational	Church Member	6	3.02
Associational	Teacher-Generic	6	3.02
Life Orientation	Animal Lover	6	3.02
Recreational	Artist	6	3.02
Life Orientation	Liberal	5	2.51
Life Orientation	Methodist	5	2.51
Life Orientation	Traveler	5	2.51
Recreational	Fisherman	5	2.51
Recreational	Fitness Enthusiast/Exerciser	5	2.51
Recreational	Writer/Poet	5	2.51
Life Orientation	Activist	4	2.01
Life Orientation	Home Owner	4	2.01
Life Orientation	Presbyterian	4	2.01
Recreational	Computer Person	4	2.01
Recreational	Music Lover	4	2.01
Recreational	Sports Lover/Fan	4	2.01
Recreational	Tennis Player	4	2.01
Romantic	Fiancee	4	2.01

TABLE 4.3. IDENTITIES CHOSEN BY PARTICIPANTS (continued).

Category	Identity	Number	Percentage
Acquaintanceship	Peer	3	1.51
Associational	Coach	3	1.51
Kinship	Child-In-Law	3	1.51
Kinship	Grandchild	3	1.51
Life Orientation	Counselor/Confidant/Advisor	3	1.51
Life Orientation	Helper	3	1.51
Recreational	Biker	3	1.51
Recreational	Camper	3	1.51
Recreational	Cards/Games Player	3	1.51
Recreational	Choirperson	3	1.51
Recreational	Dancer	3	1.51
Recreational	Softball Player	3	1.51
Life Orientation	Episcopalian	2	1.01
Life Orientation	Explorer	2	1.01
Life Orientation	Feminist	2	1.01
Life Orientation	God-Seeker/Spiritualist	2	1.01
Life Orientation	Inventor/Creator	2	1.01
Life Orientation	Leader	2	1.01
Life Orientation	Listener	2	1.01
Life Orientation	Nature Lover/Naturalist	2	1.01
Life Orientation	Planner/Organizer	2	1.01
Life Orientation	Team Player	2	1.01
Life Orientation	Unitarian Universalist	2	1.01
Life Orientation	Vegetarian	2	1.01
Recreational	Art Collector	2	1.01
Recreational	Basketball Player	2	1.01
Recreational	Hiker	2	1.01
Recreational	Movie Watcher	2	1.01
Recreational	Outdoorsman	2	1.01
Recreational	Photographer	2	1.01
Recreational	Seamstress	2	1.01
Recreational	Soccer Player	2	1.01
Recreational	Swimmer	2	1.01
Recreational	Weightlifter	2	1.01
Associational	Band Booster	1	0.50
Associational	CPR Instructor	1	0.50
Associational	Little League Comm.	1	0.50
Associational	Mentor	1	0.50
Associational	Minister	1	0.50
Associational	Safety Leader	1	0.50

TABLE 4.3. IDENTITIES CHOSEN BY PARTICIPANTS (continued).

Category	Identity	Number	Percentage
Associational	Scout Leader	1	0.50
Associational	Secretary/Member	1	0.50
Associational	Sorority Sister	1	0.50
Associational	Sunday School Teacher	1	0.50
Associational	Team Mother	1	0.50
Associational	UT Alumni	1	0.50
Kinship	Parent-To-Be	1	0.50
Kinship	Sibling-In-Law	1	0.50
Kinship	Stepparent	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Art Lover	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Celebrant	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Church Of Christ	1	0.50
Life Orientation	College Graduate	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Competitor	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Conservative	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Driver	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Entrepreneur	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Everyday Person On The Street	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Friendly	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Honest	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Individualist	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Information Provider	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Jehovah's Witness	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Jew	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Learner	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Loner	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Mom Taxi	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Optimist	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Patient	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Provider	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Quaker	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Religious Scientist	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Seeker	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Servant	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Sexual Orientation	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Sincere	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Single	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Sports Mom	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Thinker	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Veteran	1	0.50
Life Orientation	Voyeur	1	0.50

TABLE 4.3. IDENTITIES CHOSEN BY PARTICIPANTS (continued).

Category	Identity	Number	Percentage
Life Orientation	Weight Watcher	1	0.50
Life Orientation	"Where I Live"	1	0.50
Life Orientation	World Citizen	1	0.50
Occupational	Salaried	1	0.50
Occupational	Union Member	1	0.50
Recreational	Antique Restorer	1	0.50
Recreational	Backpacker	1	0.50
Recreational	Boater	1	0.50
Recreational	Bowler	1	0.50
Recreational	Chef	1	0.50
Recreational	Coin Collector	1	0.50
Recreational	Collector	1	0.50
Recreational	Farmer	1	0.50
Recreational	Handyman	1	0.50
Recreational	Horseman	1	0.50
Recreational	Ice Skater	1	0.50
Recreational	Jet Skier	1	0.50
Recreational	Kayaker	1	0.50
Recreational	Motorcyclist	1	0.50
Recreational	Painter	1	0.50
Recreational	Potter	1	0.50
Recreational	Radio Personality	1	0.50
Recreational	Rower	1	0.50
Recreational	Scuba Diver	1	0.50
Recreational	Shopper	1	0.50
Recreational	Tap Dancer	1	0.50
Recreational	Trail Rider	1	0.50
Recreational	Trekie	1	0.50
Recreational	Weaver	1	0.50

associational identities. And even though participants were allowed to freely choose, only 11% of participants did not choose an occupational identity. In fact, over 13% chose two or more occupational identities. Please refer to Table 4.2 for a more detailed view by category and number of identities within category.

As for specific identity labels, Table 4.3 lists each identity chosen by overall frequency across all participants. The most frequently chosen identity was that of "friend", with almost 69% of the participant pool listing it. Second, with over 66%, was "spouse". This percentage reflects 92% of those who self-reported as married or living as married. Third runner-up was the parental identity, with approximately 62% (95% of self reported parents chose the label). In the occupational category, three identity labels were in the top 10: worker or employee (49%), a job specific label such as accountant, engineer, social worker, etc. (27%), and supervisor or manager (17%). Subsequent identities chosen can be seen in their entirety in Table 4.2, ranging from friend chosen 137 times to "Trekie", chosen but once.

Overall, participants chose identities which they subsequently rated as highly salient. The sample mean identity salience across the identities rated within a participant was 5.64, this ranging from a low of 3.73 to a maximum of 7.00. Variation around the salience of the identities within a participant was essentially low, demonstrated by a standard deviation mean of 1.12. Figures 4.1 and 4.2 graphically represent the distribution of mean identity salience and standard deviation of identities within a participant.

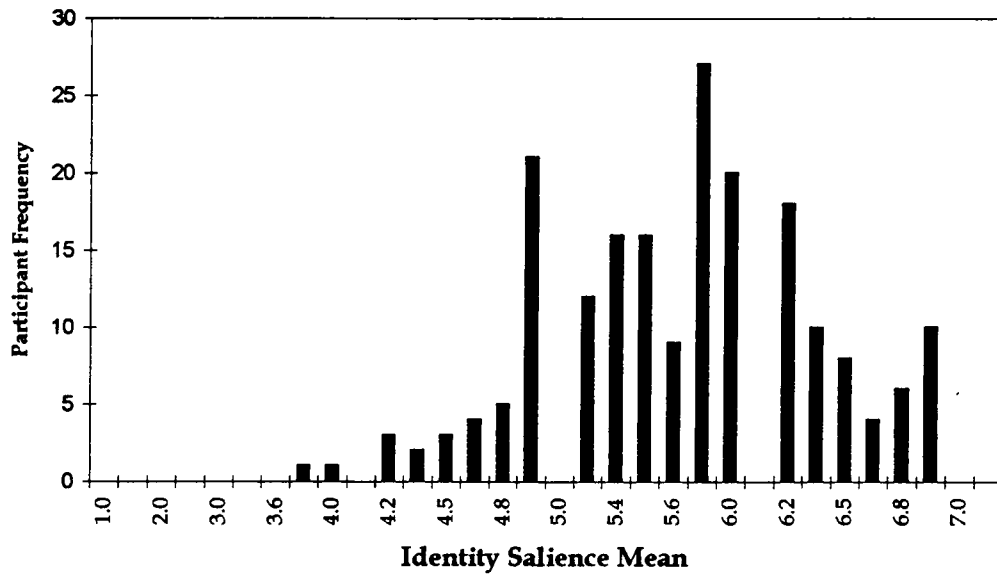


Figure 4.1. Mean Salience of Identities Chosen.

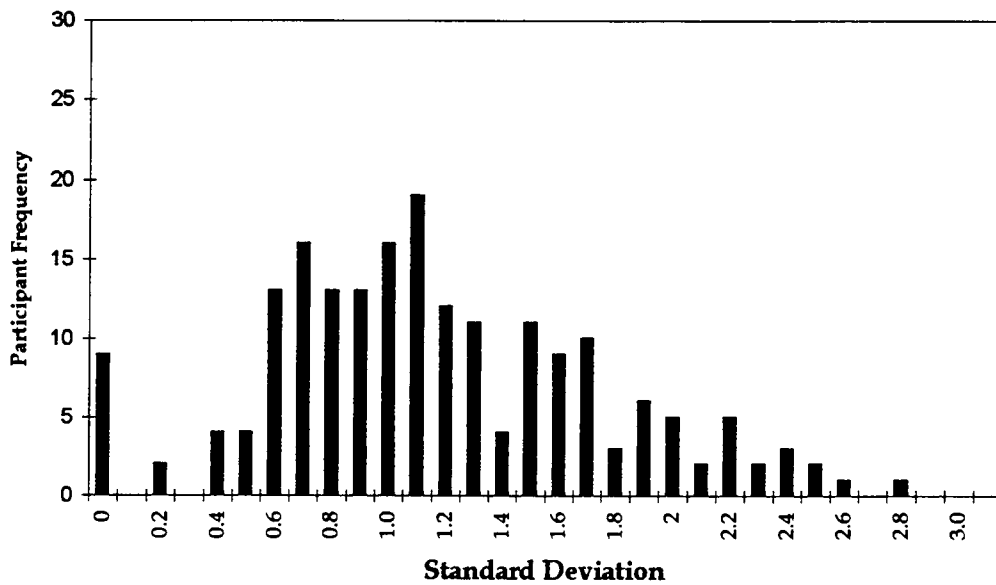


Figure 4.2. Standard Deviation of Identity Salience for Identities Chosen.

Returning to Table 4.1, on the whole, occupational identities were also rated high, with a mean of 5.62 found for the most salient work identity chosen. For those who chose more than one occupational identity, the work-related identity with the highest salience value was chosen to represent the "work" salience value, even if it was not the "worker" role mandated by researcher inclusion in the rating process. In fact, for most participants who chose more than one occupational identity, it was another, more specific occupational label that had the higher rated salience value when compared to the generic "worker" label. This compares to the value of the most salient nonwork identity at a mean of 6.78 for the participant sample. Variation was lower for the most salient nonwork identity when compared to the most salient work identity (standard deviations of 0.42 versus 1.29, respectively). Whereas some participants rated work identity at the minimum allowable (i.e., 1.00), the lowest value for the most salient nonwork identity was much higher at 5.00. Figure 4.3. and Figure 4.4. display the distribution of the values of the most salient nonwork and work identities, respectively. The clustering of nonwork identity salience is clearly noted in Figure 4.3., whereas the more diffuse distribution of most salient work identity salience can be seen in Figure 4.4.

Identity Salience Subgrouping

Identity salience was also computed as a standard score using the mean and standard deviation obtained from the salience distribution of each participant's scores. The z-score obtained for each role for each participant was

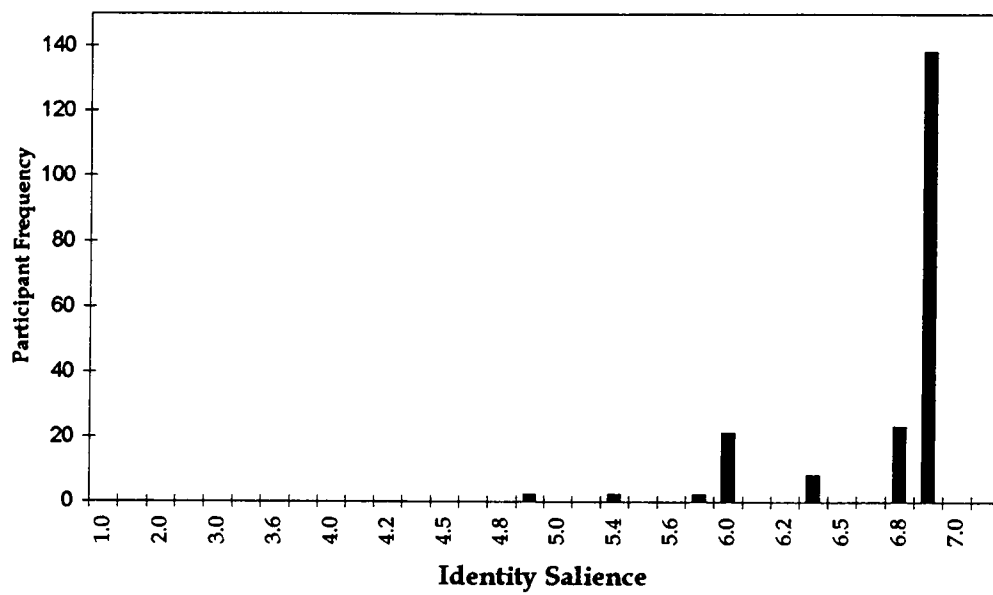


Figure 4.3. Value of Most Salient Nonwork Identity.

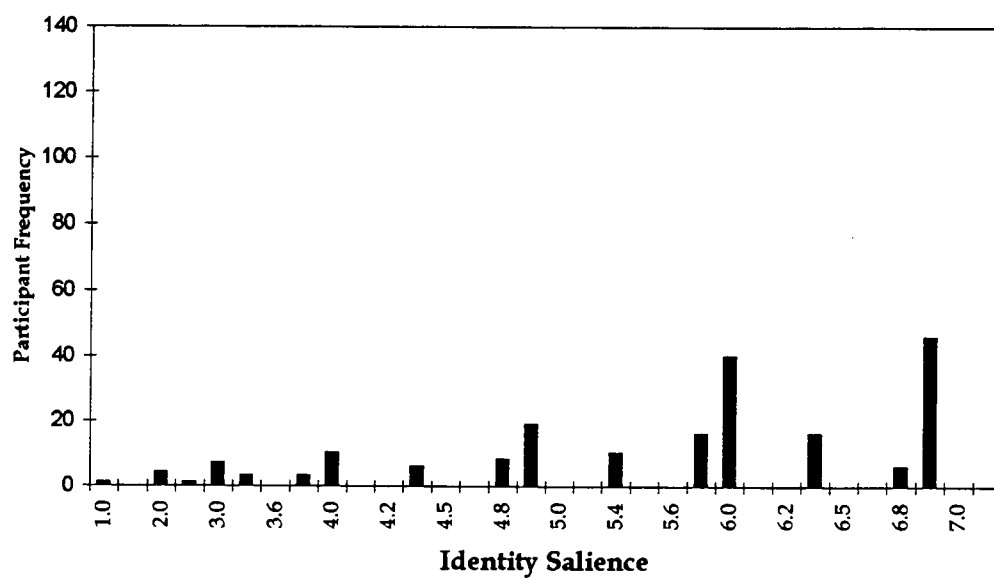


Figure 4.4. Value of Most Salient Work Identity.

used as the basis to classify participants into the multidimensional categories of work and nonwork salience.

A mean split was performed on each of two measures: the work identity with the highest z-score salience value and the nonwork identity with the highest z-score salience value. Those values were then used to classify each participant into one of four subgroups: 1) Low Nonwork Salience/Low Work Salience; 2) Low Nonwork Salience/High Work Salience; 3) High Nonwork Salience/Low Work Salience; and, 4) High Nonwork Salience/High Work Salience. Please refer to Figure 4.5. for a graphical representation of the classification scheme. These subgroups formed the basis for subsequent analyses to address the second research question and hypotheses. No significant demographic differences were found among the subgroups.

Figure 4.5. Identity Salience Subgroup Classifications.

Low Nonwork/ Low Work	Low Nonwork/ High Work
High Nonwork/ Low Work	High Nonwork/ High Work

Research Question II: Is there an interaction effect for identity salience and the predictor variables in a conceptual model explaining job involvement?

Conceptual Model

Prior to relating the results of the conceptual model hypotheses, preliminary data will first be reviewed. These include the descriptive statistics for the latent variables, and mean comparisons for the identity salience subgroups. Finally, the results of the hypotheses tests are reviewed both from an overall model fit perspective and via examination of individual path parameters.

Descriptive Statistics for Latent Variables

Scale mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values, and internal consistency results for each latent variable are displayed in Table 4.4. As shown, Cronbach alpha values for each construct are acceptable (all .70 or greater with most above .80), providing support for the multiple scale approach which was utilized in the structural equation modeling. Overall, mean values were moderate to strong for most of the constructs, with values indicating evidence for strong social support for the nonwork domain (mean of 4.94), good person-work domain fit (mean of 4.90), and role conflict from the nonwork-to-work domain appearing low (mean of 2.36). Standard deviations and ranges for each construct demonstrated acceptable levels of variance to pursue structural equation modeling analyses, ranging from the smallest variation found for nonwork-to-work interference to the largest for work-to-nonwork interference (standard deviations of 0.86 and 1.21, respectively).

Intercorrelations for the latent variables for the full sample are shown in Table 4.5. While there are widely ranging intercorrelations among the variables,

TABLE 4.4. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND INTERNAL CONSISTENCIES OF LATENT VARIABLES.

Latent Variable	Sample Size	Mean ^a	Standard Deviation	Minimum ^a	Maximum ^a	Cronbach Alpha
Person-Work Domain Fit	199	4.90	1.15	1.86	7.00	.71
Social Support for Work Domain	198	4.57	1.11	1.50	7.00	.83
Person-Nonwork Domain Fit	199	4.71	1.19	1.78	7.00	.80
Social Support for Nonwork Domain	200	4.94	0.89	2.05	6.73	.92
Work-to-Nonwork Interference	200	3.67	1.21	1.00	7.00	.84
Nonwork-to-Work Interference	200	2.36	0.86	1.00	5.00	.80
Work Centrality	200	3.35	1.01	1.29	5.70	.85
Job Involvement	200	4.35	1.09	1.29	7.00	.86

^aAll original scales had anchors of 1 and 7.

TABLE 4.5. INTERCORRELATIONS OF LATENT VARIABLES FOR FULL SAMPLE (N=2000)

Latent Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Person-Work Domain Fit	-							
2. Social Support for Work Domain	.29**	-						
3. Person-Nonwork Domain Fit	.54**	.32**	-					
4. Social Support for Nonwork Domain	.36**	.80**	.46**	-				
5. Work-to-Nonwork Interference	-.30**	-.22**	-.32**	-.20**	-			
6. Nonwork-to-Work Interference	-.30**	-.09	-.28**	-.13	.34**	-		
7. Work Centrality	.38**	-.05	-.07	-.05	-.01	-.04	-	
8. Job Involvement	.40**	-.03	-.06	-.03	.14	.00	.71**	-

** p < .01. Note: Decimals have been omitted.

two very high correlations are noted. One, the correlation between social support constructs (i.e., social support for the nonwork domain and social support for the work domain), was 0.80, suggesting that social support is highly correlated across domains even though mean levels differ (4.94 versus 4.57, respectively). Also, the extremely high correlation between job involvement and work centrality is noted ($r = 0.71$). As with the social support variables, mean levels differed for the constructs, with job involvement rated higher than work centrality (4.35 compared to 3.35).

Mean Comparisons of Latent Variables

In order to discount gender differences as an unexamined predictor of latent variable and model differences, mean comparisons were computed to determine if mean level differences existed for any of the latent variables. The only significant difference found was for social support for the nonwork domain where women perceived slightly higher support for their nonwork lives than did men in the sample at $F(1, 191) = 5.59, p = .019$.

With no pattern of significant gender differences established, the identity salience subgroup analyses continued. Table 4.6 lists means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for each of the latent variables by identity salience subgroups. One-way anovas were conducted for each latent variable with identity salience subgroup as the four-level factor. The only statistically significant differences occurred for job involvement at $F(3, 183) = 22.36, p < .000$; and work centrality at $F(3, 183) = 17.93; p < .000$. However, patterns of mean

TABLE 4.6. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND INTERCORRELATIONS OF
LATENT VARIABLES BY IDENTITY SALIENCE SUBGROUPS.

Identity Salience Subgroup (N)	Latent Variable ^a	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Subgroup 1: Low Nonwork/ Low Work (46)	1. Person-Work Domain Fit	4.71	1.04	-							
	2. Social Support for Work Domain	4.68	1.16	32*	-						
	3. Person-Nonwork Domain Fit	4.72	1.14	51**	42**	-					
	4. Social Support for Nonwork Domain	5.11	0.86	40**	79**	51**	-				
	5. Work-to-Nonwork Interference	3.52	1.14	-38*	-31*	-42**	-19	-			
	6. Nonwork-to-Work Interference	2.27	0.82	-23	00	-49**	06	56**	-		
	7. Work Centrality	2.75	0.99	33*	-22	-26	-20	00	-04	-	
	8. Job Involvement	3.64	1.09	39*	-12	-27	-11	13	13	67**	-
Subgroup 2: Low Nonwork/ High Work (50)	1. Person-Work Domain Fit	5.05	1.08	-							
	2. Social Support for Work Domain	4.38	1.08	23	-						
	3. Person-Nonwork Domain Fit	4.51	1.19	51**	27	-					
	4. Social Support for Nonwork Domain	4.68	0.91	31*	81**	45**	-				
	5. Work-to-Nonwork Interference	4.00	1.06	-21	-03	-16	-08	-			
	6. Nonwork-to-Work Interference	2.44	0.84	-16	22	-11	12	-01	-		
	7. Work Centrality	3.75	0.86	46**	03	23	09	-08	-33*	-	
	8. Job Involvement	4.92	0.92	47*	-05	14	-01	03	-25	65**	-

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

Note: Decimals have been omitted.

TABLE 4.6. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND INTERCORRELATIONS OF
LATENT VARIABLES BY IDENTITY SALIENCE SUBGROUPS (continued).

Identity Salience Subgroup (N)	Latent Variable ^a	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Subgroup 3: High Nonwork/ Low Work (47)	1. Person-Work Domain Fit	4.64	1.35	-							
	2. Social Support for Work Domain	4.59	1.15	33*	-						
	3. Person-Nonwork Domain Fit	4.92	1.18	64**	24	-					
	4. Social Support for Nonwork Domain	4.94	0.99	40**	81*	47**	-				
	5. Work-to-Nonwork Interference	3.59	1.22	-28	-20	-28	-17	-			
	6. Nonwork-to-Work Interference	2.36	0.85	-29*	-22	-20	-22	34*	-		
	7. Work Centrality	2.96	0.92	18	-04	23	03	15	20	-	
	8. Job Involvement	3.92	0.98	38**	10	13	16	17	15	68**	-
Subgroup 4: High Nonwork/ High Work (44)	1. Person-Work Domain Fit	5.00	0.95	-							
	2. Social Support for Work Domain	4.54	0.99	36*	-						
	3. Person-Nonwork Domain Fit	4.54	1.25	61**	28	-					
	4. Social Support for Nonwork Domain	4.89	0.68	35*	73**	31*	-				
	5. Work-to-Nonwork Interference	3.78	1.18	-40*	-13	-25	-01	-			
	6. Nonwork-to-Work Interference	2.52	0.92	-51**	-14	-20	-18	27	-		
	7. Work Centrality	3.85	0.77	38*	-06	23	-17	-11	-03	-	
	8. Job Involvement	4.87	0.77	30*	12	-07	13	13	-30*	49**	-

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

Note: Decimals have been omitted.

differences across identity salience subgroups, while not statistically significant for most of the variables, are notable. Figures 4.6. through 4.9. graphically display pairs of means (i.e., job involvement and work centrality; work and nonwork domain fit; work and nonwork social support; and the role conflict variables) by identity salience subgroups (i.e., low nonwork/low work, low work/high work, high nonwork/low work, high nonwork/high work).

As can be seen in Figure 4.6., job involvement and work centrality follow the same pattern across identity salience subgroups, including demonstrating higher levels of job involvement and work centrality for those who are in the high work salience subgroups. Shown in Figure 4.7., person-work fit was higher for those of high work salience compared to low work salience, whereas the nonwork fit for the high work subgroups was lower than the work fit. For those with low work salience, the person-nonwork fit was equal to or greater than the work fit. In Figure 4.8., the pattern of social support for work trails social support for nonwork for all subgroups, regardless of the salience classification. Role conflict follows a pattern as well: Figure 4.9. highlights how work-to-nonwork interference is greater than nonwork-to-work interference, regardless of the salience subgroup. The graph also shows that the highest work-to-nonwork interference occurs for those of high work salience (although the means are not significantly different).

As shown in Table 4.6, differential patterns of intercorrelations are found for the latent variables across identity salience subgroups. For example, the

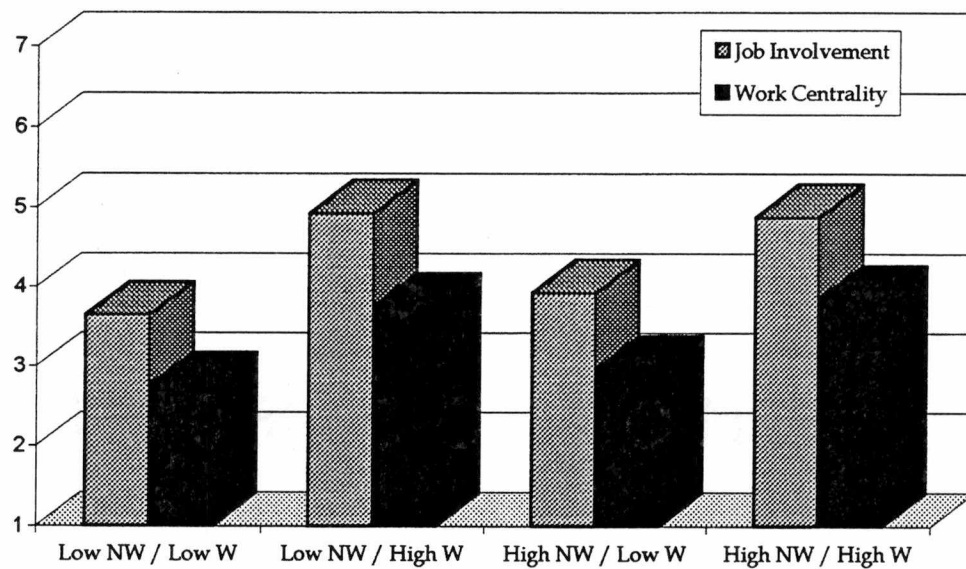


Figure 4.6. Mean Job Involvement and Work Centrality.

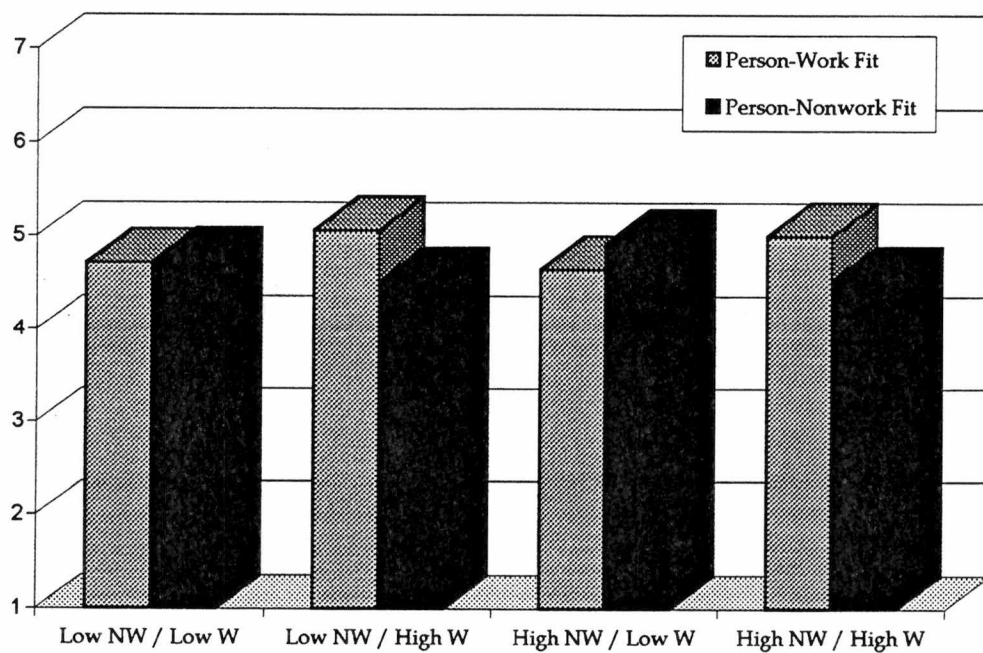


Figure 4.7. Mean Person-Environment Fit.

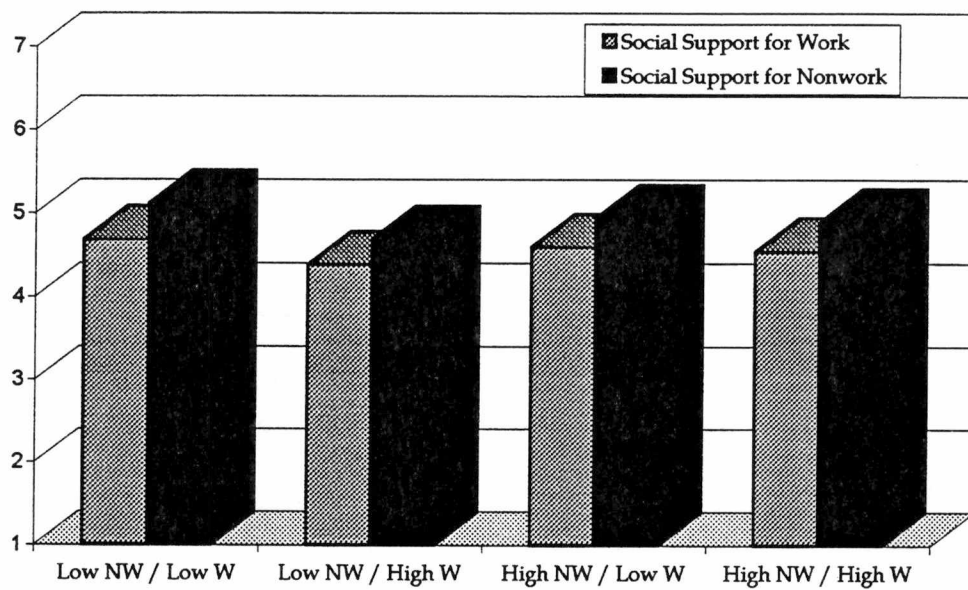


Figure 4.8. Mean Social Support.

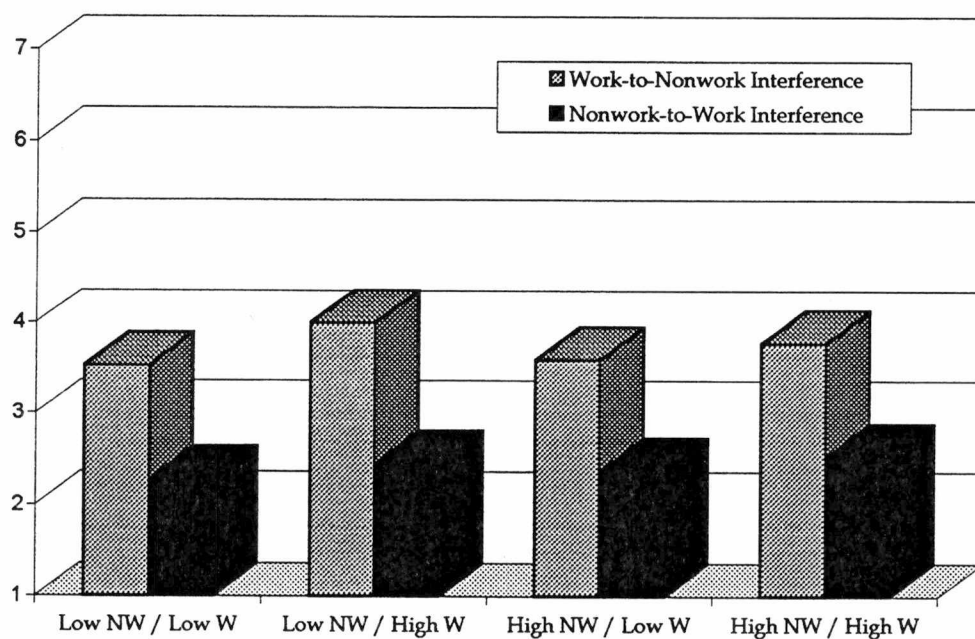


Figure 4.9. Mean Role Conflict.

correlation is lesser between job involvement and work centrality for the high nonwork/high work subgroup ($r = .49$) when compared to the other subgroups. As another example, there is a different direction of correlation between job involvement and nonwork interference with work for those with low work salience as compared to those with high work salience (i.e., subgroups 1 and 3 have positive correlations whereas subgroups 2 and 4 have negative correlations). These differences, and others, will be examined more fully in the structural equation modeling review.

Structural Equation Models

In order to fully test the hypotheses, two approaches are taken with structural equation modeling. The first step is the assessment of overall model fit after which specific path parameters are examined. This corresponds to recommendations by James et al. (1982) and Anderson and Gerbing (1988), which highlight the need to have a multi-step approach in assessing structural models. However, a preliminary step to the assessment of model fit is the acceptance of the overall measurement model. In essence, the measurement model links the indicators, or scales, with the latent constructs. The latent constructs and their indicators should be appropriate and deemed properly related prior to assessment of the structural model.

All structural equation modeling analyses were undertaken employing PRELIS 2 and LISREL 8 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993) statistical software, utilizing covariance matrices of the data and maximum likelihood estimation procedures.

Using LISREL 8, acceptance of the measurement model as the basis for the conceptual model was accomplished with a caveat: one alteration to the originally proposed model was made. Initially, the construct of person-environment fit was defined as consisting of both the "fit" scale and the social support scales to establish one exogenous predictor of person-environment fit for each domain. In linking the two distinct concepts, the measurement model would not run successfully (i.e., there were unacceptably low fit indices), thereby preventing the next step of actual conceptual model evaluation. A revision was made to separate fit from social support in each domain as was recommended by the modification indices, levels of which strongly suggested splitting them into two exogenous variables. This was done due not only to the empirical evidence provided, but also to the conceptual considerations that social support and fit are indeed two distinct concepts. Although the theoretical rationale was present to initially recommend combining them, the separation of the two constructs into separate latent variables in each domain does not invoke "dust-bowl empiricism" (Ladd, 1994).

Other analytical support for acceptance of the measurement model occurred as the statistical relationship found between each variable and its latent construct. All t-values were greater than 10.0, $p < .001$, save one ($t = 8.10$, $p < .01$), indicating that the variables were appropriately and strongly matched to their respective latent constructs. Therefore, the revised model as displayed in Figure 4.10. was used for the remainder of the analyses.

Model Fit. Table 4.7 highlights the summary of fit indices for the structural equation models. Criteria for model acceptance and recommended fit indices for model comparison are not clearly established (Medsker, Williams, & Holahan, 1994), but there are some general rules used for interpretation. Four models were assessed as a part of the multi-group structural equation modeling approach. The first was the null model, one in which all indicators were allowed to load upon all latent variables. Second, the uncorrelated latent factors model, established the connections of the indicators to their appropriate constructs, but did not specify connections among the latent variables. Third was the universal structural model, typically the final model assessed in most structural equation modeling. In the universal structural model all indicators are connected to the appropriate latent variables, model paths are established, and paths are constrained to be equal for all subgroups. Lastly, the group sensitive model linked indicators to latent variables and establishes paths, but also allowed for assessment of fit when the constraint for equality across subgroups was removed.

Seven fit indices were chosen to compare the universal and group sensitive models: these are listed in Table 4.7. First shown, chi-square divided by degrees of freedom, is a generally accepted index of overall fit (Medsker, Williams, & Holahan, 1994). While no hard and fast rules have been established as to the acceptable values of this fit index, it is generally recognized that a value above 4 indicates poor fit, values from 2 to 3 may be considered adequate, while

TABLE 4.7. SUMMARY OF FIT INDICES FOR STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELS.

Model	Chi-Square	df	Chi-Square/ df	RMSEA	GFI	NNFI	PNFI	CFI	CN
Null Model	1196	91	13.15						
Uncorrelated Latent Factors Model	210	51	4.11	.12	.87	.74	.46	.86	75
Universal Structural Model	2328	7	3.33	.11	.97	.89	.24	.97	160
Group Sensitive Model	94	82	1.15	.03	.90	.97	.62	.98	228

Abbreviations: df (degrees of freedom), RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation), GFI (Goodness of Fit Index), NNFI (Non-Normed Fit Index), PNFI (Parsimony Normed Fit Index), CFI (Comparative Fit Index), CN (Critical N)

below 1 is deemed good fit (Medsker et al.; Hu & Bentler, 1995). As listed in Table 4.7., while the universal structural model surpasses the null and uncorrelated latent factors models in terms of fit (as was expected), the group sensitive model provides a significant improvement in fit over the universal model. This finding is carried out across all the fit indices used with the exception of the Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI). However, the group sensitive model has a GFI of 0.9, which is considered an indication of acceptable model fit. The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) shows improvement of the group sensitive model over the universal structural model (0.03 versus 0.12). Guidelines for the RMSEA include values of 0.08 as acceptable fit, while those below 0.05 are indications of good fit (Williams, 1996). Lastly, the Critical N (CN) is used as a measure of fit in that values above 200 are considered good fit, whereas those below 200 demonstrate poorer fit (Hu & Bentler). As Table 4.7 highlights, the CN for the group sensitive model is 228, above that of the universal model's value of 160.

Overall, the fit indices indicate that the group sensitive model as defined by identity salience subgroups demonstrates better fit than the universal structural model where no subgroup indication is delineated. And while the fit indices are certainly acceptable for the universal model, particularly for a complex model in the initial stages of investigation given the relatively small sample size, the group sensitive model showed improvement in fit for all indices except the GFI.

Given the acceptable fit found for the group sensitive model and the improvement in fit over the universal structural model, the research Hypotheses 1.a. through 1.e. are tentatively supported; that is, identity salience as a multidimensional measure moderates the relationships as defined in the overall conceptual model. The results now turn to the specific path analyses for the universal and group sensitive models.

Standardized Path Parameters. The standardized coefficients for both the universal and group sensitive models are displayed in Table 4.8. Paths are separated by those which are direct and those which are mediated. Figures 4.10. through 4.14. also display the path weights in graphical form for each of the universal structural model and group sensitive path parameters.

In reviewing the standardized path parameters, two aspects of the data must be reviewed. First, the general path weight and direction are noted for the overall model, and secondly, differential weights and directions are noted across the subgroups.

The universal model and group sensitive parameter estimates were at times synonymous in terms of direction and significance for some paths, but were opposite in sign and not similarly significant with other paths. For the direct path hypotheses of predictors to job involvement, the results were mixed. Each will be related below.

Work centrality did positively predict job involvement for the universal and the group sensitive models with significant path weights in the .30 to .50

TABLE 4.8. STANDARDIZED COEFFICIENTS FOR STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELS.

Path Parameters	Universal Model Estimates	Group Sensitive Estimates			
		Subgroup1: Low Nonwork/ Low Work	Subgroup 2: Low Nonwork/ High Work	Subgroup 3: High Nonwork/ Low Work	Subgroup 4: High Nonwork/ High Work
<u>Direct Paths</u>					
Job Involvement - Work Centrality	52*	35	42*	55*	51*
Job Involvement - Work-to-Nonwork Interference	23*	29*	19	14	26*
Job Involvement - Nonwork-to-Work Interference	-03	-01	-02	10	-33
Job Involvement - Person Work Domain Fit	87*	84*	88*	84*	55*
Job Involvement - Person Nonwork Domain Work Fit	-71*	-74*	-54*	-67*	-59*
Job Involvement - Social Support for Work Domain	-30	04	-46	-31	-14
Job Involvement - Social Support for Nonwork Domain	42	-09	40	53	43
<u>Mediated Paths</u>					
Work-to-Nonwork Interferenceb - Person Work Domain Fit	-37*	-52*	-27	-29	-57*
Work-to-Nonwork Interference - Social Support for Work Domain	-12	-09	05	-11	-16
Nonwork-to-Work Interference - Person Nonwork Domain Fit	-31*	-58*	-24	-14	-27
Nonwork-to-Work Interference - Social Support for Nonwork	08	46*	31	-14	-15

* p < .05. Note: Decimals have been omitted.

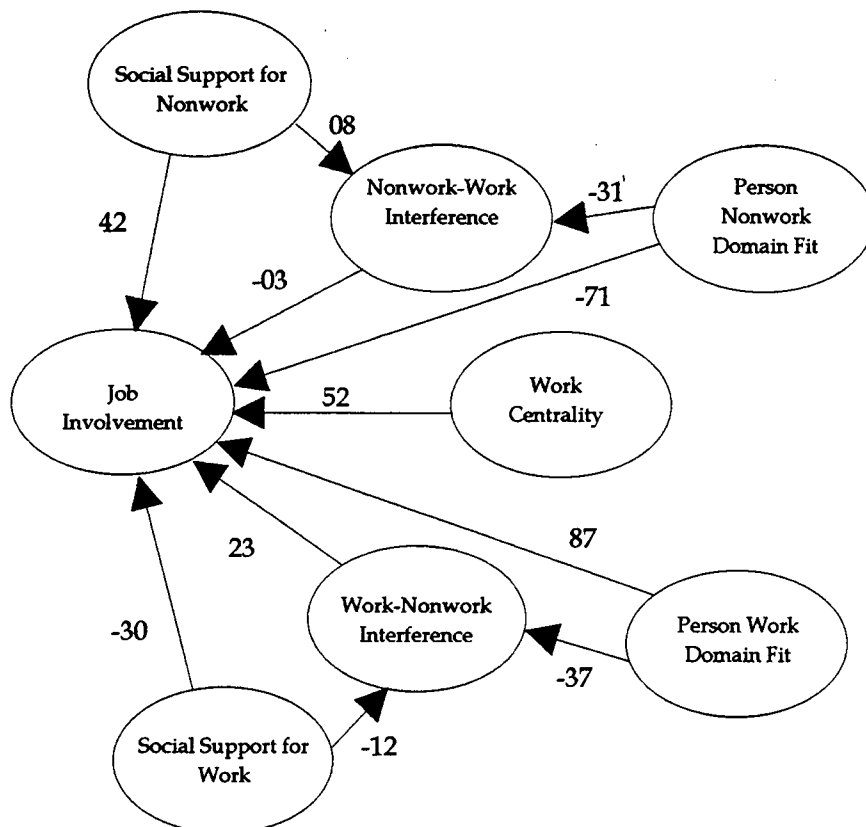


Figure 4.10. Universal Model Path Estimates.

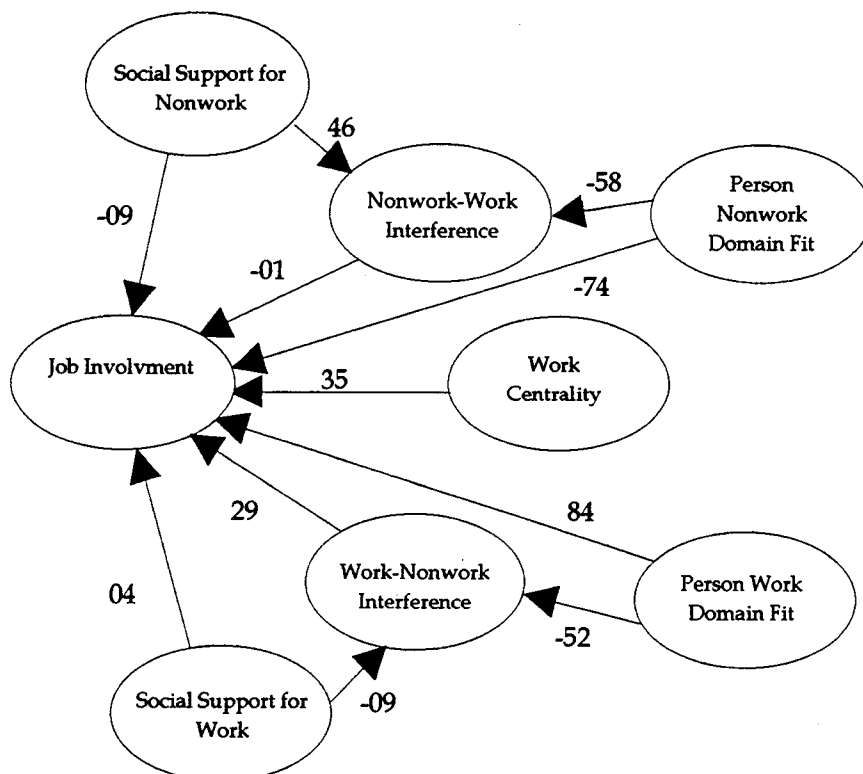


Figure 4.11. Low Nonwork/Low Work Subgroup Path Estimates.

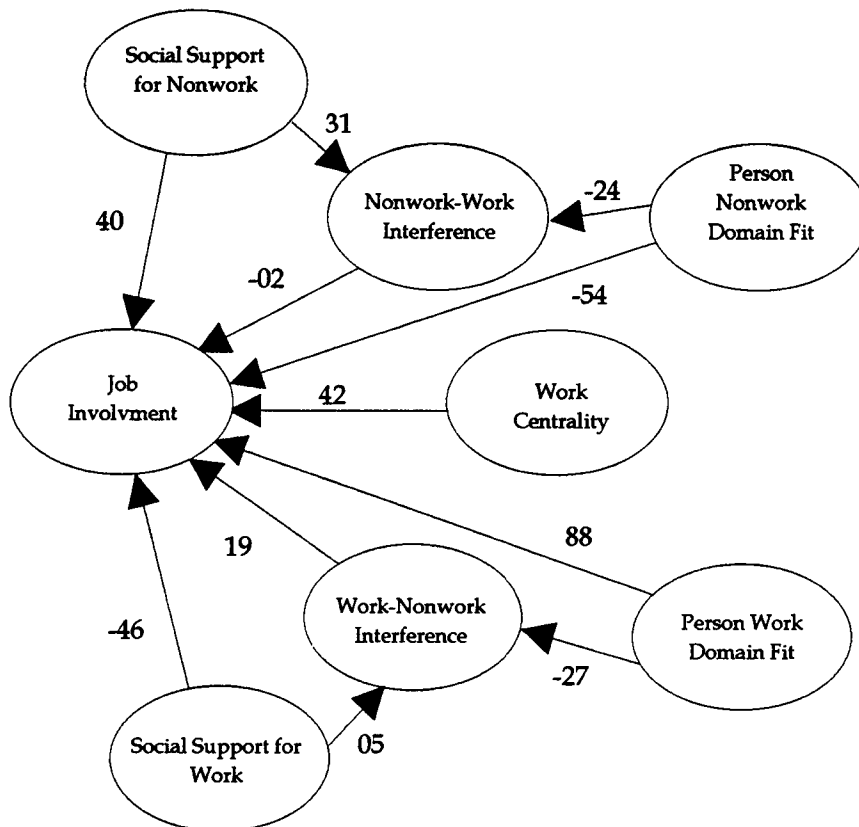


Figure 4.12. Low Nonwork/High Work Subgroup Path Estimates.

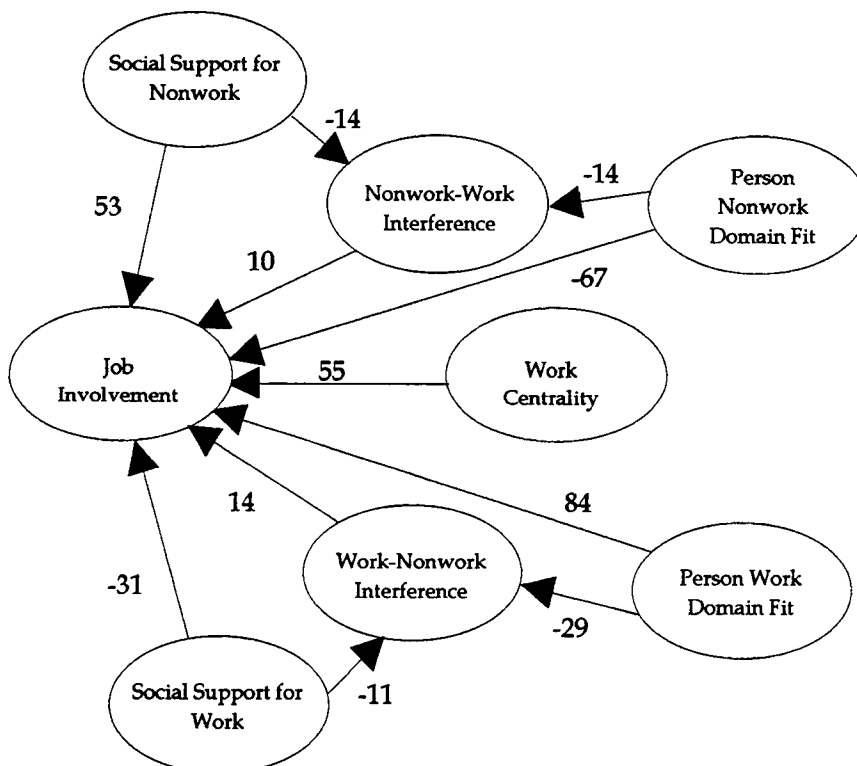


Figure 4.13. High Nonwork/Low Work Subgroup Path Estimates.

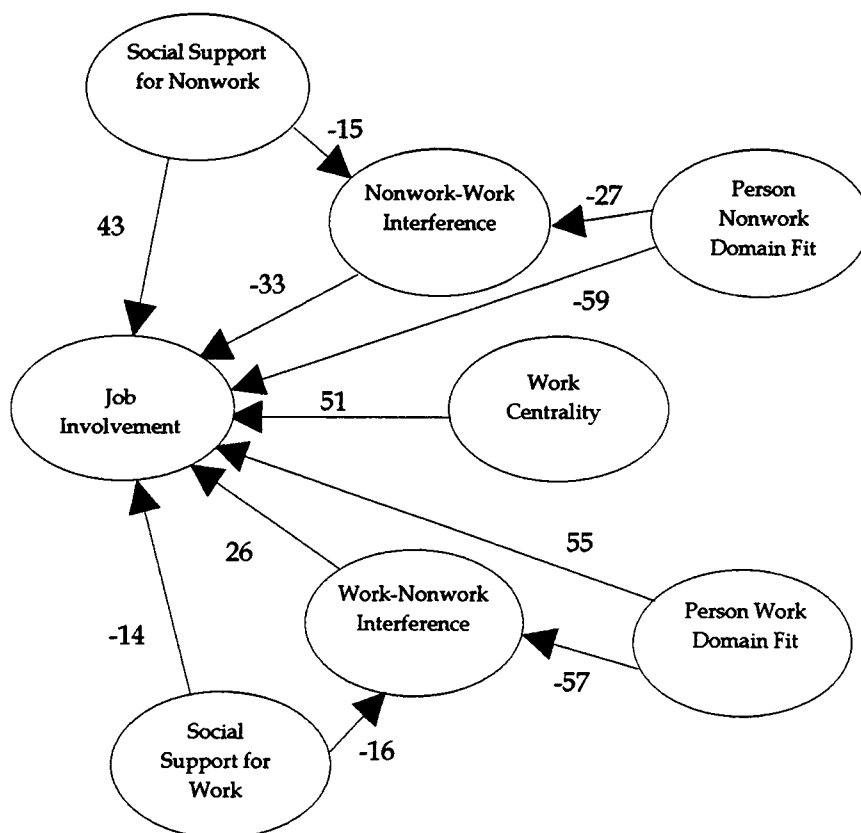


Figure 4.14. High Nonwork/High Work Subgroup Path Estimates.

range with the exception of non-significance of the path weight for low nonwork/low work subgroup. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was supported fully and Hypothesis 1.e. was partially supported.

Role conflict latent variables differed from each other in support of their hypothesized relationships to job involvement: Work-to-nonwork interference did not negatively relate to job involvement as hypothesized; in fact, positive relationships were exhibited, ranging from path weights in the teens to the high 20s, with significance found for the low/low and high/high subgroups. As a result, Hypothesis 4.a. was not supported, but Hypothesis 1.c. was supported as differential path estimates occurred across the subgroups.

The nonwork-to-work interference negative relationship with job involvement was found as predicted for the universal model and all but the high nonwork/low work subgroup. Even so, the only finding of significance was the path weight for the high/high subgroup, which had an estimate of $-.33$. Given the path weight differences among subgroups, Hypothesis 1.d. is supported, with partial support existing for Hypothesis 4.b.

Because of the separation of person-environment fit from social support for the analyses of the conceptual model, there are two forms of evidence for each of the original Hypotheses 1.a., 1.b., 2.a., and 2.b. For both domains, the results were mixed on support of the hypotheses regarding the direct paths. The work domain fit latent variable was strongly and positively significantly related to job involvement, and as such, supported Hypothesis 2.a. There was no

variation in significance across the subgroups, although the parameter estimate for the high/high group was much lower than the other subgroups (.55 versus .80s). Only partial support was shown for Hypothesis 1.a. in that the lower estimate existed for the high/high subgroup.

A different resultant occurred for social support for the work environment. Inasmuch as the fit was positively related, social support was low to moderately negatively related to job involvement. None of the paths were significant, even though some values were in the .30s and .40s. Only the low/low subgroup had a negligible, positive relationship, and therefore, these results do not support Hypothesis 2.a.

For the nonwork domain, person-environment fit did not positively relate to job involvement. On the contrary, the variable was strongly and negatively significantly related to job involvement, for the universal model and for each subgroup. For those subgroups with high work salience, the paths were less strong (-.54, -.59) than those for low work salience (-.74, -.67). Based upon the opposite effect than that predicted, Hypothesis 2.b. was not supported.

Nonetheless, social support for the nonwork domain did relate as predicted by Hypothesis 2.b. in that there was a strong, positive relationship with job involvement for all but one of the subgroups (low/low). The path weights were in the .40s and .50s (with the exception of low/low at -.09), yet none were deemed statistically significant. Thus, partial support for Hypothesis

2.b. was given as well as partial support for Hypothesis 1.b. due to differential subgroup relationships.

Mediated path results were largely supportive of their respective hypotheses for both the identity salience moderation and path linkages. All paths were in the direction as predicted for the universal structural model save the nonwork-to-work interference and social support for nonwork relationship. Details are provided below.

Work-to-nonwork interference and person-work domain fit was strongly and negatively related across all subgroups. The relationships for the low/low and high/high subgroups were larger than the low/high and high/low subgroups. Social support for work and the work-to-nonwork interference relationship was also predominately in the negative direction and had differential levels across subgroups. Therefore, Hypotheses 1 and 3.a. were generally supported.

The nonwork domain mediated paths had mixed results. Person-nonwork domain fit and nonwork-to-work interference were strongly negatively related as predicted by Hypothesis 3.b. (albeit only statistically significantly for the universal and low/low subgroup models). Notwithstanding, the social support for nonwork mediated path had differential results based upon the subgroup patterns of low versus high nonwork. Those groups with low nonwork salience had strong positive relationships between social support for nonwork and nonwork-to work interference. Conversely, but in the direction

hypothesized, the high nonwork salience subgroups had moderate negative path weights. As the composite, the universal model had a low, positive estimate. Due to the mixed pattern of results, Hypothesis 3.b. was partially supported, and the identity salience moderation predicted in Hypothesis 1 was generally supported by the nonwork domain mediated paths.

In summary, the results of this study addressed both research questions and indicated general support for the hypotheses. Exploratory data revealed participants' freely chosen identities and the salience associated with those identities, including moderate to high salience for work-related identities for many of the sample. Model fit for the prediction of job involvement with both work and nonwork domain latent variables was improved when a group sensitive model incorporating identity salience subgroups was compared to a universal structural model. Lastly, path parameter differences from the universal structural model and the subgroup models demonstrated that identity salience did act as a moderating influence in support of many of the hypotheses as predicted. All hypotheses had at least partial support with the exception of the work-to-nonwork interference with job involvement, which was positively related to job involvement, opposite of the direction predicted. Table 4.9 displays a summary of the hypotheses tests.

Table 4.9. Summary of Hypotheses Tests.

Hypothesis	Test Results
1. Identity Salience will be related to Job Involvement through moderator relationships with the predictor variables. Specifically:	Supported
1.a. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between Person-Work Domain Fit and Job Involvement.*	Partially Supported
1.b. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between Person-Nonwork Domain Fit and Job Involvement.*	Partially Supported
1.c. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between Work-to-Nonwork Interference and Job Involvement.	Partially Supported
1.d. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between Nonwork-to-Work Interference and Job Involvement.	Supported
1.e. Identity Salience will moderate the relationship between Work Centrality and Job Involvement.	Partially Supported
2. Domain Fit Factors will be positively related to Job Involvement.	
2.a. Person-Work Domain Fit will be positively related to Job Involvement.*	Partially Supported
2.b. Person-Nonwork Domain Fit will be positively related to Job Involvement.*	Partially Supported
3. Domain Fit will be negatively related to Role Conflict.	
3.a. Person-Work Domain Fit will be negatively related to Work-to-Nonwork Interference.*	Partially Supported
3.b. Person-Nonwork Domain Fit will be negatively related to Nonwork-to-Work Interference.*	Partially Supported
4. Role Conflict will be negatively related to Job Involvement.	
4.a. Work-to-Nonwork Interference will be negatively related to Job Involvement.	Not Supported
4.b. Nonwork-to-Work Interference will be negatively related to Job Involvement.	Partially Supported
5. Work Centrality will be positively related to Job Involvement.	Supported

*Denotes that this hypothesis was tested in two ways via the separation of social support from the domain fit construct.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The overall purpose of the present study was to extend the knowledge base of identity salience. This was accomplished through the investigation of two research questions. The first question addressed the nature of identity salience by exploring the concept of an individual's identity salience via freely chosen identities, and by elaborating the construct as multidimensional. Through the elaboration of identity salience in a multidimensional manner, the second research goal was addressed by investigating moderation effects in a conceptual model incorporating work and nonwork domain variables to predict job involvement.

This chapter discusses the results of the study for each of the general research questions. In conclusion, limitations and future research recommendations are given.

Research Question I

In the chapter entitled "Knowing Yourself" in his best-selling, On Becoming A Leader, Warren Bennis (1989) quotes William James: "I have often thought that the best way to define a man's character would be to seek out the particular mental or moral attitude in which, when it came upon him, he felt himself most deeply and intensively active and alive. At such moments, there is a voice inside which speaks and says, 'This is the real me' (p. 53).

Even though this study cannot claim to have captured the "real" identity for each of the participants, a step was made to understand the parts, whether mental, moral, or otherwise, which go into making up the particulars of the self for individuals: the type of identities listed, the levels of salience of those identities, and the relationship between a work and a dominant nonwork identity. In doing so, a step may have been taken to show that for some individuals, a single identity is not sufficient to describe the "real" or primary part of the self.

Exploratory in nature, the results from the first research question illustrate great diversity in the sample of participants along with some commonality. With a ceiling of nine, the average number of identities chosen was 7.43. This indicates that participants were able to generate a list of multiple identities with relative ease in that generation of one, two, or even five identities was not the norm. Participants were at liberty to list a work identity or not; even with that freedom, only 11.4% did not originally choose a work identity. In contrast, over 14% enumerated two or three work identities. The vast majority of the participants, however, recorded one work identity. This may be due in part to the fact that the introduction to the questionnaire related the objectives of the study as work and nonwork oriented. Even so, the mean salience for the most salient work identity had a relatively high value, as will be noted below.

The types of identities chosen reflect the sample diversity (or lack thereof). The vast majority of participants were married (75%) and were parents

(65%); those identities were numbers 2 and 3 in frequency, respectively, in identities chosen overall. The most frequent identity was associational, the "friend", with almost 69% of the sample choosing it. Multiple work labels were in the "top 10", indicating that work is an integral part of the participant's identities, at least in terms of endorsing it as part of the self. These were the "worker/employee" identity, some form of job specific label, and "manager/supervisor". Interestingly, 17% of the participants listed manager or supervisor. Even though it is impossible to make a direct comparison for actual job title and the job specific label, it is possible to do so for manager/supervisor. With 21% of the participants as self-reported managers, this corresponds to nearly 81% of all self-reported managers listing that label as a specific identity. It seems as though "manager" or "supervisor" is nearly as salient for individuals occupying those positions as identities such as "spouse" or "parent", as salience is measured in this study.

Insofar as other identities, over 50% of the sample listed two or more kinship identities (not including "spouse" which is in the romantic category). Kinship labels ranged from those more common (parent, child, sibling) to other, less common (child-in-law, mother-to-be, stepparent). Approximately 65% of the sample picked more recreational identities, with one participant choosing a total of five. Most participants also recorded at least one life orientation identity, a "catch-all" category including labels ranging from activist to home owner.

Other specific identities which were frequently chosen are “coworker” and “pet owner”, both listed by over 20% of the participants. Additional identities stood out from others in terms of their unexpected large percentages: volunteer (16%) and reader (9%). Other identities chosen by relatively large numbers of participants include religious or spiritual affiliations and various athletic identities. Given this presidential election year, this researcher would be remiss in neglecting to mention that 8% of the participants said they were Democrats and 7% identified themselves as Republicans.

Overall, the mean salience of identities chosen was closer to the upper end of the scale options (1 to 7), indicating that even though participants were asked to list both important and unimportant identities, identity salience values tended to be above the “neutral point”. This lends support to the thesis that, for the most part, participants chose identities which were a priori salient as opposed to identities which were of no relative importance to participants. When the most salient nonwork identity was selected for analysis, the salience values were high (mean = 6.78) and the distribution for those values was quite small as displayed in Figure 4.3. The work salience value was elevated on the 1 to 7 scale, with the mean equaling 5.62. Distribution of the work salience was much more disperse, however, with some values as low as the minimum of 1. All in all, these data illustrate the overall strong work-orientation of the sample that was obtained.

One hindrance in addressing the second research question of the study is the range restriction which occurred for the most salient nonwork identity. As

the multidimensional classification of identity salience for the moderation tests was based upon these values, the generalizability across all types of people is less likely than if there were greater variance in the nonwork salience.

The identity data must be interpreted with caution. Participant honesty, identity inclusiveness, and total self representation may have varied from participant to participant. First, the assumption is made that participants rated their identities without restriction or embellishment. While there is no truth scale to assess participant's honesty, some responses seemed especially calculated to be so. For example, by writing commentary, one participant made clear that the "wife" identity was not salient, but that her separate identity as "lover" was extremely salient.

Some other individuals, however, may have encountered an unconscious social desirability bias; that is, it may not have been personally acceptable to rate "wife" or "father", for example, lower than some other more salient identity. This was clearly not the case for some fraction of the participants, though. A small percentage of self-reported parents and spouses did not list, and therefore did not rate, those identities. This example shows that when identities were not chosen and therefore not rated (with the exception of the "worker" identity), important complexity was lost. In the case of a father who did not list that identity, yet had an overall salience mean of 5.0, a very large "0" was not included. The mean results, therefore, only capture information about those

identities that individuals chose to list, not necessarily all of those which might give a complete picture of the entire self.

This study provided the participants the opportunity to freely choose identities. Even so, examples of categories and specific identities were provided as an introduction. It would be interesting to compare the responses of another group who were not given any examples or "primed" if you will. As in the case of "pet owner" which was given as an example in the instructions *and* listed by over 20% of the participants, would the response rate have been as large? Conversely, no life orientation examples of gender, ethnicity, national or sexual orientation were given. Not one participant listed "man" or "woman" or "white" or "African-American", or for that matter "American". And, only one participant listed any reference to sexual orientation. Do these results indicate that none of the 201 participants think of themselves in terms of gender, ethnic, national, or sexual identity? Could it be that self-censorship occurred to avoid listing something that seemed awkward or uncomfortable, even on an anonymous questionnaire? Or do the results reflect that there are some identities which are not consciously available to individuals until they are brought into awareness by others? The results from this study cannot address those questions in a conclusive way.

Research Question II

Using a multidimensional classification of identity salience where a highly salient nonwork identity and a work identity were combined, a

conceptual model incorporating nonwork and work domain indicators predicting job involvement was assessed. The results of the assessment demonstrate that all hypotheses advanced by this study with the exception of one were supported to some extent.

In order to accept the hypothesis that identity salience is a moderator of the conceptual model as developed, the primary test was the improvement in model fit. As shown in the results, overall the group sensitive model exhibited better fit than when the paths were constrained to be equal across all subgroups as in the universal structural model. This finding held even with the very small subgroup sample sizes. All indices except the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) supported the hypotheses that identity salience did moderate the relationships in the conceptual model. In fact, substantial improvement in fit was shown with most indices. Even though it is one of the most well-known and widely used fit indices, the GFI has been shown to be a poorer estimator of fit than many other indices when sample sizes are below 250 (Hu & Bentler, 1995). Given the GFI of .90 even with the small sample sizes, the group sensitive model performed extremely well.

Individual hypotheses related to construct relationships fared less consistently well with respect to path estimation in the universal structural model and differences in the subgroup model paths. Examination of the path directions, weights, and significance levels provided mixed results, some supportive of the hypotheses in a traditional sense (i.e., significance was

reached), others supportive in the strength of the relationship indicated even though sample size effects hindered reaching statistical significance, or supportive due to differential path weights across subgroups.

The one hypothesis which was not directly supported was the relationship between work-to-nonwork conflict and job involvement. These findings affirm the results found by other researchers (e.g., Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Greenhaus & Kopelman, 1981). The differential results found with respect to the source of the conflict (i.e., work or nonwork domain origination) suggest that there are different underlying mechanisms in place for the relationship between role conflict and job involvement. As conflict was reduced from the nonwork-to-work domain, job involvement went up as hypothesized, supporting the thesis that more resources are available for involvement when conflict is low. In the case of the work-to-nonwork interference, job involvement increased with increasing conflict, which implies that work-related psychological resources are tied to the level of conflict experienced in the domain.

Remaining hypothesized relationships were at least partially, if not fully supported. Moderating relationships were found across the subgroups as predicted. For example, individuals who were high nonwork/high work, displayed a stronger tendency to have higher job involvement with lower nonwork-to-work conflict. Those with high nonwork/low work salience seemed to be effected less by such interference, the relationship being a positive one, in

fact. The moderating influence of identity salience can be seen in this example as potentially intensifying the effect of reduced conflict when both domains are salient as compared to when only one is highly salient.

Moderation effects may also be seen to a lesser degree in the differential person domain fit relationships with job involvement. Opposite of the hypotheses, person-nonwork domain fit was negatively related to job involvement, strongly so across all subgroups, although less so for the high work subgroups. It seems as though the high salience of work buffers the relationship between job involvement and nonwork fit. The hypothesized positive relationship between person-nonwork domain fit and job involvement was significant for all subgroups, but weaker (.55) for the high/highs compared to all others (.80s). Once again, those with high levels of salience across the domains appear to have a lower threshold for involvement when the nonwork domain fit is lower.

In contrast to the fit indices, social support relationships with job involvement varied in the opposite direction by domain: social support for the nonwork domain was generally strongly positively related, whereas more social support for the work domain led to lower levels of job involvement. Within the subgroups, moderation effects distinguished the low nonwork/low work salience subgroups from the others, as that subgroup tended to be neutral to slightly negative while other subgroups exhibited stronger relationships. Disregarding the low/low distinction of essentially no effect, why does better fit

within a domain alternately decrease or increase job involvement? An attempt to address this finding will be made below.

Upon reviewing the empirical results of the differential relationships across and within the nonwork and work domains, it is clear that social support is a distinct construct worthy of its own paths in the conceptual model. Given the contradictory results found, it may be reasonable to separate the social support constructs even further in terms of targets (e.g., friends, family, coworkers, supervisors), and investigate differential support structure effects.

Differences in mean construct levels were also noted, both in subgroup differences and as patterns across all subgroups. Not surprisingly, mean levels of job involvement and work centrality were notably higher for those subgroups with high work salience than for those with lower work salience. Differential relationships for fit also occurred across subgroups: person-work domain fit was greater than person-nonwork domain fit for those who had high work salience, but person-nonwork domain fit was greater or equal to person-work domain fit for those who were the low work salience subgroups.

Patterns that remained consistent across all subgroups also emerged. The bidirectional role conflict measures differed in that work-to-nonwork interference was always greater than nonwork-to-work interference. This affirms the results found by other researchers when bidirectional measures of role conflict have been used (e.g., Frone et al., 1992a; Wiley, 1987). Domain specific social support also showed consistent differences in that support from

all targets was stronger for the nonwork domain than that for the work domain. This finding cannot be directly compared to previous work, but is not surprising from an anecdotal perspective. Even though support for the work domain is important (Thomas & Ganster, 1994), individuals generally feel that support structures for their nonwork lives are more stable, more expansive, and more genuine (O'Connor, 1992). Having these domain specific results for social support lays the groundwork for future research comparisons when both domains are incorporated into studies using social support measures.

How do alternative and additional theoretical considerations relate to the results of this study? Three general areas will now be reviewed. The first is associated with the nature of job involvement itself. Secondly, application of the scarcity and enhancement hypotheses is considered. Lastly, suppositions related to the theories of segmentation, compensation, and spillover are offered.

Is job involvement a desired state? The answer from this study becomes, "it depends". Ideally, and in the original perspective of this study, being job involved was considered a positive state in terms of overall life outcome. But being psychologically involved is not necessarily always an equally desired state for all individuals. Psychologically involvement can be associated with a positive affective state or a strongly negative one. Commonly, when the items used for assessment of job involvement are considered by researchers, a positive connotation is lent to overall involvement or importance as rated. But are those reasonable assumptions? Consider the case of a middle manager fearful of being

downsized at the point in his/her career that the next move up was expected, or the assembly line worker who has constant anxiety over the latest technological advancement that may render him/her unemployed: are these individuals any less psychologically involved in their jobs, or are their jobs unimportant to their overall lives or well-being? Even with the explicit conceptualization adopted for this study, the phenomenological perspective of the whether or not an individual wants to be job involved was never addressed. As such, the nature of the underlying involvement mechanism or motivation for involvement cannot be adequately recognized. An alternative thesis is that job involvement has an different optimum range for each individual. Another possibility is that the pattern of job involvement is a u-shaped curve, both for ideal life balance and overall organization success. Are those who are over-involved as well as those under-involved employees performing in a dysfunctional manner to the detriment of the organization in addition to implicitly retarding their nonwork lives? This results of this study can merely pose these alternatives and questions.

The consideration of the limitations of the scarcity (Goode, 1974) and enhancement (Sieber, 1974; Marks, 1977) hypotheses as represented by Baruch et al. (1987) are applicable granted this study's results. To focus exclusively on the number of roles while ignoring the quality and significance of them is not only unnecessarily restrictive but also, in essence, misleading. An individual with high nonwork and high work salience may be even more involved and capable

of high on (and off) the job performance than an individual who is only highly work salient at the expense of his/her nonwork life. Conversely, the high/high individual may suffer the demands of role overload and fail in both domains. A simple "1+1" does not automatically equal "2" in the multiple identity framework supported by this study. As the assessment of identity salience increases in complexity, perhaps via the integration of more than two identities and greater emphasis on the qualitative aspects, more theoretical consideration should be given to the mechanisms which underlie identity salience and accompanying relationships.

Other alternate hypotheses include the now historic concepts of segmentation, compensation, and spillover relating to the linkages between work and nonwork. These three propositions have traditionally competed with one another in terms of rationale for the interaction across the domains of work and nonwork. The segmented view consists of an individual compartmentalizing various aspects of life from one another (Dubin, 1973), such as denying or eliminating work-nonwork linkages. Compensation occurs when individuals compensate for deficiencies in one domain of life by making up for them in another, either in a supplemental or reactive manner (Kando & Summers, 1971). The carryover effect of influences from one domain to another constitutes the main notion of spillover (Parker, 1971).

Each proposition has had its cadre of supporters and empirical evidence to back up that support. However, the simplistic view that hindered the

competing scarcity and enhancement hypotheses has been in use when compensation, spillover, and segmentation theories have been invoked. It may be that all three theories hold true depending on the domain issues and the individual differences involved. The concept of identity salience as moderator may shed some light on the differential results found in previous studies, in addition to this one, where conflicting data at times supported spillover, at other times supporting compensation or segmentation. Why would segmentation be supported at some times, but not others? Under what circumstances, and with which types of participants does compensation explain the results better than spillover? Individual differences in the area of identity salience may contribute to understanding those results, particularly given the complexity of this study's findings.

Attempts to understand some of this study's findings in light of the above alternative theories is challenging. In the case of the positive relationship between work-to-nonwork interference and job involvement, it may be that the proposed directionality of the relationship is inherently wrong, or that it is more complete as a reciprocal paths view. If increased role conflict from work to nonwork causes increased job involvement, then a spillover effect may be taking place. As emphasis on the job increases, which may lead to increased conflict, job involvement may also increase.

The opposite findings for nonwork interference with work and job involvement, specifically with the high nonwork/high work subgroup, may

reflect more of an availability of resource issue. As the nonwork life is more demanding, psychological resources to be job involved may be decreased, particularly if the nonwork life is extremely salient. This does not imply, however, that actual effort or job performance is decreased, only that the psychological involvement has decreased. An alternative perspective is that greater stress occurs for individuals who have conflict between two highly salient identities (Greenhaus, 1988; Wiley, 1991). It is defensible that individuals who rate themselves "high/high" have to make a choice when the roles are in conflict, and the nonwork domain drives compromise in the work domain. Once again, the quantitative differences found in the path weights for nonwork-to-work interference across subgroups reflect the qualitative issues raised by Baruch et al. (1987) regarding the salience of the identity, not merely the existence of one.

Differential person-environment fit findings pose some interesting connections. The strong and uniform negative relationship between person-nonwork domain fit and job involvement begs to borrow from compensation theory's position that we compensate in one area of our lives due to what is missing in the other. The fact that all subgroups found increased fit in the nonwork life to predict decreased job involvement may lead to the consideration that a reciprocal relationship is more appropriate. Conceivably lower job involvement, for whatever reason, causes one to compensate by improving nonwork fit, or vice versa.

Support for identity salience as a moderator of person-work domain fit and job involvement may borrow from spillover theory. The strong positive relationship found for person-work domain fit and job involvement was hypothesized. Identity salience could be said to moderate this relationship only in the sense that the high/high subgroup showed less of a job involvement linkage to work fit. This could be an indication that those who have high salience in both areas of life are more dependent upon their nonwork lives to aid in predicting job involvement as compared to others who don't have "high/high" profiles (as in a spillover effect.)

The social support findings raise questions with respect to the fact that although stronger indications of perceived social support for the nonwork domain was related to greater job involvement, higher levels of social support for the work domain was inversely related. Explaining these divergent findings is precarious. There was evidence for identity salience moderation, particularly between the low/low subgroup and all others. It may be that for the negative relationship, when support for the work domain is strong, there is less of a need to be psychologically oriented to the job (e.g., less perceived stress directs the attribution of fewer psychological resources; Greenhaus, 1988). Conversely, it may be, with the exception of the low/low subgroup, that social support for the nonwork domain is a necessary condition for increased resources leading to job involvement.

Unfortunately, all of the non-hypothesized findings cannot be simply or easily understood. There are two additional findings in this study, though, that are less equivocal. First, this study adds to the literature by incorporating an omnibus measure of person-environment fit for each domain. Expansion of the idea of fit and its relationship to other constructs has the potential to be quite fruitful given its rich history and myriad applications. This study is the first of its type to simultaneously consider a fit index for both domains in a conceptual model. The differential results found for each domain provide evidence that separating the concept of fit for each domain may be essential. Analogous to the relationships between facet (e.g., job, spousal, friendship, etc.) satisfactions and overall life satisfaction, having domain specific measures of fit allowed a more thorough and complete picture of the predictor differences for job involvement.

Secondly, continued support for separation of work centrality and job involvement is offered by the results of this study. Significant mean differences between the constructs and different path weights for the relationship between job involvement and work centrality were found for identity salience subgroups. A related challenge to the given theoretical perspective of work centrality as normative and a generalized, stable set of beliefs might be offered. If identity salience can change relative to new roles or life span changes, so too perhaps work centrality. Anecdotal evidence exists that individuals go through life span changes which cause them to reevaluate the importance of generalized work in their lives (Sheehy, 1995). Only longitudinal studies can adequately address this

question. Until then, it is recommended that the constructs continue to be considered as separate and both be included in research of this nature.

In summary, with respect to the second research question, all hypotheses were at least partially if not fully supported with the exception of one. And despite the low sample size for the four identity salience subgroups, multigroup structural equation modeling demonstrated between group differences and better overall fit than the overall conceptual model: the results thus illustrating the potential importance of including multidimensional identity salience as a moderating factor as opposed to the sole reliance upon a universal structural model.

As an analytical contribution, the present study adds to the existing knowledge base for moderation assessment in structural equation modeling. Only 29% (8 of 28) of the studies conducted in organizational behavior and human resources management between 1988 and 1993 which incorporated multiple indicator, latent variable models used subgroups analysis to test for moderating relationships (Medsker et al., 1994). And, most of those studies used gender or other dichotomous measures to distinguish subgroups. This study adds to the research base where multigroup structural equation modeling is a small, but growing analytic technique.

The empirical testing of a comprehensive conceptual model of this level adds to the existing literature base in work-nonwork research. Although many have recommended the use of such cross domain complex models and

advocated the use of appropriate analytic techniques to evaluate them, the numbers of reported empirical tests doing so are still low. This study extends the research by its very existence, not only because of the integration of identity salience as a moderator, but because it adds to the growing body of such research.

Attention is now turned to the overall limitations and recommendations for future research.

General Limitations and Future Research

A study of this type has implicit limitations which were in existence at the outset of the research proposal. In addition, regardless of the care taken to minimize other threats to generalizability, several limitations were encountered as the study progressed.

Reliance upon a volunteer sample for a study of this type limits the generalizability of the results by default. While no clear data exist which highlight the differences encountered between volunteers and non-volunteers for this type of research (the reasons being obvious as to why this data is missing from the literature), it is reasonable to assume that those individuals who support studies such as this may differ in their responses from those who do not. Differences could exist in general personal affect, disposition, altruism, or self-awareness, or more important to the interpretation of the results of this study, in job-related factors such as involvement, role conflict, or person-work domain fit as participants were recruited in the workplace.

A second limitation related to the sample is the number of participants. Originally, a sample size of over 500 was desired. As the overall response rate became apparent, the lesser desirable level of 200 was accepted. The small sample size limits the potential of accepting the hypotheses with what might have been significant path weights or mean differences given a larger sample.

Lastly, the sample was not as demographically diverse as desired. Overrepresentation in the areas of married individuals, those with children, and those with large family incomes limits the generalizability of this study. The results of essentially strong family orientation in nonwork identity salience might have been challenged if greater numbers of single individuals without children were represented. Also, the levels of highly educated, professional and managerial level workers outweighed those of lower educational status and labor or clerical jobs, which decreased the diversity of the sample and perhaps the diversity of the work-related variable results.

Replication of this study with a larger and more diverse sample could demonstrate significance of those path weights which were strong yet not deemed statistically significant. Another potential benefit of an increased sample size is a clearer test of the identity salience subgroups. To that effect, a larger sample would allow the upper and lower quartiles of the salience distributions to be chosen for high and low subgroups. Mean splits of data where little variance exists (as was found for the most salient nonwork identity) may limit the "purity" of the construct, which in turn may limit the findings.

Still another option with a much larger sample size would be creation of identity salience subgroups by demographic subsets (e.g., parents versus those without children who are high nonwork/high work, etc.).

Another limitation of this study is the reliance on self-report, a ubiquitous critique of many studies with mono-method bias concerns (Cook & Campbell, 1979). While the identity and attitudinal data were intended to be self-report, and arguably appropriately so, concerns about general dispositional and affective responses are present in this type of research. It should be noted that the voluntary and anonymous nature of the respondents provided some security against falsely positive or embellished workplace responses.

With respect to the measurement of identity salience, new methods of assessing and quantifying the construct are needed. Other data collection strategies relative to identity salience for future research could include the presumption of other's perceptions as was done by White and Burke (1987), or actual polling of others in terms of their perceptions of the target's identities and identity salience. However, neither of these addresses the purpose of this research, which was concerned with the participant's own perception of his/her identity. Perhaps more appropriate for in-depth identity salience research, incorporation of intensive, qualitative assessments of the construct could occur where structured interviews, content analyses of more detailed responses, or existential phenomenological approaches may be integrated.

Addressing the crux of quantifying identity salience, two issues of complexity come to mind for future advancement opportunities. One is the area of life span changes. With the onset of the aging of the "baby-boomers", more attention is being paid to life span differences for a significant part of the population (Sheehy, 1995). How does identity salience change across the life span? Does it vary according to demographic occupancy in various life roles and gender and age classifications? If it doesn't vary at a value level, does variance occur in how an identity's salience is demonstrated outwardly depending upon life status? Or is it a combination of individual (e.g., motivation, personality, social experiences, etc.) and demographic differences? This area of inquiry is rich with opportunity for investigation relative to identity salience, particularly with the potential to integrate the existing knowledge base of developmental, personality, social and organizational psychology, not to mention other academic disciplines concerned with the human condition (e.g., child and family studies, medicine, social work, etc.).

The second issue is related to the complexity of the present study's conceptualization of the multidimensional nature of identity salience. For all intents and purposes, this study provided the most complex classification of identity salience found to date in the literature in this type of empirical study. Nevertheless, categorizing an individual by a two-by-two level classification system is very simplistic. Just what level of complexity is necessary or critical for multiple classifications of identity salience to be meaningful? As an example:

are individuals who were labeled "high/high" in this study who are only high in one nonwork domain (e.g., the parental role) qualitatively similar to those who have multiple high nonwork saliences (e.g., spouse, volunteer, marathon competitor), and is it reasonable to place them in the same classification?

Additional means of quantifying and qualifying individuals necessarily follows the enlargement of the assessment strategy of a particular identity's salience.

On a different note, the inclusion of data other than self report for the predictor constructs and outcomes would be a forward advance in future research. For example, time spent in role was used as the outcome by Stryker and Serpe (1994). Other's perceptions as to the role conflict actualized, supervisor's ratings of job performance, and biodata related to identity are examples of more quantitative data that could be incorporated into future research.

The actual complexity of the conceptual model itself was a limitation. While cross-domain complexity is necessary, simpler, more parsimonious models are the norm for structural equation modeling. This is due not only to the sample size necessary to adequately accommodate the indicator to latent construct statistics, but also to conclusively estimate parameters in a meaningful manner. A balance in future research should extend the type of model used in this study to include the minimum number of constructs in order to assess parsimonious models.

With that said, another limitation of the study is the omission of a number of variables known to predict job involvement. Job involvement has been predicted by numerous job characteristics which were not included in this study. Reasonably, the model was limited to concepts integral to the research goals, but prediction of outcomes is limited when known predictors are neglected in the models.

Other outcomes should also be investigated, not the least of which are involvements in the nonwork domain. Family involvement, parental success, volunteer leadership, life satisfaction, leisure pursuit performance, academic performance, job satisfaction, and job performance are but a few of the other outcomes which may be related to identity salience. Also, it may be that identity salience would have differential relationships depending upon the domain of the outcome. Studying multiple outcomes and their relationships relative to identity salience is another fertile opportunity.

An important limitation of this study and an area for future research is the enlargement of the concept of "work". This study restricted the definition of work to paid employment outside of the home. Alternative definitions of work and particularizations of the preferences and disdain for identity specific "work" (e.g., job duties, volunteer responsibilities, household accountabilities, etc.) provide opportunities for richer and deeper investigation into the relationship between identity salience and work. A case in point is the mother who relishes

the parental role until it is time to change a diaper; or the manager who delegates with joy, but cringes when he/she must give performance appraisals.

Perhaps the oversimplification of the concepts of work *and* identity in this study limited the findings, and broadening them would provide a wealth of opportunity for future research. More research relating to the number and quality of all the identities of an individual should occur. As mentioned above, this undertaking should include more of a qualitative assessment of identity salience than was accomplished by the rating of three descriptors (i.e., centrality, self-description, and value affirmation) per identity, particularly when a ceiling was set on the number of identities chosen.

Conclusion

In summary, the present study furnishes information regarding individual's multiple identities that did not previously exist in the literature: which identities are generated when free choice is allowed, how saliences of those identities vary within and across individuals, and how work and nonwork identities compare in terms of salience. As part of the second research goal, a conceptual model was developed and tested to enhance the current knowledge base of the work and nonwork predictors of job involvement via the integration of a more complex view of identity salience. This study also provides a novel approach to the study of cross-domain predictors of job involvement, that is, utilizing a powerful technique in multigroup structural equation modeling to demonstrate the moderating effect of identity salience. It is hoped that this

research will provide the baseline for future efforts to more fully investigate the nature of identity salience and its relationship to work and nonwork domain outcomes.

In conclusion, the findings of this study draw attention to the potentially misleading approach taken by much psychological research: the specification of a parsimonious, but perhaps inadequately specified model forced across all types of people. Gender and other demographic differentiators have been used in attempts to better explain the differences found in relationships among variables of interest regarding human experiences. To limit moderation or differential predictors to simple demographics (e.g., as all women, all parents, all workers, etc. are not equivalent) is promoting simple classification where acknowledging other forms of individuality may prove more fruitful. Employment of the "one-size-fits-all" approach may well contribute to improving the limited predictive findings which have plagued psychology as compared to other sciences. Investigating variations in identity salience, coupled with the usage of more appropriate and more powerful analytic techniques is this study's meager attempt to enhance the knowledge base. Incorporation of these concepts is but one way, albeit a probable potent means, to advance more complete comprehension of the human condition.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE DISTRIBUTION METHODS AND RESPONSE RATES

Table A.1. Questionnaire Distribution Methods^a and Response Rates.

Organization	Means of Distribution	Approximate Potential Participants	Participants	Response Rate
1	Questionnaires were made available by top manager. Locked return boxes were used.	250	8	3%
2	Researcher made personal request of each manager who handled distribution. Completed forms were left at the guard entrance.	100	39	39%
3	Email participation notice was given by researcher and office manager. Returned to secretary in sealed envelopes.	110	13	12%
4	Individual letters went out from researcher and top manager. Stamped return envelopes were provided.	80	37	46%
5	Office manager informed by bulletin board notice. Stamped envelopes were made available.	30	9	30%
6	Manager handed out questionnaires in staff meeting. Return envelopes were provided.	15	8	53%
7	Individual letters went out from researcher and top manager. Return envelopes were provided to leave with the company.	150	37	25%
8	Company newsletter was used to announce. Return envelopes were available for mailing to the researcher.	500	32	6%
9	Questionnaires were made available by top manager. Locked return boxes used.	50	18	36%

^aAll individuals were given the researcher's cover letter which was attached to the questionnaire.

APPENDIX B
STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

Identity Salience and the Domains of Work and Non-Work

Research Project Questionnaire

**The University of Tennessee, Knoxville
Department of Psychology**

The attached questionnaire is a part of a research project investigating how people who are employed view their work and non-work lives. By completing the questionnaire, your responses will be combined with those of other employees in service, health care, manufacturing, and government organizations. The research project is part of the doctoral dissertation of Jerri L. Yates, a graduate student in psychology at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. The project is being supervised by Dr. John W. Lounsbury.

Participation in this project is completely voluntary and in no way is required by the company for which you work. Your results will not ever be seen by anyone in your organization. For organizations which have more than 10 participants, overall summarized responses may be shared if the company, or you, request it. However, those summaries will not use any identifying information you complete. Please do not put your name on this form in any place as we are not studying individual responses, only summaries of numbers of people. We will not be able to provide feedback on any individual's personal response.

The questionnaire will take between 30 minutes and 1 hour for most people to complete. It is not necessary to complete all the questions in one sitting. There are several types of questions within the survey, but all require your personal opinion, not those of anyone else. Your candid, honest responses are important to the validity of this research. After responses have been entered into a computer by a clerical support person, this hardcopy of the responses will be destroyed.

Your supervisor or a manager at your workplace will explain to you how to return the completed questionnaire to insure confidentiality. If you have any questions about the research, or if you would like to have a summary of the overall results, please contact either John Lounsbury, Ph.D. or Jerri L. Yates at 588-8252. Results should be available by August, 1996.

We appreciate your participation in this project. The completion of this research is dependent upon the support of individuals such as yourself. Thank you for your time and effort.

This survey will ask you about 3 general types of questions:

- 1. Questions about the roles you occupy in your life.**
- 2. Your perceptions of work in general and your current job in particular.**
- 3. Perceptions of your life outside of your work environment.**

At the end of the survey, there are also some questions which will be used to group responses into classifications as we are interested in summaries of responses from different categories of people, not your personal responses as an individual.

For the first series of questions, you will be asked about your social identities or "roles". Roles are labels that people can use to describe themselves. For example, some people identify themselves as skiers; others as hunters or chess players. Skier, hunter, and chess player are all identities or roles that could be grouped into a category called "recreational". Listed below are 7 categories. For each category, descriptions and examples are given. Please read the descriptions and the examples.

- Associational: labels for membership in clubs, groups, organizations in which you formally or informally participate (member, volunteer, student, etc.)
- Kinship: labels that describe relationships to family members (father, sister, aunt, etc.)
- Occupational: labels that describe the work you do for pay (employee, union member, manager, etc.)
- Acquaintanceship: labels that describe acquaintanceships with people (friend, peer, coworker, etc.)
- Recreational: labels that describe what you do in your leisure time (skier, hunter, chess player, etc.)
- Life Orientations: labels that describe various life orientations (Republican, Baptist, Pet Owner, etc.)
- Romantic: labels that describe very close, personal relationships (husband, girlfriend, fiancée, etc.)

We would like you to list **specific** roles (like father, student, etc.) that you occupy in your life, including those that are important to you and those that are not. Please choose at least 5 and at most 9 roles. The roles may come from any of the categories listed above, and you may choose as many roles from a single category that you wish.

Please list the 5 to 9 roles in the following spaces.

1. _____	4. _____	7. _____
2. _____	5. _____	8. _____
3. _____	6. _____	9. _____

Now we would like you to rate all the roles you chose using the following sets of phrases. **Please write each role you are rating in the space provided.** Even if you did not choose the **worker** role on the previous page, we have already chosen it for you because part of this study is assessing your attitudes about your job and work in general. This will give you a potential of 10 total roles to evaluate.

For each option, check which of the 7 boxes best describes your opinion. If the phrase on the right better reflects your viewpoint, check one of the boxes on the right. If your viewpoint is better reflected by the phrase to the left, check one of the boxes on the left. The closer the checked box is to the phrase, the greater the agreement with the phrase. If you can't decide which phrase is best for you, check the middle box, which indicates that you are neutral on the issue.

Role 1. Worker

Central to who I am ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Not central to who I am
Describes me ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not describe me
Affirms my values ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not affirm my values

Role 6. _____

Central to who I am ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Not central to who I am
Describes me ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not describe me
Affirms my values ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not affirm my values

Role 2. _____

Central to who I am ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Not central to who I am
Describes me ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not describe me
Affirms my values ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not affirm my values

Role 7. _____

Central to who I am ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Not central to who I am
Describes me ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not describe me
Affirms my values ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not affirm my values

Role 3. _____

Central to who I am ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Not central to who I am
Describes me ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not describe me
Affirms my values ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not affirm my values

Role 8. _____

Central to who I am ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Not central to who I am
Describes me ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not describe me
Affirms my values ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not affirm my values

Role 4. _____

Central to who I am ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Not central to who I am
Describes me ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not describe me
Affirms my values ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not affirm my values

Role 9. _____

Central to who I am ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Not central to who I am
Describes me ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not describe me
Affirms my values ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not affirm my values

Role 5. _____

Central to who I am ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Not central to who I am
Describes me ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not describe me
Affirms my values ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not affirm my values

Role 10. _____

Central to who I am ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Not central to who I am
Describes me ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not describe me
Affirms my values ☐☐☐☐☐☐ Does not affirm my values

Now, we would like you to think about meeting people for the first time in various settings. You want to tell them about yourself so that they will really know you, but can only tell them one thing about yourself at a time. Think about the roles you just rated. Again, we have included the **worker** role for you, and you are to use the other roles that you previously chose.

Please list the roles you chose in the following blocks for your reference.

1. Worker	2.	3.	4.	5.
6.	7.	8.	9.	10.

First, think about meeting a new neighbor. On the first line, write the role that you would tell him/her about first. Then fill in the second role, and so on until you have written in all the roles (the number you rated above in each of the 3 questions) in the order you would talk about them in that setting. Please continue through the 4 settings listed.

Meeting a new neighbor

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

Meeting a friend of a close friend

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

Meeting someone at a party

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

Meeting a new employee at your company

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

Now we will ask you questions about various work and non-work aspects of your life. Some of the questions refer to the concept of work in general regardless of how you feel about the job you currently have. Others of the questions deal only with your present job. Please read the items carefully and answer based on the specific focus of the question.

As you read each of the following sets of phrases, think about how you feel most of the time. For each option, check which of the 7 boxes best describes you. If the phrase on the right better reflects your view of yourself, check one of the boxes on the right. If your view of yourself is better reflected by the phrase to the left, check one of the boxes on the left. The closer the checked box is to the phrase, the greater the agreement with the phrase. If you can't decide which phrase best describes you, check the middle box, which indicates that you feel neutral.

- | | | |
|--|--|---|
| I have the level of responsibility for people and situations that I want in my life outside of work. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I have more responsibility for people/situations than I want in my life outside of work. |
| I have the exact type and perfect amount of nonwork interests and activities I want in my life. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I don't have the right type and ideal amount of nonwork interests and activities I want in my life. |
| I am happy with the number and variety of friends I have in my life. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I don't have the number and types of friends I want in my life. |
| I have the social opportunities I want in my life. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I am unsatisfied with the social opportunities I have. |
| I have the recreational/free-time options I want in my life. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I don't have the recreational/free-time options I want in my life. |
| I have my idea of the perfect family situation (for example, a spouse, living close to parents, having children, etc.) | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I wish I had a different family situation other than the one I currently have. |
| I have obtained the educational level I desire in my life. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I don't have the education I would like to have in my life. |
| I have the level of respect from people that I want in my life outside of work. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I don't have the respect from others that I want in my life outside of work. |
| I want to have a job and work for pay. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I have to have a job, but would really prefer not to work. |
| I have the type of work schedule in my current job that I want. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I don't have the type of work schedule I want. |
| I have the kind of job I desire in my life. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I don't have the kind of job I'd like to have. |
| The level of job responsibility I have is what I really want to have. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I'd prefer to have either more or less job responsibility than I currently have. |
| I have the education/training to have the job I most want in my life. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I do not have the education/training for the job I would ideally like to have. |
| I would change jobs if I had the opportunity. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I would not plan to leave this job even if I could. |
| In my job, I have the type of relationships with people that I want to have. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | In my job, I find that relationships with others are not what I would ideally like to have. |
| I have the level of respect from people that I want in my non-work life. | ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ | I don't have the respect from others that I want in my non-work life. |

Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days in your life?

The worst they could possibly be ☐☐☐☐☐☐ The most outstanding they could possibly be

**FOR THE NEXT SERIES OF QUESTIONS, PLEASE USE THE FOLLOWING SCALE.
CIRCLE THE NUMBER TO INDICATE YOUR RESPONSE.**

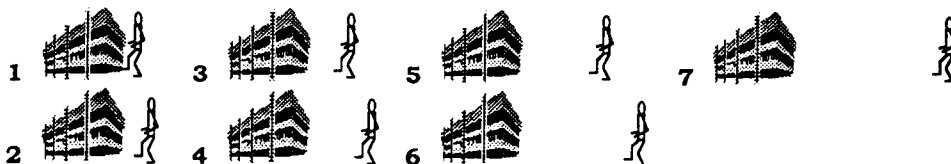
**1 = none or not at all; 2 = very little; 3 = some, but not a lot; 4 = a medium amount;
5 = quite a bit; 6 = a tremendous amount; 7 = as much as is humanly possible**

- How much choice do you have over when you begin and end each workday or each workweek? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- To what extent can you choose to do some of your work at home instead of your usual place of employment? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- How much choice do you have over when you take vacations or days off? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- How much control do you have over when you can take a few hours off? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- To what extent are you expected to limit the number of times you make or receive personal phone calls while you work? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- How much choice do you have in making unanticipated nonwork related arrangements (e.g., during snow days or unexpected job delays)? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- In general, how much control do you have over the way you balance working and nonwork issues? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Please answer the following questions with each of the 4 groups of people in mind: your supervisor(s), other people at work, friends, and family.

	Supervisor(s)	Coworkers	Friends	Family
How much does each group of these people go out of their way to do things to make your nonwork life easier for you?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
How much is each of the following groups of people willing to listen to your problems dealing with your life outside of work?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
How much does each group of these people go out of their way to do things to make your work life easier for you?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
How much is each of the following groups of people willing to listen to your work-related problems?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Below are 7 diagrams. In each diagram there is a person, representing yourself, and a building, representing your present job. The figures are placed at different distances from each other, depicting how close or how far you are from your present job. Distance in the diagram does not represent physical distance from your present job. Instead, being close to your present job implies that your present job is central to your life and being far from your present job imply that your present job is not central to your life. In your opinion, how far are you from your present job? Please circle the appropriate number.



FOR THE NEXT SERIES OF QUESTIONS, PLEASE USE THE FOLLOWING SCALE:

**1 = never; 2 = very rarely; 3 = sometimes, but not often; 4 = about half the time;
5 = more than average; 6 = very often; 7 = all the time**

- ◆ My friends give me the moral support I need. 1234567
- ◆ My family gives me the moral support I need. 1234567
- ◆ I rely on my friends for emotional support. 1234567
- ◆ I rely on my family for emotional support. 1234567
- ◆ There is a friend I could go to if I were just feeling down, without feeling funny about it later. 1234567
- ◆ There is someone in my family I could go to if I were just feeling down, without feeling funny about it later. 1234567
- ◆ My friends are sensitive to my personal needs. 1234567
- ◆ My family is sensitive to my personal needs. 1234567
- ◆ My friends are good at helping me solve problems. 1234567
- ◆ My family is good at helping me solve problems. 1234567

- My supervisor would :**
- ◆ Support me if I needed to switch schedules (hours, overtime hours, vacation) to accommodate my nonwork-related responsibilities. 1234567
- ◆ Support me if I needed to juggle tasks or duties to accommodate my nonwork responsibilities. 1234567
- ◆ Listen to my problems having to do with my nonwork life. 1234567
- ◆ Be critical of my efforts to combine work and nonwork . 1234567
- ◆ Share ideas or advice relating to nonwork issues. 1234567
- ◆ Hold my nonwork responsibilities against me. 1234567
- ◆ Help me to figure out how to solve a problem. 1234567
- ◆ Be understanding or sympathetic of nonwork problems. 1234567
- ◆ Show resentment of my needs as a person outside of the workplace. 1234567

- ◆ How often does your job or career interfere with your responsibilities at home, such as yard work, cooking, cleaning, repairs, shopping, paying the bills, or child care? 1234567
- ◆ How often does your job or career keep you from spending the amount of time you would like to spend on nonwork activities with your family, friends, or by yourself? 1234567

- ◆ How often does your home life interfere with your responsibilities at work, such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, or working overtime? 1234567
- ◆ How often does your home life keep you from spending the amount of time you would need to or like to spend on job or career-related activities? 1234567

- In your job:**
- ◆ Do you have too much work to do? 1234567
- ◆ Do you feel that you have a lot of responsibility for the work of others? 1234567
- ◆ Do you work very hard—either physically or mentally? 1234567
- ◆ Are you under pressure to keep up with new ways of doing things? 1234567
- ◆ Do you have to decide things where mistakes could be quite costly? 1234567
- ◆ Do you work too many hours? 1234567
- ◆ Do you have too little help or equipment to get the job done well? 1234567
- ◆ Do you have important responsibilities? 1234567

Please select the response which best describes you and your day-to-day priorities:

- ☐ I am primarily a nonwork-oriented person.
- ☐ I am a nonwork-oriented and work-oriented person but lean a bit more towards nonwork.
- ☐ I am a work-oriented and nonwork-oriented person.
- ☐ I am a work-oriented and nonwork-oriented person but lean a bit more towards work-oriented.
- ☐ I am primarily a work-oriented person.

FOR THE NEXT SERIES OF QUESTIONS, PLEASE USE THE FOLLOWING SCALE:

1 = Extremely dissatisfied; 2 = dissatisfied; 3 = somewhat dissatisfied; 4 = neither satisfied or dissatisfied; 5 = somewhat satisfied; 6 = satisfied; 7 = extremely satisfied

- How satisfied are you with the city or place you live? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- How satisfied are you with your friendships? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- How satisfied are you with your family situation? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- How satisfied are you with your nonworking activities, hobbies and so on? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- How satisfied are you with your health and physical condition? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- How satisfied are you with the recognition you get from accomplishments in your personal life? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
- In general, how satisfied are you finding yourself with the ways you are spending your life these days? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job?

- ☐ very satisfied ☐ somewhat satisfied ☐ not too satisfied ☐ not at all satisfied

If you were free to go into any type of job you wanted, what would your choice be?

- ☐ would want the job you have now ☐ would want to retire and not work at all
☐ would prefer some other job to the job you have now

Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide?

- ☐ decide without hesitation to take the job ☐ have some second thoughts ☐ decide definitely not to take the same job

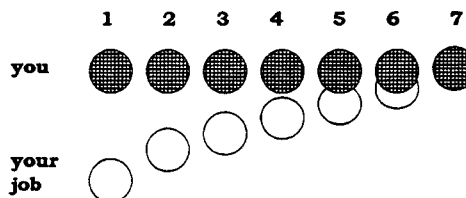
In general how well would you say that your job measures up to the sort of job you wanted when you took it?

- ☐ very much like the job you wanted ☐ somewhat like the job you wanted ☐ not very much like the job you wanted

If a good friend of yours told you he/she was interested in working in a job like yours for your employer, what would you tell him/her?

- ☐ would strongly recommend it ☐ would have doubts about recommending it ☐ would advise the friend against it

To the right are 7 groups of 2 circles. One circle represents your present job and the other circle represents yourself. The circles overlap in various degrees. At one extreme (option 1), the two circles are separate, representing you being separate from your present job. At the other extreme (option 7), the two circles are totally overlapping, representing you being totally involved with your present job. Select the box which most accurately depicts your relationship to your present job and circle the appropriate number.



FOR THE NEXT SERIES OF QUESTIONS, PLEASE USE THE FOLLOWING SCALE:

**1 = very strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = somewhat disagree;
4 = neither disagree or agree; 5 = somewhat agree; 6 = agree; 7 = very strongly agree**

- ◆ Having work/a career that is interesting and exciting to me is my most important life goal. 1234567
- ◆ I expect my job/career to give me more real satisfaction than anything else I do. 1234567
- ◆ Work should be only a small part of one's life. 1234567
- ◆ Building a name and reputation for myself through work/a career is not one of my life goals. 1234567
- ◆ Life is worth living only when people get absorbed in work. 1234567
- ◆ It is important to me that I have a job/career in which I can achieve something of importance. 1234567
- ◆ It is important to me to feel successful in my work/career. 1234567
- ◆ The most important things that happen in life involve work. 1234567
- ◆ Work should be considered central to life. 1234567
- ◆ In my view, an individual's personal life goals should be work-oriented. 1234567

- ◆ I want to work, but I do not want to have a demanding career. 1234567
- ◆ I expect to make as many sacrifices as are necessary in order to advance my work/career. 1234567
- ◆ I value being involved in a career and expect to devote the time and effort needed to develop it. 1234567
- ◆ I expect to devote a significant amount of my time to building my career and developing the skills necessary to advance in my career. 1234567
- ◆ I expect to devote whatever time and energy it takes to move up in my job/career field. 1234567
- ◆ The most important things that happen to me involve my present job. 1234567
- ◆ To me, my job is a very large part of who I am. 1234567
- ◆ I am very much involved personally in my job. 1234567
- ◆ Most of my interests are centered around my job. 1234567
- ◆ My job is a very important part of my life. 1234567

- ◆ After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do. 1234567
- ◆ On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests. 1234567
- ◆ My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home. 1234567
- ◆ My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends. 1234567

- ◆ I'm often too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home. 1234567
- ◆ My personal demands are so great that it takes away from my work. 1234567
- ◆ My superiors and peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work. 1234567
- ◆ My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work. 1234567

- ◆ Success in the things I do away from the job is more important to my opinion of myself than is success in my work or career. 1234567
- ◆ To me, my work is only a small part of who I am. 1234567
- ◆ If I had to choose, I would much prefer that others not judge me for the kind of job I hold, but rather by my off-the-job accomplishments. 1234567
- ◆ The best description of who I am would not be based on the kind of job I have. 1234567
- ◆ My job is something I have to do to earn a living -- most of my real interests are centered outside of my job. 1234567

Finally, we have some questions that will be used to summarize the responses of groups of people. Even though we do not know your name, we do not want to you think that this data will be used in any way to try to identify you specifically. If answering a particular item is uncomfortable for you, then just ignore that item. The items will be used to allow us to summarize your answers by a variety of categories, so we hope that you will complete them.

PLEASE CIRCLE YOUR ANSWER OR FILL IN THE BLANK PROVIDED.

Your Gender: male or female

Your Age in years:

less than 20
20 to 29
30 to 39
40 to 49
50 to 59
60 to 69
70+

Education:

High School graduate or GED
some college
Associates degree
Bachelors degree
some graduate work
MA/MBA/JD
Ph.D./MD

Job Type or Occupation:

Professional or technical
Managerial
Sales
Clerical/Administrative
Service (food, health, personal)
Manufacturing/Operating
Other _____

Job Tenure (years):

less than 1
1 to 2
3 to 4
5 to 9
10 to 19
20+

Working Experience (years):

less than 1
1 to 2
3 to 4
5 to 9
10 to 19
20+

Marital Status:

never married
widowed
separated
divorced
married
living as married

Number of Children:

no children
1
2
3
4+

Youngest child's age:

no children
over 18 years
13 to 18 years
6 to 12 years
less than 6 years

Personal income:

Under \$10,000
\$10,000 to 19,999
\$20,000 to 29,999
\$30,000 to 39,999
\$40,000 to 49,999
\$50,000 to 59,999
\$60,000 to 70,000
More than \$70,000

Family income:

Under \$10,000
\$10,000 to 19,999
\$20,000 to 29,999
\$30,000 to 39,999
\$40,000 to 49,999
\$50,000 to 59,999
\$60,000 to 70,000
More than \$70,000

If married or living as married: Is your spouse employed? YES or NO. If YES, full time or part time?

Do you have responsibilities for adult relatives or friends who are elderly or disabled? YES or NO

Do you have responsibilities for children who have special needs? YES or NO

How many hours per week do you spend on paid work activities? _____

How many hours per week are you normally scheduled to work? _____

For the items below, please circle all that you have access to in your job

Work place support policies:

mandated vacation
on-demand vacation
telecommuting/work from home
job sharing
unpaid leave of absense options
dependent and health care funds
Flexitime: (could change work schedules or shifts)
daily
weekly
monthly
as needed

Family-supportive Policies

Information and referral services for:

child care
care for sick children
special care services (elderly, handicapped)

Dependent care services:

on-site day care
on-site care for sick children
off-site day care
off-site care for sick children
in-home nurse for care of sick children
before or after school adult-supervised programs
other special care services (elderly, handicapped)

APPENDIX C
QUESTIONNAIRE SCALES

IDENTITY SALIENCE

Role Identities (adapted from Jackson, 1981).

For the first series of questions, you will be asked about your social identities or "roles". Roles are labels that people can use to describe themselves. For example, some people identify themselves as skiers; others as hunters or chess players. Skier, hunter, and chess player are all identities or roles that could be grouped into a category labeled "recreational". Listed below are 7 categories. For each category, descriptions and examples are given. Please read the descriptions and the examples.

Associational: labels for membership in clubs, groups, organizations in which you formally or informally participate (member, volunteer, student, etc.)

Kinship: labels that describe relationships to family members (father, sister, aunt, etc.)

Occupational: labels that describe the work you do for pay (employee, union member, manager, etc.)

Acquaintanceship: labels that describe acquaintanceships with people (friend, peer, coworker, etc.)

Recreational: labels that describe what you do in your leisure time (skier, hunter, chess player, etc.)

Life Orientations: labels that describe life orientations (Republican, Baptist, Pet Owner, etc.)

Romantic: labels that describe very close, personal relationships (husband, girlfriend, fiancée, etc.)

We would like you to list roles that you occupy in your life, including those that are important to you and those that are not. Please choose a minimum of five and a maximum of nine roles. The roles may come from any of the categories listed above, and you may choose as many roles from a single category that you wish. Please list the five to nine roles in the following spaces.

Identity Salience (adapted from Hoelter, 1983, 1985; Shamir 1992); $\alpha = .82$ to $.94$.

Now we would like you to rate all the roles you chose using the following sets of phrases. Please write each role you are rating in the space provided. Even if you did not choose the worker role on the previous page, we have already chosen it for you because part of this study is assessing your attitudes about your job and work in general. This will give you a potential of 10 total roles to evaluate.

- | | | |
|------------------------|--------|---------------------------|
| 1. Central to who I am | versus | Not central to who I am |
| 2. Describes me | versus | Does not describe me |
| 3. Affirms my values | versus | Does not affirm my values |

PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT

Person-Nonwork Domain Fit

1a. I have the level of responsibility for people and situations that I want in my life outside of work

1b. I have more responsibility for people/situations that I want in my life outside of work.

2a. I have the exact type and perfect amount of nonwork interests and activities I want in my life.

2b. I don't have the right type and ideal amount of nonwork interests and activities I want in my life.

- 3a. I am happy with the number and variety of friends I have in my life.
- 3b. I don't have the number and variety of friends I want in my life.

- 4a. I have the social opportunities I want in my life.
- 4b. I am unsatisfied with the social opportunities I have.

- 5a. I have the recreational and free-time options I want in my life.
- 5b. I don't have the recreational and free-time options I want in my life.

- 6a. I have my idea of the perfect family situation in my life (for example, a significant other, my own children, living closer to relatives, etc.)
- 6b. I wish I had a different family situation other than the one I currently have in my life.

- 7a. I have obtained the educational level I desire in my life.
- 7b. I don't have the education I would like to have in my life.

- 8a. I have the level of respect from people that I want in my life outside of work.
- 8b. I don't have the respect from others that I want in my life outside of work.

- 9a. I have the level of respect from people that I want in my nonwork life.
- 9b. I don't have the respect from others that I want in my nonwork life.

Social Support for Nonwork (adapted from Greenglass et al., 1988); $\alpha = .95$.

Please answer the following questions with each of the 4 groups of people in mind: your supervisor(s), other people at work, friends, and family.

1. How much does each group of these people go out of their way to do things to make your nonwork life easier for you?
2. How much is each of the following groups of people willing to listen to your problems dealing with your life outside of work?

Perceived Social Support - Friends/Family (adapted from Procidano & Heller, 1983); $\alpha = .90$ for friends and $\alpha = .88$ for family with yes, no, I don't know.

1. My friends give me the moral support I need.
2. I rely on my friends for emotional support
3. There is a friend I could go to if I were just feeling down, without feeling funny about it later.
4. My friends are sensitive to my personal needs.
5. My friends are good at helping me solve problems.
6. My family gives me the moral support I need.
7. I rely on my family for emotional support
8. There is someone in my family I could go to if I were just feeling down, without feeling funny about it later.
9. My family is sensitive to my personal needs.
10. My family is good at helping me solve problems.

Supervisor Support (adapted from Thomas & Ganster, 1995); $\alpha = .83$.

My supervisor would :

1. Support me if I needed to switch schedules (hours, overtime hours, vacation) to accommodate my nonwork-related responsibilities.
2. Support me if I needed to juggle tasks or duties to accommodate my nonwork responsibilities.

3. Listen to my problems having to do with my nonwork life.
4. Be critical of my efforts to combine work and nonwork .
5. Share ideas or advice relating to nonwork issues.
6. Hold my nonwork responsibilities against me.
7. Help me to figure out how to solve a problem.
8. Be understanding or sympathetic of nonwork problems.
9. Show resentment of my needs as a person outside of the workplace.

Person-Work Domain Fit

- 1a. I want to have a job.
- 1b. I have to have a job, but would really prefer not to work.

- 2a. I have the type of work schedule in my current job that I want.
- 2b. I don't have the type of work schedule I want.

- 3a. I have the kind of job I desire in my life.
- 3b. I don't have the kind of job I'd like to have.

- 4a. The level of job responsibility I have is what I really want to have.
- 4b. I'd prefer to have either more or less job responsibility than I currently have.

- 5a. I have the education/training to have the job I most want in my life.
- 5b. I do not have the education/training for the job I would ideally have.

- 6a. I would change jobs if I had the opportunity.
- 6b. I would not plan to leave this jobs even if I could.

- 7a. I have the type of relationships with people in my workplace that I want to have.
- 7b. I find that the relationships with others in my workplace are not what I would ideally like to have.

Social Support for Work (Greenglass et al., 1988); $\alpha=.95,.92,.89$.

Please answer the following questions with the following 4 groups of people in mind: your supervisor(s), other people at work, friends, and family.

1. How much does each group of these people go out of their way to do things to make your work life easier for you?
2. How much is each of the following groups of people willing to listen to your work-related problems?

ROLE CONFLICT

Work to Nonwork Interference (Gutek, Searle, Klepa, 1991); $\alpha=.81$.

1. After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.
2. On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.
3. My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home.
4. My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends.

Work to Nonwork Conflict (adapted from Frone, Russell, Cooper, 1992); $\alpha=.76$.

1. How often does your job or career interfere with your responsibilities at home, such as yard work, cooking, cleaning, repairs, shopping, paying the bills, or child care?
2. How often does your job or career keep you from spending the amount of time you would like to spend with on nonwork activities with your family, friends, or by yourself?

Nonwork to Work Interference (Gutek, Searle, Klepa, 1991); $\alpha=.83$.

1. I'm often too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home.
2. My personal demands are so great that it takes away from my work.
3. My superiors and peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work.
4. My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.

Nonwork to Work Conflict (adapted from Frone, Russell, Cooper, 1992); $\alpha=.56$.

1. How often does your home life interfere with your responsibilities at work, such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, or working overtime?
2. How often does your home life keep you from spending the amount of time you would need to or like to spend on job or career-related activities?

WORK CENTRALITY

Work Involvement (adapted from Kanungo, 1982); $\alpha=.75$.

1. The most important things that happen in life involve work.
2. Work should be only a small part of one's life. (-)
3. Work should be considered central to life.
4. In my view, an individual's personal life goals should be work-oriented.
5. Life is worth living only when people get absorbed in work.

Work Alienation (Passino, 1983; modified from Shepard, 1972); $\alpha=.79$.

1. Success in the things I do away from the job is more important to my opinion of myself than is success in my work career.
2. To me, my work is only a small part of who I am.
3. If I had to choose, I would much prefer that others not judge me for the kind of job I hold, but rather by my off-the-job accomplishments.
4. The best description of who I am would not be based on the kind of job I have.
5. My job is something I have to do to earn a living – most of my real interests are centered outside of my job.

JOB INVOLVEMENT

Job Involvement (Frone, Russell, & Cooper 1995); $\alpha=.87$.

1. The most important things that happen to me involve my present job.
2. To me, my job is a very large part of who I am.
3. I am very much involved personally in my job.
4. Most of my interests are centered around my job.
5. My job is a very important part of my life.

Graphic Format for Job Involvement (Kanungo, 1982); $\alpha=.70$.

1. Person and building

Below are 7 diagrams. In each diagram there is a person, representing yourself, and a building, representing your present job. The figures are placed at different distances from each other, depicting how close or how far one is from your present job. Distance in the diagram does not represent physical distance from your present job. Instead, being close to your present job implies that your present job is central to your life and being far from your present job imply that your present job is not central to your life. In your opinion, how far are you from your present job? Please circle the appropriate number.

2. Circles

To the right are 7 groups of two circles. One circle represents your present job and the other circle represents yourself. The circles overlap in various degrees. At one extreme (option 1), the two circles are separate, representing you being separate from your present job. At the other extreme (option 7), the two circles are totally overlapping, representing you being totally involved with your present job. Select the box which most accurately depicts your relationship to your present job and circle the appropriate number.

VITA

Jerri Leigh Yates was born in Idaho Falls, Idaho on July 14, 1963. She moved to Tennessee, her parents native state, during her first year of life. The eldest of three children, the family remained in Tennessee following a brief stay in Norfolk, Virginia when she was between 2 and 3 years old. Attending public schools in Dickson and Benton Counties in Tennessee, she graduated first in her class at Camden Central High School in 1981. She entered Vanderbilt University in Nashville following high school and was subsequently awarded a Bachelor of Engineering Degree in Mechanical and Materials Engineering in 1985.

In June of 1985, she moved to East Tennessee to work for the Tennessee Operations of ALCOA. After working as an engineer and a manager, she elected to return to school in 1992 to pursue a doctorate in psychology at the University of Tennessee in Knoxville. During that time, she was a research assistant for four years with the Children's Mental Health Services Research Center, an NIMH-funded center in the College of Social Work. She also served as an instructor in the UT Evening School. Her doctoral degree was received December, 1996.

She is presently working with Resource Associates, Inc. as an organizational psychologist. Married with one daughter, her family plans to continue to make their home in the Knoxville area.