

# How Involuntary Part-Time Employment is correlated with Life Satisfaction in the U.S.A.

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**Abstract**— This pilot research gathers data on self-reported well-being and calculated demographic correlations pertaining to the current involuntary part-time (IPT) employment group in the United States. Online respondents were surveyed using a cluster sampling technique on the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) created by Pavot and Diener. The 156 eligible responses were then correlated with a demographic questionnaire to determine the current characteristics of the IPT population. A positive Pearson correlation between SWLS scores of IPT employees and the number of fringe benefits that the employee had access to indicated that as the number of fringe benefits decreases, the life satisfaction scores of IPT employees also decrease. Additionally, this study found that as age increased, participation in IPT employment decreased.

**Index Terms**— United States, Labor Market, Well-being, Involuntary Part-time, Fringe Benefits

## I. CHAPTER 1

### A. Introduction

Life satisfaction is the component of employee well-being that directly correlates to job performance (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). However, part-time workers' associated well-being has not been thoroughly researched post-2015, after the Affordable Care Act (A.C.A.) took effect and changed the labor market landscape in the United States (Even & Macpherson, 2019). Current labor market conditions vary by country and affect employees' self-professed life satisfaction ratings (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). Contrary to popular belief, a new study released in 2019 revealed that the A.C.A. did cause an increase in involuntary part-time employment by an excess of approximately 700,000 individuals. (Even & Macpherson, 2019). There is a clear link that fringe benefits increase employee job satisfaction, improves work performance, lowers turnover, lowers absenteeism, and improves overall organizational performance (Ko & Hur, 2014; Teti & Andriotto, 2013). Unfortunately, fringe benefits decrease with part-time employment in the United States (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015). Furthermore, racial minorities are disproportionately affected by involuntary part-time employment (Cunningham, 2018). Therefore, the question remains, how does the lack of fringe benefits available to involuntary part-time workers affect their overall well-being as measured by life satisfaction?

### B. Background

The labor market in the United States has changed drastically over the last ten years due to new federal government regulations and significant shifts in how consumers access goods and services. The passing of the A.C.A. in 2010 altered the regulatory landscape for larger organizations (Even & Macpherson, 2019). Rising health insurance costs and the Internal Revenue Service's non-discrimination rules inspire organizations to cut costs by labeling a larger pool of workers as part-time to avoid offering health insurance benefits (Schultz & Doorn, 2011). There is a direct correlation between rising healthcare costs and part-time workers' use, creating a potentially adverse impact on the labor market (Schultz & Doorn, 2011).

The 2019 pandemic, Covid-19, also altered the consumer landscape and caused many organizations to reduce costs and lay off workers (Groshen, 2020). Virtually all American workers were affected by the pandemic; however, Hispanics, African Americans, and jobs held by women were disproportionately negatively affected (Groshen, 2020). The job losses associated with the pandemic were the most profound and most rapid ever documented in history (Groshen, 2020). Even with this large unemployment gap, there are numerous ways that the unemployment metric does not account for employees who are displaced from their jobs (Groshen, 2020). One option that an organization can use when cutting costs is to reduce an employee's hours from full-time to part-time (Groshen, 2020). This decision then results in an involuntary part-time employee whose job disruption would not be included in the overall unemployment rate.

The number of involuntary part-time employees has been growing in the United States as the labor market remains volatile and organizations strive to stay competitive (Cunningham, 2018). No recent research has been conducted in the United States on the connection between an employee's life satisfaction and their involuntary part-time status. Furthermore, there is some discrepancy in the Department of Labor's tracking of part-time employees. Any individual who holds multiple jobs whose total hours make over 35 hours would be considered a full-time employee but would not hold a full-time employee status at any organization, which would preclude the benefits offered with full-time employment (Valletta et al., 2020). Previous research has provided a clear connection on the positive role that fringe benefits and higher income play in an individual's self-reported life satisfaction (Teti & Andriotto, 2013; Ko & Hur, 2014).

The A.C.A. defines part-time work in the United States as working more than 30 hours per week on average and is

typically associated with restricted access to fringe benefit packages offered to full-time workers (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015). Access to leave allowances, health insurance, and retirement benefits are not always included in conjunction with part-time employment (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015). Even when industries such as retail and foodservice, which typically offer part-time positions over full-time employment, are controlled for, the prevalence of reduced or unavailable fringe benefits strongly deviates from those offered for full-time workers (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015). Government benefit options are sometimes based on average hours worked per week, and organizations that offer part-time employment do not guarantee weekly work hours to comply. For instance, the Family Medical Leave Act (FMLA) provides job security during leave but only if the employee works 24 hours a week on average (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015). Overall, it is clear that as working hours go down in the United States, benefits also decrease. An unfortunate side effect of the A.C.A. was for many industries to reduce their employees to part-time to avoid paying for benefits (Fredrickson, 2015).

Employment and government benefits can take on multiple forms, such as indirect or direct compensation. Indirect compensation includes insurance, paid leave, and other options not necessarily required for the job, while direct compensation includes wages and salaries (De La Torre-Ruiz et al., 2019). Traditional benefits such as health insurance, life insurance, and financial incentives are used as well as newer family-friendly benefits to positively impact employee activities in the workplace (Ko & Hur, 2014). Flexible work schedules, job sharing, in-house childcare, maternity leave, elder care, and family leave have been added to the typical benefits packages to account for the dynamic global and family changes that have altered the benefits desired by the workforce (Ko & Hur, 2014). Empirical studies on family-friendly benefits are significantly correlated with improved work attitudes, job satisfaction, workplace performance, and lower employee turnover intentions (Ko & Hur, 2014). When specific employment benefits are rated by employees, the family-friendly benefits such as flexible work schedules and on-location childcare scored the highest (Teti & Andriotto, 2013). Traditional benefits such as health and life insurance were rated low by employees in how much they appreciated them (Teti & Andriotto, 2013). Research confirms a significant positive relationship between fringe benefits and employee satisfaction and work commitment to the organization (Adeoye & Obanewo, 2019).

Well-being is defined as the subjective and overall positive judgment of an individual's life (Edgar et al., 2015). The three facets of well-being are physical, social, and psychological, documented by the World Health Organization as not simply being the absence of disease or infirmity (Edgar et al., 2015). Current research focuses on the psychological aspects of well-being in the workplace when studied (Edgar et al., 2015). It has been concluded that different employee well-being measures, such as life satisfaction, affect, and emotional exhaustion will retain different relationships with employee performance (Edgar et al., 2015). However, even though there are inherent problems with using multiple aspects of employee well-being as a proxy for job satisfaction, there is

evidence that overall life satisfaction has a positive relationship with individual productivity and performance (Edgar et al., 2015). Life-satisfaction is defined as the general idea that an individual is satisfied with their life as a whole (Edgar et al., 2015). The use of life satisfaction as a proxy for well-being has been used in research projects. It is the only measure of well-being that has a significant relationship with employee performance (Edgar et al., 2015). Other forms of measurement, such as affect, only require the participant to reflect on a particular moment in time instead of their life as a whole (Boarini et al., 2013).

Inconsistencies in research results on part-time worker well-being has become a problem. First, the term "temporary-work" has been used as an umbrella term to describe a wide range of employment forms with differing characteristics (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). A similar problem also exists with the term "well-being" as it has been used to refer to various well-being indicators (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). Overall a significant number of constructs have been used to evaluate well-being. Predominantly life satisfaction has been used as a context-free indicator of well-being. Research shows that when understanding an employees' sense of well-being, self-reports of life satisfaction and feelings are valid measurements (Boarini et al., 2013). Research on overall well-being measured by life satisfaction has been shown to have high face validity, convergent validity, and construct validity (Boarini et al., 2013). Even though evidence shows that life satisfaction is a valid measurement of well-being, a respondent's answer is still subject to mood distortion factors such as the weather or a physical illness (Boarini et al., 2013).

Involuntary part-time employees work part-time due to economic conditions, which means that they want to work full-time but cannot find full-time employment (Cunningham, 2018). From 2006 to 2010, the number of involuntary part-time employees more than doubled, reaching 6.7% of total employment (Cunningham, 2018). Race and ethnicity are reflected in involuntary part-time employment demographics. In 2017, Blacks and Hispanics made up a total of 10% of the involuntary part-time workforce as a percentage of total employment (Cunningham, 2018). This is contrasted sharply with the only 3% involuntary part-time employment for whites (Cunningham, 2018). Furthermore, overall labor participation rates, those participating in the labor market, have fallen as of 2017 since pre-A.C.A. levels (Cunningham, 2018). Therefore, the increase in part-time employment opportunities did not increase the labor market's total available jobs.

Geographical location does play a role in the importance of fringe benefits to the employees. The individual consequences of involuntary part-time workers are based on country-specific market situations, employment structures, and legal regulations (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). Some additional benefits offered at the state level, such as unemployment insurance programs, provide paid benefits to employees whose jobs have been temporarily disrupted (Groshen, 2020). Therefore, organizations should consider their industry competition and the current state of the applicable job market to evaluate the strength of their benefit offers and how they may influence employee satisfaction

(Adeoye & Obanewo, 2019). The employee benefits landscape is currently changing. For instance, reward packages in some organizations have replaced traditional compensation benefits to enhance employee performance and engagement by linking compensation to organizational interests (Adeoye & Obanewo, 2019).

Part-time work advantages include higher labor participation rates and the potential to increase women's life satisfaction and job satisfaction (Montero & Rau, 2015). Individuals who participate in part-time work and see it as part of their identities associate it positively with their overall well-being (Russo, 2012). However, individuals who regard part-time work as a consequence of their inability to juggle multiple roles see part-time work negatively (Russo, 2012). These individuals show lower levels of job and life satisfaction (Russo, 2012). A drawback to determining the exact number of individuals who work part-time and receive minimal fringe benefit compensation is skewed because the U.S. Department of Labor does not designate individuals who work a total of over 35 hours at multiple jobs as part-time (Valletta et al., 2020). Therefore, individuals who are forced to work multiple part-time jobs to make ends meet are not counted as part-time employees. 15%-20% of the employed workforce in the United States is currently considered part-time, and approximately 75% of those individuals are voluntary part-time employees (Valletta et al., 2020). The 2016 rates of involuntary part-time employment remain well above 2005 levels in the United States (Valletta et al., 2020). Involuntary part-time employees represent 1.75 million individuals in the United States who want full-time employment but can only attain part-time employment (Valletta et al., 2020). This is about 50% more than expected based on economic factors and suggests that involuntary part-time workers will remain elevated in the future as well (Valletta et al., 2020).

### C. Problem Statement

Involuntary part-time employment is associated with job insecurity, poor access to fringe benefits, inability to pay off debts, and income inequality (Ahn et al., 2016; Voßemer et al., 2018; U.S. Department of Labor, 2015; Hyde, 2020). Missing networking and continuing education opportunities also decrease the likelihood of individuals who participate in the contingent workforce increasing their lot in life in the future (Hyde, 2020; Voßemer et al., 2018; Scherer, 2009). Much research has been conducted on how unemployment and insecure jobs such as contract work affects an individual's well-being. However, little information has been gained about specific factors that buffer or exacerbate the consequences, such as specific government and organizational policies (Voßemer et al., 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015). Furthermore, the potentially harmful effect on life satisfaction for involuntary part-time workers has not been thoroughly researched in the current United States labor market (Voßemer et al., 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015).

Studies show that more generous unemployment benefits can buffer the effects of unemployment, but what about part-time workers who are not eligible for unemployment (Voßemer et al., 2018)? Currently, flexible employment growth has blurred the line between non-employment and

employment (Voßemer et al., 2018). Even though job flexibility is a fringe benefit sought after in full-time employment, part-time employees may face job insecurity, affecting their overall well-being or, more specifically, their life satisfaction (Voßemer et al., 2018). It has been established that a higher income does increase overall self-reported life satisfaction; however, recent research has also determined that a country's income inequality also plays a role (Ahn et al., 2016).

Future research is recommended to be country-specific to account for labor market differences since previous well-being research on temporary workers has been conducted in European countries and Finland (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). The results from a research study on unemployment and insecure jobs show that overall insecure jobs harm overall well-being as measured by life satisfaction in Europe (Voßemer et al., 2018). In Chile, a developing country, the effect of part-time employment on well-being is favorable for women and unfavorable for men (Montero & Rau, 2015). Research on part-time employment in developed countries is mainly voluntary but based on research conducted before the passing of the A.C.A. in 2010 (Montero & Rau, 2015). Research in Honduras has found a negative correlation between job satisfaction and part-time work for both men and women (Montero & Rau, 2015). A similar study conducted in Finland evaluated the effects of involuntary part-time employment on well-being and job quality using the Quality of Work Life Surveys. They found that involuntary part-time employees have lower job quality and decreased overall well-being (Kauhanen & Nätti, 2015). In Finland, it was also determined that distinguishing between contract employment types such as temporary or part-time work was an essential factor when looking at employee well-being (Kauhanen & Nätti, 2015).

Additional research in the United States is necessary to explore the effect that multiple part-time jobs without access to fringe benefits have on life satisfaction. The database most used for labor market research in the United States does not differentiate between individuals who work multiple part-time jobs where total hours exceed 35 per week and those individuals who work full-time (Valletta et al., 2020). Work-life balance is a significant factor in many individuals' overall sense of well-being. Without the time to enjoy activities outside of work, an individual may suffer from health concerns and rising stress levels (White & Maniam, 2020). It could negatively impact personal relationships, which translates to low physical and psychological well-being (White & Maniam, 2020).

Furthermore, minorities are overrepresented in involuntary part-time workers (Cunningham, 2018). The fringe benefits associated with full-time employment have been shown to decrease stress, increase wellness, improve work performance, improve job satisfaction, improve work attitudes, lower absenteeism, and increase overall organizational performance (Teti & Andriotto, 2013; Ko & Hur, 2014). However, the specific organizational policies that can affect an employee's well-being based on their involuntary part-time status have not been thoroughly researched (Voßemer et al., 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015).

### D. Purpose of the Study

This study aims to attain accurate data specific to the United States labor market on the correlation between involuntary part-time work and life satisfaction. Country-specific aspects such as the changing employee benefits landscape of the United States population contribute to the factors influencing an individual's overall well-being (Adeoye & Obanewo, 2019). No one factor influences life satisfaction. Instead, it is a combination of an individual's satisfaction with their social bonds, work or educational pursuits, leisure activities, personal growth, and role performance (Pavot & Diener, 2013). When a person's employment is a poor fit or causes reduced goal attainment, it can lower life satisfaction (Pavot & Diener, 2013). Unfortunately, the exact impact of how involuntary part-time employment correlates to life satisfaction in the current United States labor market is unknown since most studies rely on an inaccurate measurement of IPT provided by the Labor Department (Valletta et al., 2020). The data provided by this study will produce current measurements of life satisfaction in the United States labor market from involuntary part-time workers.

### E. Significance of the Study

By gaining answers to the stated research questions, it will enhance an understanding of how individuals are affected by an inability to attain full-time employment in the current U.S. job market. Access to fringe benefits has positive effects for organizations including improved organizational performance (Teti & Andriotto, 2013). Even though the United States does not stipulate the number of hours required for an employee to be considered full-time, many federal labor policies such as FMLA and the A.C.A. still require a specific number of hours worked for the benefits to take effect (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015). Therefore, it is up to each organization to provide fringe benefits to all of their employees depending on their specific operational policies. Closing the gap in research on how life satisfaction relates to fringe benefits and involuntary part-time employment can help organizations make a better decision on how to expend their labor capital resources. Suppose organizations are going to create policies to positively affect employees from a holistic standpoint. In that case, it needs to be determined if subjective well-being can be affected by these policies (Boarini et al., 2013). Even when external factors are considered, policy changes associated with health insurance, unemployment, and employment protection still have a statistically significant effect on well-being (Boarini et al., 2013). Since overall life satisfaction has a positive relationship with individual productivity and performance, it would be advantageous for organizations to invest in programs that support an employee from a holistic standpoint (Edgar et al., 2015).

### F. Research Questions

Hypothesis I: Participation in the involuntary part-time workforce in the United States has a negative correlation with self-reported life satisfaction scores.

Hypothesis II: Access to fringe benefits positively correlates with the self-reported life satisfaction score of involuntary part-time workers in the United States.

### G. Definitions

- Fringe Benefits - May be referred to as "fringe benefits" or "benefits" throughout the study. Compensation provided to employees outside of their regular stated wages. These can take many forms, including performance rewards, health insurance, retirement accounts, paid or unpaid leave, discounts, job flexibility, and education allowances (Adeoye & Obanewo, 2019; Voßemer et al., 2018).
- Involuntary Part-time Worker - is defined as an employee who wishes to work full-time but, due to economic reasons, has only been able to find part-time employment or has had their hours reduced by their employer (Groschen, 2020). The United States government leaves the determination of full and part-time status up to employers (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015). This study will adhere to the standard cut-off of 30 hours per week for anyone employer, which is the guideline required by the A.C.A. to establish part-time status (Even & Macpherson, 2019).
- Life-satisfaction - defined as the general idea that an individual is satisfied with their life as a whole instead of at only one point in time (Edgar et al., 2015). Subjective well-being can be measured using multiple constructs such as affect, life satisfaction, or emotional exhaustion (Edgar et al., 2015). Life satisfaction is the only measure of well-being that has a significant relationship with employee performance (Edgar et al., 2015). This construct will be measured using the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Pavot & Diener, 2013; Appendix A).

### H. Research Design

*This study will consist of a quantitative format using the Likert scale to compare an employee's life satisfaction rating with their fringe benefits package using self-reported data from employees from multiple industries. Using life satisfaction as the measurement for employee well-being allows the research participant to reflect upon their life as a whole instead of only a specific point in time (Boarini et al., 2013). Using life satisfaction encourages people to measure their life judgments relative to their personal goals (Boarini et al., 2013). Multiple questions regarding self-reported well-being will produce better results than single questions (Boarini et al., 2013). Predominantly, life satisfaction has been measured using the satisfaction with life scale (SWLS) created by Ed Diener in the 1980s (Appendix A). The utilization of this scale will help measure life satisfaction to allow the research to be compared to future data or other geographical locations as the labor market continues to change. The satisfaction with life scale contains five Likert survey questions that result in an overall satisfaction score (Pavot & Diener, 2013). This satisfaction score is then compared to six categories to determine the overall life satisfaction of the individual (Pavot & Diener, 2013). The United States Census data cannot be used in this study since anyone who works over a commulative 35 hours a week in*

multiple part-time jobs would be counted as full-time employed (Valletta et al., 2020). Since one aspect of this research is interested in how the lack of optimal fringe benefits correlates with part-time workers' life satisfaction, workers who work multiple part-time jobs where the cumulative total hours may exceed 35 hours per week will need to be included in the part-time category.

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) has been provided to diverse populations to attain normative data. Age groups, prisoners, alcohol abuse sufferers, students, abused women, psychotherapy clients, those with disabilities, and elderly caregivers are some of the groups who have provided sample populations for the SWLS (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Significant variability has been observed between and within the listed sample groups; however, the accumulated data has provided a scoring table that lists 20 as neutral (Appendix A). A score between 20-24 can be considered an average score and will provide the baseline for confirming the first research question for this study (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Most average group scores in the diverse groups who took the SWLS scored between 23-28 (Pavot & Diener, 1993). This is a comparative finding that most well-being is measured above neutral in Western countries (Pavot & Diener, 1993). The SWLS has also been tested for reliability and sensitivity. Overall it has shown strong internal reliability and moderate temporal stability (Pavot & Diener, 1993).

### I. Assumptions

Evaluations of individual well-being gained through survey data are typically assumed to be cardinally and ordinally comparable (Kristoffersen, 2017). Ordinal comparability assumes a linear relationship between self-professed subjective well-being and actual well-being between and within an individual (Kristoffersen, 2017). Empirical research on life satisfaction typically applies the implicit assumption that the correlations and potential causes of life satisfaction are similar for everyone (Headey & Wagner, 2019). Cardinal comparability assumes that the self-reported well-being score and the true score are equal (Kristoffersen, 2017). Since life satisfaction is a measurement of well-being, this construct would adhere to the same assumption. The assumptions of cardinal and ordinal comparability are justified on statistical necessity and interpretation as well as consistency in model estimates for discrete and continuous data (Kristoffersen, 2017). These assumptions are considered both reasonable and justified in prior research (Kristoffersen, 2017).

### J. Limitations

The prevailing assumption of a one-size-fits-all approach to life satisfaction may cause discrepancies in scores of individuals with cultural differences (Headey & Wagner, 2019). The differing personal values applied to surveys on life satisfaction may not accurately reflect a person's true life satisfaction measurement (Headey & Wagner, 2019). Regardless of the correlations discovered during this study, there is no magic strategy to ensure an individual's satisfaction with life (Headey & Wagner, 2019). Other limitations

regarding the SWLS also exist. For instance, survey respondents could choose to distort their response to the questions if they choose to do so (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Also, the SWLS only measures the cognitive component of S.W.B. and not the affective component (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Therefore, it is recommended that any results from this study should be followed up by assessments from external sources such as interviewer ratings if possible (Pavot & Diener, 1993). The allowance given to the respondent to utilize their judgment when answering the SWLS questionnaire means that it is impossible to know what standard they are using to determine life satisfaction (Pavot & Diener, 1993).

## II. CHAPTER 2

### A. Methods of Searching

The literature for this research was collected predominantly using the database Business Source Elite, accessed via Adler's online library. Articles were filtered by those written in the past ten years, full documents available, and peer-reviewed articles only. When applicable articles failed to meet research needs, "all-databases" were selected to provide a larger selection of information. Regularly utilized keywords included "benefits," "well-being," "life satisfaction," and "involuntary part-time." The snowball method was also used when the B.L.S. reports were mentioned in an article as the main database used in research studies in the United States. A visit to the B.L.S. website attained current geographically appropriate labor market conditions and the value of available data. Further research on U.S. labor market conditions required using the "affordable care act" as a search term in Adler's online library.

The SWLS questionnaire was discovered through an online google search using the term "life satisfaction" and "measurement." A thorough sweep through all Adler's database did not reveal any measurement devices that were reliable, validated, and could be used to accurately measure life satisfaction. Specific information related to the limitations and assumptions of employee well-being research was discovered through an additional search in the Adler library using the terms "assumptions," "well-being," and "limitations." All previously used filters were in effect.

### B. Theoretical Orientation for the Study

The theoretical orientation for this study is based on the advocacy/participatory worldview. The general assumption made by a researcher with this mindset is that research should be associated with social justice agendas that attempt to change the participants' lives, the institutions where participants work/live, or the researcher's life (Creswell, 2008). The specific issues addressed with research correlating to this worldview are associated with marginalized populations and social agendas such as empowerment, inequality, suppression, and alienation (Creswell, 2008). There is evidence to suggest that insecure employment overall is associated with problematic social and family situations (Scherer, 2009). Strong correlations exist between non-secure employment and overall income and working lives, but little research has been dedicated to nontraditional employment positions' social consequences (Scherer, 2009). The social

ramifications may be further exacerbated because involuntary part-time employment predominantly affects minorities in the U.S. (Cunningham, 2018).

An organization that provides desirable employee benefits to an employee can result in a mutually beneficial exchange (Ko & Hur, 2014). Empirical studies on family-friendly benefits are significantly correlated with improved work attitudes, job satisfaction, workplace performance, and lower employee turnover intentions (Ko & Hur, 2014). If this research is completed and the hypotheses are proved correct, then perhaps organizational leadership will consider increasing the benefits offered to involuntary part-time employees to increase the rewards associated with increased productivity. Alternatively, involuntary part-time employment may not be seen as an accepted way for organizations to cut costs if the negative effects on the employee's life satisfaction are proven (Schultz & Doorn, 2011). This research may also provide an organization insight into their return on investment for well-being-enhancing activities (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). As the part-time employment segment continues to grow, employers should invest in well-being-oriented H.R. activities to increase overall productivity (Imhof & Andresen, 2018).

### C. Review of Literature

The organizational benefits landscape of the United States is a key factor in establishing a variable in the labor market that could correlate with the life satisfaction of involuntary part-time workers (Voßemer et al., 2018). To formulate the need to research this niche corner of the employment landscape, articles on organizational benefits, the well-being construct, current geographical-specific labor market events, and involuntary part-time contracts have been summarized. Each aspect has been broken down and the research summarized under appropriate subsections. Arriving at the final research topic was amplified by the prevalence of literature discussed, suggesting a deeper look into the organizational and political benefits that affected temporary employment positions (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). At times, job satisfaction is mentioned as a measurement of employee well-being due to its use as a domain-specific well-being construct (Imhof & Andresen, 2018).

#### 1) Employment Contract – Involuntary Part-time

Part-time workers have fallen under various umbrella terms that veil the significance of the researched constructs on this group alone. The involuntary part-time workforce has been grouped under such terms as; contingent workforce, temporary worker, and insecure jobs (Imhof & Andresen, 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015; Fredrickson, 2015). The involuntary part-time workforce is derived from unskilled labor and exceptionally skilled individuals such as adjunct professors, elementary school teachers, attorneys, and journalists (Torres, 2018; Fredrickson, 2015; Hyde, 2020). A qualitative study conducted in the human resources field determined that financial need, family obligations, and flexibility were the main factors that inspired workers to retain part-time positions (Hyde, 2020). The freedom and flexibility offered by this type of work are tempered by unstable compensation, minimal benefits, uncompensated labor, reduced job security, and stalled career advancement (Torres, 2018, Hyde, 2020).

Individuals who acquire part-time work involuntarily or due to uncontrollable life circumstances have shown lower job and life satisfaction (Russo, 2012). 5%-20% of the employed workforce in the United States is currently considered part-time, and approximately 75% of those individuals are voluntary part-time employees (Valletta et al., 2020). However, the U.S. Department of Labor provides data that does not include part-time workers in the part-time category if they work over 35 cumulative hours a week, even if they hold a part-time status with decreased benefit offerings as their job(s) (Valletta et al., 2020). Involuntary part-time employees represent 1.75 million individuals in the United States who want full-time employment but can only attain part-time employment (Valletta et al., 2020). This is about 50% more than expected based on economic factors and suggests that involuntary part-time workers will remain elevated in the future as well (Valletta et al., 2020).

#### 2) Benefits

Benefits can take on multiple forms, such as indirect or direct compensation. Indirect compensation includes insurance, paid leave, and other options not necessarily required for the job, while direct compensation includes wages and salaries (De La Torre-Ruiz et al., 2019). Traditional benefits such as health insurance, life insurance, and financial incentives are used as well as newer family-friendly benefits to positively impact employee activities in the workplace (Ko & Hur, 2014). Research confirms a significant positive relationship between fringe benefits and employee satisfaction and work commitment to the organization (Adeoye & Obanewo, 2019).

Flexible work schedules, job sharing, in-house childcare, maternity leave, elder care, and family leave have been added to the typical benefits packages to account for the dynamic global and family changes that have altered the benefits desired by the workforce (Ko & Hur, 2014). Empirical studies on family-friendly benefits are significantly correlated with improved work attitudes, job satisfaction, workplace performance, and lower employee turnover intentions (Ko & Hur, 2014). The current employer mentality is to view a flexible work schedule as an incentive or privilege, even though it can promote employee engagement, increased effectiveness, and higher morale (White & Maniam, 2020). Adults with aging parents, seniors close to retirement, and single mothers of young children are also included in the demographic of individuals who would benefit from work-life balance organizational policies (White & Maniam, 2020).

Some individuals seek out part-time employment for the advantages of a flexible work arrangement, which does not then decrease their overall life satisfaction (Russo, 2012). Studies show that the introduction of work flexibility associated with part-time work can reduce occupational stress by 70%, which increases an employee's overall well-being (Teti & Andriotto, 2013). There have been reports of mothers enjoying the benefits of part-time employment to provide a way to work and care for their children (Scherer, 2009). Flexible work arrangements help establish a strong work-life balance that has been shown to enhance an individual's overall sense of well-being (White & Maniam, 2020). Research shows that families suffered the most from a lack of flexible schedules when two parents worked a typical 8 am to 5 pm schedule, spousal communication and their overall relationship suffered (White & Maniam, 2020).

Even though job flexibility is a fringe benefit sought after in full-time employment, part-time employees may face job insecurity, affecting their overall well-being or, more specifically, their life satisfaction (Voßemer et al., 2018). Contingent workers, in general, report lower job satisfaction and fewer fringe benefits than traditional workers in the same job roles (Fredrickson, 2015). Insecure work is often associated with more impoverished working conditions, reduced pay, reduced fringe benefits, and problematic social problems (Scherer, 2009). Many people question the supposed advantages attained through part-time positions (Scherer, 2009). When benefit satisfaction was broken down by gender, women were significantly less satisfied with the welfare scheme than men (Teti & Andriotto, 2013). This is explained by more men holding higher positions in most companies and the positive correlation between a higher workplace role and benefits satisfaction (Teti & Andriotto, 2013).

Offering ideal benefits can help an organization stay competitive in the job market. Perceived Organizational Support (P.O.S.) is a concept that states that employees who perceive that an organization is committed to meet their personal needs will reciprocate by helping the organization meet its goals (Ko & Hur, 2014). Employee benefits and organizational justice can be used as a proxy by the employee for perceived organizational support (Ko & Hur, 2014). Employees' perception that their organization supports them should increase their feelings of belongingness and strengthen their identification with the organization (De La Torre-Ruiz et al., 2019). Not all benefits have the same effect on employee satisfaction and life satisfaction (Adeoye & Obanewo, 2019). One study on benefits discovered that educational rewards and housing rewards showed stronger employee satisfaction over overtime rewards and performance rewards; however, monetary rewards did increase employee performance (Adeoye & Obanewo, 2019).

Nontraditional workplace benefits that focus on employee welfare schemes have been found to improve an organization's financial performance and overall value at better-than-average levels (Teti & Andriotto, 2013). If an organization provides additional well-being benefits to employees who are not yet satisfied, they may reap increased employee satisfaction rewards (Teti & Andriotto, 2013). However, employees who experience procedural injustice may feel dissatisfaction with their employer even with the existence of favorable benefits (Ko & Hur, 2014; Adeoye & Obanewo, 2019). Employees who feel perceived inequity from a benefit imbalance may act out by either reducing personal outputs, increasing one outcome through theft, or leaving the current situation (Adeoye & Obanewo, 2019).

### 3) Well-being Construct

The term well-being has been grouped into multiple categories and measured in many ways, including job satisfaction (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). The three facets of well-being are physical, social, and psychological, documented by the World Health Organization as not simply being the absence of disease or infirmity (Edgar et al., 2015). Current research focuses on the psychological aspects of well-being in the workplace when studied (Edgar et al., 2015). Life satisfaction has been used as the primary measurement of overall well-being (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). It has been concluded that different employee well-being measures, such as life satisfaction, affect, and emotional exhaustion, will

retain different relationships with employee performance (Edgar et al., 2015).

Research shows that when understanding an employees' sense of well-being, self-reports of life satisfaction and feelings are valid measurements with high face validity, convergent validity, and construct validity (Boarini et al., 2013). Even though evidence displays that life satisfaction is a valid measurement of well-being, a respondent's answer is still subject to mood distortion factors such as the weather or a physical illness (Boarini et al., 2013). However, this biasing factor has been a minor issue when responses are collected multiple times over a long period (Boarini et al., 2013). Furthermore, there is also evidence that overall life satisfaction has a positive relationship with individual productivity and performance (Edgar et al., 2015). Other forms of measurement, such as effect, only require the participant to reflect on a particular moment in time instead of their life as a whole (Boarini et al., 2013).

Factors other than a person's career may also play a role in their well-being. For instance, income inequality has a significant and negative effect on well-being (Ahn et al., 2016). However, even when external factors are considered, policy changes associated with health insurance, unemployment, and employment protection still have a statistically significant effect on well-being (Boarini et al., 2013). A cross-country study using data from the Gallup World Poll on the impact that labor policy has on self-reported life satisfaction found that it was a valid measurement of policy impact on people's lives (Boarini et al., 2013).

### 4) Labor Market

Additional research is needed on the specific organizational and political labor policies that affect a part-time worker's life satisfaction (Voßemer et al., 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015). A country's benefit offerings such as health care, leave allowances, tax breaks, and unemployment benefits have been shown to increase the life satisfaction of affected workers, which increases the need for geographically specific life satisfaction studies (Voßemer et al., 2018). Individuals create their well-being judgments based on comparing their status to that of the perceived normal based on their geographical location (Ahn et al., 2016).

The results from a research study on unemployment and insecure jobs show that insecure jobs harm overall well-being as measured by life satisfaction in Honduras, Europe, Finland, and European countries (Voßemer et al., 2018; Imhof & Andresen, 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015; Kauhanen & Nätti, 2015; Scherer, 2009). A study in Chili showed mixed results, with part-time employment being favorable for women and unfavorable for men (Montero & Rau, 2015). All studies conducted on correlations between well-being and employment have been based on quantitative research designs and utilize the specific countries government databases for labor demographics (Voßemer et al., 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015; Kauhanen & Nätti, 2015; Scherer, 2009). Unfortunately, the B.L.S. database in the United States can not be used for the same purposes since this database groups part-time employees in a way that discredits its use in a study that looks at fringe benefits as a variable (Valletta et al., 2020).

Research on the correlations between part-time work and well-being in the United States has not been conducted post-2010 (Montero & Rau, 2015). Major labor market

fluctuations have occurred in the United States due to the A.C.A. and Covid-19, which have altered the benefits offered by the country (Even & Macpherson, 2019). Research shows that involuntary part-time employment was higher in 2015 after the passing of the A.C.A. than would be expected based on labor market conditions (Even & Macpherson, 2019). Further demographics in the United States confirm that minorities are disproportionately represented in the involuntary part-time group (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015).

Access to leave allowances, health insurance, and retirement benefits are not always included in conjunction with part-time employment since each organization is allowed to determine the hours required to establish full-time status (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015). Many governmental employment benefits in the United States, such as FMLA and A.C.A., require a specific number of employment hours to retain benefits, increasing the country's uniqueness in terms of the correlation between life satisfaction and part-time employment (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015). An unfortunate side effect of the Affordable Care Act was for many industries to reduce their employees to part-time to avoid paying for benefits (Fredrickson, 2015).

### D. Synthesis of the Research Findings

Employee well-being sets the stage for a researcher with the advocacy/participatory worldview. Potential positive outcomes could occur for both organizations and employees if research reveals that their employment contract negatively impacts involuntary part-time employees. Life satisfaction is a valid measurement of an individual's overall well-being and has been used in numerous studies to date (Boarini et al., 2013; Edgar et al., 2015). Therefore, life satisfaction as an independent variable will allow the U.S.A. to contribute to the broader existing literature on employee psychological wellness. Shedding light on this topic may also allow for additional governmental regulations to increase assistance to this working group and increase the chance for their career success.

Recent research on the correlation between well-being, part-time employment, and what exact policies affect the correlation has not been thoroughly completed in the U.S.A. (Voßemer et al., 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015). This established need directly aligns with the goals of this research paper to discover the relationship between fringe benefits, involuntary part-time employment, and life satisfaction. Research in the U.S.A. should not rely on government labor statistical databases as other quantitative studies on employee well-being have done in other countries since the B.L.S. does not provide the data necessary to complete this research (Valletta et al., 2020). New research on this topic will consider the labor market challenges faced since 2010, such as the A.C.A. and Covid-19. Finally, the narrowed focus on involuntary part-time employment will introduce an additional piece of the labor landscape that has not yet been thoroughly understood and provide new raw data in part-time employment not derived from the B.L.S.

### E. Critique of the Previous Research Methods

The main drawbacks of employment well-being research are associated with the terms used as constructs in research studies and the limitations of the existing datasets. Broad terms such as well-being and contingent workforce are

umbrella terms with multiple sub-categories below them (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). The term well-being alone has been measured by job satisfaction, life-satisfaction, affect, and emotional exhaustion, which all provide different relationships with employee performance (Imhof & Andresen, 2018; Edgar et al., 2015). This inconsistency in the research would negate the value provided to organizations on how employee well-being impacted organizational performance. Furthermore, the involuntary part-time workforce has been grouped under such terms as; contingent workforce, temporary worker, and insecure jobs (Imhof & Andresen, 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015; Fredrickson, 2015). The inability to separate data between employment contract types may dilute the impact that policy has on a smaller group like involuntary part-time workers.

The predominant use of governmental statistical labor market databases for quantitative employment well-being research worldwide also poses an obstacle to in-depth or focused research studies. How an external entity qualifies, each category can play a role in the data's value in a research study. A researcher who collects their data has more control over the collection boundaries and can alleviate issues that may prevent some employment categories from being fully represented. The established connection between country-specific employment benefits, legal regulations, employment structures, and employee well-being should also imply the need for geographical-specific data in employment well-being research (Imhof & Andresen, 2018).

### F. Summary

Overall, research on temporary workers has been underrepresented in life satisfaction studies (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). It is currently unclear if the benefits of part-time work, such as increased flexibility, offset the consequence of the lower fringe benefit options available to this labor group in the U.S.A. (Teti & Andriotto, 2013; White & Maniam, 2020; Scherer, 2009; Voßemer et al., 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015). It would be logical to assume that the negative effects associated with part-time employment would be enhanced in the involuntary part-time niche; however, no research could be found on this category to back up the claim. This lack of research, combined with the additional research needs on the temporary workforce, called out in some of the literature, resulting in the basis for this research study (Imhof & Andresen, 2018; Voßemer et al., 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015). Additionally, organizations may benefit from the results of this study since it has been established that company benefit offerings influence employee productivity (Boarini et al., 2013).

## III. CHAPTER 3

### A. Introduction

This section will cover how, when, and where research was conducted to address the presented research questions. The Satisfaction with Life Survey (SWLS) provides the primary data of this research (Appendix A), which will be correlated with demographic questions (Appendix B) using the Point-Biserial correlation inferential statistical method. Qualtrics database will provide security and data storage, while Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) will conduct the descriptive statistical analysis. The 1.75 million



involuntary part-time (IPT) employees will be targeted through a clustered sampling approach based on their defined full-time job-seeking desires (Valletta et al., 2020). The SWLS survey has been provided, free of charge and with full permission, by the authors for use in this research (Pavot & Diener, 1993). After this study, the average life satisfaction score will be determined for the IPT workgroup to answer the first research question and a Pearson correlation between fringe benefit access and participation in IPT employment will be conducted to answer the second research question.

### B. Purpose of the Study

This study aims not to solve the cause of potential decreased life satisfaction associated with involuntary part-time employment. Instead, the results will provide data that can assist labor market decision-makers and organizational leadership on the needs of current IPT in the job market. The positive outcomes associated with individuals who report higher ratings of life satisfaction include decreased risk of suicide, higher sociability, higher extroversion, a better quality of sleep, and stronger happiness of close relatives (Boarini et al., 2013). Due to the labor market changes in the United States since the passing of the A.C.A. and the effect of Covid-19 (see pp. 3-8), current research data is necessary for the labor market niche (Even & Macpherson, 2019). The gap in knowledge that this quantitative study will assist in closing is the lack of data on how governmental and organizational policy, in this case, fringe benefits, can affect self-reported life satisfaction in the IPT workforce (Boarini et al., 2013). Maintaining a country-specific focus on the U.S.A., narrowing the study down to only the IPT workforce, and generating original data are critical considerations of this study that have been lacking in the past labor market and self-reported wellness research (Voßemer et al., 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015; Valletta et al., 2020). Furthermore, the use of life satisfaction as a construct of overall wellbeing will provide a valid and reliable measurement device that can allow this data to be used for comparison in future studies on IPT labor market studies (Boarini et al., 2013).

### C. Research Questions and Hypothesis

Hypothesis I: Participation in the involuntary part-time workforce in the United States has a negative correlation with self-reported life satisfaction scores.

Null Hypothesis I: Participation in the involuntary part-time workforce in the United States does not have a negative correlation with self-reported life satisfaction scores.

Hypothesis II: Access to fringe benefits positively correlates with the self-reported life satisfaction score of involuntary part-time workers in the United States.

Null Hypothesis II: Access to fringe benefits does not have a statistically significant correlation with the self-reported life satisfaction score of involuntary part-time workers in the United States.

### D. Research Design

This study will consist of a quantitative research design using an existing life-satisfaction survey. Measuring overall well-being through the construct of life satisfaction has strong

validity and reliability (Boarini et al., 2013). Individuals provide similar answers in test re-test studies on self-reported life satisfaction surveys with correlations of 0.6 and 0.7 (Boarini et al., 2013). Face validity is also high for questions on subjective well-being since questions on happiness are extremely relatable (Boarini et al., 2013). Additional studies on biological measurements show a strong relationship with subjective well-being measurements (Boarini et al., 2013). Demographic questions (Appendix B) associated with the state of employment, current work contract, and access to fringe benefits will provide the variables necessary for statistical correlation analysis. Specifically, the three variables in this study are 1. access to fringe benefits as an independent variable, 2. life-satisfaction as a dependent variable, and 3. IPT contract status as an independent variable. Therefore, two factors may affect overall self-reported life satisfaction.

The main focus of this study will consist of a Likert scale to compare an employee's life satisfaction rating with their fringe benefits package using self-reported data from employees from multiple industries. Life satisfaction measures people's judgments about their lives compared to the goals that they set for themselves (Boarini et al., 2013). Multiple questions regarding self-reported well-being will produce better results than single questions (Boarini et al., 2013). Predominantly, life satisfaction has been measured using the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) created by Ed Diener in the 1980s (Appendix A). The utilization of this scale will help measure life satisfaction to allow the research to be compared to future data or other geographical locations as the labor market continues to change.

Weaknesses of this design include the misinterpretation of the term "benefits." To address this issue, the definition of fringe benefits will be provided as previously stated in this study: compensation provided to employees outside of their regular stated wages. These can take many forms, including performance rewards, health insurance, retirement accounts, paid or unpaid leave, discounts, job flexibility, and education allowances (Adeoye & Obanewo, 2019; Voßemer et al., 2018). The potential for cultural differences associated with life-satisfaction score responses has been addressed by restricting this study to the U.S.A. only (Headey & Wagner, 2019). The potential for survey response distortion remains a limitation of the SWLS (Pavot & Diener, 1993). A central assumption of this research also remains in those evaluations of individual well-being gained through survey data are typically assumed to be cardinally and ordinally comparable (Kristoffersen, 2017). Without this assumption, a statistical correlation study would not be possible. This assumption is considered both reasonable and justified in prior research (Kristoffersen, 2017). If the IPT workgroup has below-average life satisfaction scores, this could be significant since most well-being is measured above neutral in Western countries (Pavot & Diener, 1993).

### E. Target Population and Sample

The identified population and resulting sample group used in this pilot research study will attempt to glimpse the current life satisfaction of the IPT workgroup in the United States. The population demographics have been thoroughly explored by multiple sources, which provides a solid foundation to obtain an ideal sample (Cunningham, 2018; Valletta et al., 2020; U.S. Department of Labor, 2015). It would be outside

the scope of this study to obtain data from every IPT employed individual in the United States. Therefore, a cluster sampling technique will pinpoint locations where this population is most likely to frequent. A sample size of 385 respondents is necessary to gain a significant result.

### 1) Population

The population consists of involuntary part-time employees in the United States. Involuntary part-time employees consist of approximately 6.7% of total employment (Cunningham, 2018). Involuntary part-time employees represent 1.75 million individuals in the United States who want full-time employment but can only attain part-time employment (Valletta et al., 2020). IPT employees are a workgroup that has remained elevated even as unemployment levels decline (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015; Valletta et al., 2020). Historically, blacks and Hispanics tend to be more likely to engage in IPT employment than whites (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015). While there are differences in voluntary part-time employment by age and gender, no significant differences exist within the IPT employment workgroup (Valletta et al., 2020). Most part-time jobs, in general, are concentrated in low-skill industries such as the retail and services sectors and include individuals of all legal working ages (Valletta et al., 2020).

### 2) Sample

The most significant issue affecting the validity and reliability of self-reported life satisfaction is the individual response style differences between groups (Boarini, 2013). A sufficiently large sample size will minimize this potential bias to the population averages (Boarini, 2013). The cultural differences of life satisfaction drivers will be diffused by restricting the sample population to the United States (Boarini, 2013). Furthermore, the IPT employment group is characterized by a preference for full-time employment with the inability to attain full-time work due to economic conditions (Valletta et al., 2020). Therefore, the sample population will be attained through cluster sampling targeted at employment assistant centers, job-seeking Facebook groups, and online job boards. Additional exclusion criteria require that the respondent be 18 years and older, currently employed in the United States, and be currently IPT employed.

Current 2020 census data for the United States lists IPT individuals over 18 years of age to have a total population of 3,746,000 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021). Other sources have provided alternate estimates of the IPT employment population in the United States (Cunningham, 2018; Valletta et al., 2020). However, only the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics has provided all of the data necessary to confirm current and accurate statistics that separate individuals under 18 years of age, which is necessary for this study. Based on the data provided by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, the sample size required for an accurate study would be 385 participants. This sample size was determined using the sample size calculator on Qualtrics with a population of 3,746,000, a 5% margin of error, and a 95% confidence interval (Qualtrics, 2021).

### 3) Power Analysis

This will be a pilot study, so no power analysis is required.

## F. Procedures

This section will cover participant selection, participant protections, data collection procedures, and how the data will be analyzed. A cluster sampling technique will be utilized to target the identified population for this research study. Minimal participant risks are posed to the survey responders as no identifying information will be collected, only key demographic data will be required, and this research is not based on a sensitive topic. However, transparency will be a key component when approaching potential sample candidates (Wellington et al., 2007). IPT employees are characterized by participation in part-time employment due to the inability to attain full-time employment based on economic variables (Groshen, 2020). Therefore, this survey will be delivered to individuals who are participating in job-seeking behaviors to target IPT employees and answer research question number two.

### 1) Participant Selection

Cluster sampling is a method used when the population can be divided into natural groups that can be considered scaled-down versions of the entire population (Wellington et al., 2007). Cluster sampling is a form of probability sampling and is appropriate for large populations where the researcher is concerned with the typical patterns and not the exceptions of the population (Wellington et al., 2007). Probability sampling is typically used with quantitative research and is appropriate for this study (Wellington et al., 2007). Sampling always results in a compromise, and while access to all 1.75 million IPT employees would be ideal, time and access constraints prevent total population representation from occurring (Wellington et al., 2007). Multiple methods of accessing sample clusters were utilized to gain access to sample participants.

This study survey will be distributed through various methods both on and offline. These methods will consist of social media groups and feeds, job search message boards, employment agencies, community center posters, and hand-distributed fliers. First, online employment boards were sought, including requested access to Facebook groups that assist individuals in attaining employment. Not all members of these groups will be currently part of the IPT workgroup; therefore, those individuals who are not IPT employed and respond to the survey request will be excluded from the research data for the second research question. Three Facebook groups have been targeted for access for research purposes which include "JOBS JOBS JOBS!" which has 12.3 thousand group members, "Employment Opportunities in Lorain County" with 17.4 thousand members, and "Job Seeking" with 31.5 thousand members. Access to these groups has already been granted to the researcher. The research survey will be presented via Qualtrics online via multiple posts to the group. Second a more direct method with organized employment assistance organizations will also be used. Integrity Staffing Services, PeopleReady, Express Employment Professionals will all be contacted to access their customer base. Third, community posters and hand-distributed fliers with QR codes connected to the survey link will be distributed in key areas such as community centers and local job search businesses. Using a cluster sampling technique on and offline will allow the study to gain access to individuals who may not have access to the internet. The Qualtrics survey link will be provided to the organization

to email out to their customers. Please refer to Table 1 for a full list of survey distribution opportunities.

**Table I**  
Survey Distribution Plan (Contact with organizations is pending approval)

Organization	Specific Mode of Distribution	Contact Information if Applicable
Facebook Group	JOBBS <u>JOBBS</u> <u>JOBBS!</u>	
Facebook Group	Employment Opportunities in Lorain County	
Facebook Group	Job Seeking	
Staffing Organization	Integrity Staffing Services	<a href="mailto:sales@integritystaffing.com">sales@integritystaffing.com</a>
Staffing Organization	<u>PeopleReady.</u>	<a href="mailto:InsideSales@PeopleReady.com">InsideSales@PeopleReady.com</a>
Staffing Organization	Express Employment Professionals	<a href="mailto:onlineinfo@expresspros.com">onlineinfo@expresspros.com</a>
Staffing Organization	Safe Staffing Ohio	<a href="mailto:Safe_ohio@yahoo.com">Safe_ohio@yahoo.com</a>

2) *Protection of Participants*

This research poses only minor ethical issues and does not impose any potential physical or emotional harm to the participants. Transparency is vital in maintaining ethical standards in research (Wellington et al., 2007). The total time commitment necessary will be under ten minutes in length, with eleven survey questions. Only basic demographic information will be collected, such as state, age, employment contract, gender, the existence of dependents, and access to benefits. Furthermore, all surveys will be taken anonymously by the participant. An online platform called Qualtrics will be used to attain and store survey responses. The researcher will not have access to I.P. addresses or any other information that could reveal the identity of the respondents.

3) *Data Collection*

Data collection will be conducted exclusively with Qualtrics, an online survey, and a statistical management tool. Qualtrics collects and safely manages respondent data with state-of-the-art data encryption, redundancy, continuous network monitoring, and Single Sign-On (Qualtrics, 2021). Qualtrics is ISO 27001 certified, and FedRamp authorized (Qualtrics, 2021). Personally, identifiable respondent information can be restricted, and only the leading researcher will have access to the raw data (Qualtrics, 2021). Survey respondents will be told to participate in a research study on part-time employees in the United States through either a direct email or social media post. If they choose to participate, they will click a link and be directed to a survey on Qualtrics that will take less than ten minutes of their time. After the respondent has taken the survey, the data goes into the Qualtrics database and is incorporated into the complete statistical raw data profile.

4) *Data Analysis*

a) *Descriptive Statistics*

The proposed research project utilizes the Point-Biserial correlation for binomial demographic data, which calculates the relationship between numerical and binomial variables by

assigning either a 1 or 0 to each binomial category (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2017). After the binomial variable is converted to a numeric value, the Pearson correlation is then used to determine the r-value (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2017). Demographic data correlations that are non-binomial will use the Pearson correlation, and the point-biserial method will not be necessary. Correlation analyses are commonly used for theory validation with non-manipulated variables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2017). For reference, a 2015 study used the Pearson correlation coefficient (Pearson r) to statistically analyze demographic survey variables with summated diabetes self-management Likert survey data (Adwan & Najjar, 2013). A two-tailed hypothesis with a .05 alpha rating would be appropriate to determine the existence of this relationship. To increase the likelihood of achieving a significant positive result, a large sample set should be sought for this study due to the law of large numbers (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2017). IBM SPSS statistical software will be used to translate the raw data into results. The survey item is in the form of Likert score data and consists of categorized and non-continuous numerals, which identify it as ordinal (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2017). However, upon completing the Likert survey, individual scores will be compared to the satisfaction categories (Appendix A) to provide one ordinal data set to correlate with the demographic data, which in some cases is binomial. The correlation coefficient can range from 1.00 to -1.00. A score closer to 1 indicates a perfectly consistent relationship between two variables, and a score closer to zero indicates no consistent relationship (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2017). A correlation coefficient will determine how accurately IPT employment predicts life satisfaction and if there is a correlation between benefit access and life satisfaction.

Correlation analysis can also be viewed in a scatterplot. When reviewing the graph, outliers may have affected the correlation analysis. Outliers are individual data points that are substantially different from all other values in the data sets (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2017). A scatterplot can also be beneficial to confirm the positive or negative relationship established by the correlation analysis (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2017).

b) *Hypothesis Testing*

After the Point-Biserial or Pearson correlation has been calculated, the data results will be compared to the hypotheses. The first null hypothesis states that participation in the involuntary part-time workforce in the United States does not have a negative correlation with self-reported life satisfaction scores. Comparing the survey data provides a Likert score for life satisfaction. Each survey respondent will have their responses for each of the five Likert survey items added to achieve one final score. That final score will be compared to the categories in Appendix A of the SWLS to determine the strength of life satisfaction for the IPT work group.

The second null hypothesis states that access to fringe benefits does not significantly correlate with the self-reported life satisfaction score of involuntary part-time workers in the United States. For this analysis, all respondents who stated that they do not participate in IPT employment will be excluded. Next, comparing the survey data provides a Likert score for life satisfaction and another score for access to

fringe benefits. Respondents will be able to select as many fringe benefits as applicable that apply to them. The number of benefits selected will indicate the respondent's access to fringe benefits. A Pearson correlation statistical analysis will be used to determine the positive, negative, or non-existent relationship between the number of benefits selected and life satisfaction scores. Access to fringe benefits will be the predictor or independent variable, and life satisfaction will be the dependent variable. A statistically significant correlation greater than .05 will fail to reject the null hypothesis. SPSS will also provide the strength of the relationship, which can be confirmed through a scatterplot graph.

c) *Post-hoc Analysis. Not required for this research*

### G. Instruments

#### 1) *Satisfaction With Life Scale*

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) has been granted free to use, and permission has been given by the author Ed Diener copyright 2006. This scale has been provided to diverse populations to attain normative data. Age groups, prisoners, alcohol abuse sufferers, students, abused women, psychotherapy clients, those with disabilities, and elderly caregivers are some of the groups who have provided sample populations for the SWLS (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Significant variability has been observed between and within the listed sample groups; however, the accumulated data has provided a scoring table that lists 20 as neutral (Appendix A). A score between 20-24 can be considered an average score and will provide the baseline for confirming the first research question for this study (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Most average group scores in the diverse groups who took the SWLS scored between 23-28 (Pavot & Diener, 1993). This is a comparative finding that most well-being is measured above neutral in Western countries (Pavot & Diener, 1993). The SWLS has also been tested for reliability and sensitivity. Overall it has shown strong internal reliability and moderate temporal stability (Pavot & Diener, 1993).

#### a) *Validity*

The SWLS has had significant testing to establish its convergence with related measures such as interviewer or informant ratings, the Andrews/Withey Scale, and the Fordyce Global Scale to measure life satisfaction (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Different methods to measure life satisfaction compare favorably to the convergence of other well-being constructs (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Clinical measures of distress such as the Beck Depression Inventory and the Symptom Checklist-90 have shown a negative correlation with SWLS (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Another measure of overall well-being, affect, has also been administered in conjunction with the SWLS, which supported the idea that affective well-being and life satisfaction are not equivalent constructs (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Extroversion, a construct repeatedly found to correlate with well-being, is positively correlated with the SWLS (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Further studies conclude that the SWLS is unrelated to gender or age and shows a strong correlation with marital status and health, which have previously been a factor in life satisfaction (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Multiple independent studies also provide evidence that supports the discriminant validity of the SWLS (Pavot & Diener, 1993).

#### b) *Reliability*

The SWLS has strong internal reliability during a 2-month test-retest with a reported coefficient alpha of 0.87 (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Additional external research has reported internal consistency and temporal reliability data for the SWLS (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Over extensive periods, the test-retest stability does decrease to 0.54, which suggests that the SWLS has recorded life satisfaction changes in an individual's life over time (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Unfortunately, long-term stability coefficients account for only half of the variance in life satisfaction as measured by the SWLS, which implies that this tool declines instability over a long period of time (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Positive and adverse events in an individual's life were related to SWLS scores (Pavot & Diener, 1993).

#### 2) *Demographic Survey*

In order to collect the necessary information required to address the research questions presented in this study, additional demographic survey questions will be added to the SWLS. These questions will ask about age, race, employment contract, state, gender, dependents, and benefits access (See appendix B). To provide an ethical and inclusive environment, the gender inquiry will include an open question box and male and female options. Gender is an important component of this research since some previous studies on well-being associated with IPT employment have found differences associated with gender, and some have not (Montero & Rau, 2015; Voßemer et al., 2018). Race and ethnicity are also reflected in involuntary part-time employment demographics. In 2017, Blacks and Hispanics made up a total of 10% of the involuntary part-time workforce as a percentage of total employment (Cunningham, 2018). This is contrasted sharply with the only 3% involuntary part-time employment for whites (Cunningham, 2018). By collecting race data in this study's demographic survey, it can be confirmed that the sample appropriately represents the targeted population.

Age will be collected in bands, considering retirement age, legal adulthood, and college graduation. Geographical location by the state is also an important variable to consider since labor market conditions fluctuate based on local governmental policies (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). Data on the number of dependents living in the household will be collected as well. Many fringe benefits such as parental leave and flexible work arrangements may be particularly beneficial to parents and play a part in their overall well-being (White & Maniam, 2020). Finally, information pertaining to fringe benefit access is required to answer the research questions established in this study. The fringe benefit demographic question in this survey (see Appendix B) is comparable to the National Longitudinal Survey fringe benefit question used by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, n.d.).

### H. Summary

The precedent for using a Pearson correlation or the point-biserial method to statistically analyze the relationship between summated Likert score data and demographic data in SPSS has been established in current literature (Adwan & Najjar, 2013). The Pearson correlation method will be the basis of this research to answer the established hypotheses associated with life satisfaction, fringe benefit access, and IPT employment. Study participants will be accessed through a

clustered sampling technique that considers a potential lack of internet access for the IPT group. Only pertinent demographic information will be gathered, and all data will be contained using safety measures provided by Qualtrics.

The total survey presented to respondents will consist of thirteen questions and take under ten minutes of their time. Current 2020 census data for the United States lists IPT individuals over 18 years of age to be a total population of 3,746,000 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021). This will be the predominant population of which a sample of 385 will be required to answer the research questions (Qualtrics, 2021).

IV. CHAPTER 4

A. Introduction

This chapter aims to discuss the analysis of the study results and how the data relates to the hypothesis presented. Research questions explored here consist of first identifying if a correlation exists between life satisfaction and the involuntary part-time work group then second conducting a Pearson correlation between the life satisfaction score variable and the number of fringe benefits each participant self-reported as having access to. To understand the potential factors affecting the data, the sample demographics of the 156 Involuntary Part-time (IPT) employee respondents and sampling methods in action will be discussed. Table 1 provides an in-depth breakdown of the gender, age, location, race, marital status, and the existence of dependents. Next, the two hypothesis questions will be reiterated, and the data will be compared to the null hypothesis to determine if the research questions have been answered appropriately. The two hypotheses are:

Hypothesis I: Participation in the involuntary part-time workforce in the United States has a negative correlation with self-reported life satisfaction scores.

Hypothesis II: Access to fringe benefits positively correlates with the self-reported life satisfaction score of involuntary part-time workers in the United States.

To answer the research questions, the Pearson correlation, if significant, will be followed up with an r-squared calculation to determine the true significance of this study's findings, and a scatterplot will be utilized to determine the existence of outliers that are potentially skewing the data. Descriptive statistics shown in Table 4 will assist in answering the first hypothesis. To conclude this chapter, additional correlation analysis will be conducted between gathered demographic data and SWLS scores.

B. Description of the Sample

The sample attained for this study was gathered through cluster sampling in pockets of employment and job attainment opportunities exclusively online. This included social media sites such as Reddit, Facebook, Twitter, and various currently existing job messaging boards. Temporary employment agencies and social justice-focused employment organizations were also tagged in posts and participated in the survey distribution. Data was collected, and the survey remained open for precisely four weeks. This pilot study did

not achieve the goal of 385 participants. This research resulted in 156 viable survey respondents who met the criteria to answer the research questions. No offline samples were able to be obtained due to a lack of participation and cooperation by physical locations.

Demographic questions included in the survey consisted of race, gender, age, location, responsibility for dependents, and marital status. Table 2 provides a breakdown of the demographic characteristics of the respondents. Races listed in the 'other' category consisted of Arab, Asian, Pacific Islander, Asian American, Chinese, Filipino, mixed, Native American, and Vietnamese. The U.S. states that were not represented by the survey sample include Kansas, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. Finally, access to fringe benefits was also collected as part of the demographic data segment of this survey and will be discussed further in this paper.

**Table II**  
Completed Sample Demographics Summary

Options	Full sample		Total respondents	
	n	%	n	%
Gender				
Female	108	69	109	70
Male	47	30	48	30
Race				
Black	7	4	7	4
Hispanic	14	9	14	9
White	104	67	106	68
Other	38	24	38	24
Age				
18-25	92	59	134	45
26-32	33	21	69	23
33-45	21	13	64	21
46-55	8	5	21	7
56-65	2	1	5	2
65+	0	0	1	0
U.S. State				
Alabama	3	2	4	2
Alaska	2	1	2	1
Arizona	2	1	2	1
Arkansas	2	1	2	1
California	43	28	44	24
Colorado	4	3	5	3
Connecticut	1	1	1	1
Delaware	1	1	1	1
Florida	11	7	11	6
Georgia	3	2	3	2
Hawaii	3	2	3	2
Idaho	1	1	1	1
Illinois	4	3	4	2
Indiana	2	1	2	1
Iowa	1	1	1	1
Kentucky	2	1	2	1
Louisiana	1	1	1	1
Massachusetts	2	1	2	1
Minnesota	4	3	4	2
Mississippi	1	1	1	1
Missouri	2	1	2	1
Nevada	1	1	1	1

## How Involuntary Part-Time Employment is Correlated with Life Satisfaction in the U.S.A.

New Jersey	2	1	2	1
New Mexico	1	1	1	1
New York	8	5	8	4
North Carolina	1	1	1	1
Ohio	29	19	29	16
Pennsylvania	1	1	1	1
Texas	10	6	11	6
Utah	1	1	1	1
Washington	5	3	5	3
Wyoming	1	1	2	1
South Carolina	1	1	1	1
<b>Dependents</b>				
Yes	41	26	41	26
No	114	73	116	74
<b>Marital Status</b>				
Married	31	20	32	20
Single	122	78	123	78
Divorced	2	1	2	1
Total IPT Employees	156		185	

Demographic characteristics that deserve additional mention include gender, state, dependents, marital status, and age. When looking at the full sample of 156 participants in Table 2, it is clear that a majority of respondents were between the ages of 18-25; n=92 which represents 59% of the sample. The younger age demographic captured during this research then accounts for the predominant lack of dependents (n=114, 73%) and single marital status (n=122, 78%). The gender and race demographic responses do provide new information that warrants additional discussion as it relates to previous existing research on gender and IPT employment in the United States. These categories will be explored in depth during the discussion portion of this paper. Finally, there were clearly four states that provided more respondents than others. California, Florida, and Texas provided logical respondent majorities due to population sizes. Ohio had the second largest number of respondents at 29 because that is the home state of the researcher. Since this research was done completely online and utilized social media, all qualified individuals with existing relationships to the researcher were the first to have access to this research survey.

Due to the nature of social media, not all potential participants from the selected pool received an alert of the posted research request. However, current 2020 census data for the United States lists Involuntary Part-time (IPT) individuals over 18 years of age to be a total population of 3,746,000 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021). The sample size of 385 was the goal using the sample size calculator on Qualtrics with a population of 3,746,000, a 5% margin of error, and a 95% confidence interval (Qualtrics, 2021). In total 144 survey respondents out of the original 300 responses collected were omitted. Completed surveys were rejected from the study if they did not pass the screening process or failed to complete all five questions of the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS), resulting in the final valid survey respondent data of 156.

### C. Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis I: Participation in the involuntary part-time workforce in the United States has a negative correlation with self-reported life satisfaction scores.

A Point-Biserial Pearson correlation was computed to assess the relationship between SWLS scores and gender-separated by male and female of the IPT employment

group. As shown in Table 4, calculations did not result in a significant correlation at  $r = .123$ ,  $N = 155$  which is not significant at the .05 alpha level for a 2-tailed test ( $p = .127$ ). This study fails to reject the null hypothesis: participation in the involuntary part-time workforce in the United States does not have a negative correlation with self-reported life satisfaction scores.

**Table III**

Descriptive Statistics of SWLS Scores

<b>N</b>	<b>Valid</b>	<b>156</b>
	<b>Missing</b>	<b>0</b>
<b>Mean</b>		<b>19.02</b>
<b>Median</b>		<b>20.00</b>
<b>Mode</b>		<b>19<sup>a</sup></b>
<b>Std. Deviation</b>		<b>6.976</b>
<b>Minimum</b>		<b>5</b>
<b>Maximum</b>		<b>34</b>

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

**Table IV**

Correlation Between SWLS Scores and IPT Employment Group Separated by Male and Female Gender

### Correlations

		SWLS Score	Gender
SWLS Score	Pearson Correlation	1	.123
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.127
	N	156	155
Gender	Pearson Correlation	.123	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.127	
	N	155	155

**Table V**

Descriptive Statistics of Number of Fringe Benefits

# of Fringe Benefits		
<b>N</b>	<b>Valid</b>	<b>155</b>
	<b>Missing</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Mean</b>		<b>1.99</b>
<b>Median</b>		<b>2.00</b>
<b>Mode</b>		<b>0</b>
<b>Std. Deviation</b>		<b>1.936</b>

**Table VI**  
Total Distribution of the Number of Fringe Benefits

# of Fringe Benefits		N	%
0		42	26.9%
1		29	18.6%
2		31	19.9%
3		27	17.3%
4		12	7.7%
5		6	3.8%
6		4	2.6%
7		1	0.6%
9		2	1.3%
10		1	0.6%
Missing	System	1	0.6%

Hypothesis II: Access to fringe benefits positively correlates with the self-reported life satisfaction score of involuntary part-time workers in the United States.

A Pearson correlation was computed to assess the relationship between SWLS scores and the number of fringe benefits indicated by the respondents. As shown in Table 7, calculations resulted in a positive correlation of  $r = .171$ ,  $N = 155$  which is significant at the .05 alpha level for a 2-tailed test ( $p = .033$ ). This study rejects the null hypothesis; therefore, a statistically significant positive correlation has been found between SWLS scores of IPT employees and the number of fringe benefits available to these individuals.

The assumptions associated with a Pearson correlation calculation include the absence of outliers, linearity, related pairs, and level of measurement (Statistic Solutions, 2021). The level of measurement discusses the continuous nature of each variable. In this study, the two variables regarding research question number one consist of SWLS scores and the dichotomous variable of IPT employees split by gender. The two variables for research question number two consist of SWLS scores and the number of fringe benefits. The SWLS score is a total of five Likert questions, which could indicate an ordinal measurement and the necessity of using a Spearman correlation calculation instead of a Pearson (Statistic Solutions, 2021). However, as discussed in chapter 3, the precedent for using a Pearson correlation or the point-biserial method to statistically analyze the relationship between summated Likert score data and demographic data in SPSS has been established in current literature (Adwan & Najjar, 2013). For argument's sake, a Spearman's rho correlation was also run. It resulted in a significant correlation of  $r = .209$  at the .01 alpha level in a 2-tailed test between SWLS scores and the number of fringe benefits self-reported by respondents.

Linearity and outlier assumptions address the trajectory of the data which can best be viewed on the scatterplot in Fig. 1 (Statistic Solutions, 2021). The three outliers have been removed and the Pearson correlation reperfomed in Table 8 to address the lack of outlier assumptions in the number of fringe benefits self-reported data. The linearity of the data

refers to the shape of the variables as viewed in Fig. 1. The lack of a curved line of data indicates that the assumption of linearity has been fulfilled (Statistic Solutions, 2021). Finally, the assumption of related pairs requires that every SWLS score have a comparable 'number of fringe benefits' score (Statistic Solutions, 2021). SPSS is a program that negates any data sets that do not have the appropriate pairs necessary for a Pearson correlation calculation as shown by N in Table 7.

The correlation coefficient can range from 1.00 to -1.00. A score closer to 1 indicates a perfectly consistent relationship between two variables, and a score closer to zero indicates no consistent relationship (Gravetter & Wallnau 2017). To determine how accurately the number of available benefits predicts a SWLS score, the correlation coefficient of .171 must be squared (Gravetter & Wallnau 2017). That provides an r-squared of .029241, which translates to a predictability of 2.92%. This means that fringe benefit access is responsible for 2.92% of the total variability of SWLS score fluctuations.

The results of the correlation analysis can also be depicted visually through a scatter plot. Referring to Fig. 1, more fringe benefits do seem correlated with higher SWLS scores for IPT employees. However, overall SWLS scores range widely throughout the number of fringe benefits selected and do not provide a clear correlation between the two variables. When reviewing the graph, it is possible that outliers have affected the correlation analysis as there are only three points at the highest end of fringe benefits selected. Outliers are individual data points that are substantially different from all other values in the data sets (Gravetter & Wallnau 2017). In this case, a few outliers seem to be inflating the data sets and causing inflation in the correlation size.

**Table VII**  
Correlation results between SWLS Score and the Number of Fringe Benefits

		Correlations	
		SWLS Score	# of Fringe Benefits
SWLS Score	Pearson Correlation	1	.171*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.033
	N	156	155
# of Fringe Benefits	Pearson Correlation	.171*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.033	
	N	155	155

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).



**Figure I**  
Scatterplot of SWLS Scores and the Number of Fringe Benefits

## How Involuntary Part-Time Employment is Correlated with Life Satisfaction in the U.S.A.

### D. Summary of Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis I: Participation in the involuntary part-time workforce in the United States has a negative correlation with self-reported life satisfaction scores.

Table 4 provides an overview of the conclusion for the first hypothesis in that participation in the involuntary part-time workforce, as separated by gender, in the United States does not have a significant correlation with self-reported life satisfaction scores.

Hypothesis II: Access to fringe benefits positively correlates with the self-reported life satisfaction score of involuntary part-time workers in the United States.

Table 7 provides an overview of the conclusion for the second hypothesis in that a statistically significant correlation has been found between SWLS scores of IPT employees and the number of fringe benefits available to these individuals. These results were calculated using the Pearson correlation function in the SPSS program.

### E. Post-hoc Analysis

To test for outliers a scatterplot was used as shown in Fig. 1. This table shows the existence of three outliers consisting of respondents who replied that they had access to either nine or ten benefit options. The absence of outliers is an assumption of a correlation analysis and could be skewing the overall correlation data; therefore, they must be tested for (Gravetter & Wallnau 2017). Table 8 depicts the Pearson correlation between SWLS scores and the number of fringe benefits available to the survey respondents when the three highest outliers were omitted. The three highest outliers can be seen in Fig. 1 as the respondents selected their fringe benefit access to be either nine or ten items. After omitting the outliers, the correlation provides a significant correlation at the .01 alpha level for a 2-tailed hypothesis test at .213. To determine how accurately the number of available benefits predicts an SWLS score in Table 8, the correlation coefficient of .213 must be squared (Gravetter & Wallnau 2017). That provides an r-squared of 0.045369, which translates to the predictability of 4.54%. This means that fringe benefit access is responsible for 4.54% of the total variability of SWLS score fluctuations. Therefore, the outliers did not create an error in the data and the removal of the outliers strengthens the positive correlation between the variables.

**Table VIII**

Correlation Between SWLS Scores and Number of Fringe Benefits When Three Outliers Have Been Discarded.

#### Correlations

		SWLS Score	# of Fringe Benefits
SWLS Score	Pearson Correlation	1	.213**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.008
	N	156	152
# of Fringe Benefits	Pearson Correlation	.213**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	
	N	152	152

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Additional correlational calculations were conducted on all demographic data as it related to SWLS scores. Table 9

depicts the conclusion that no other correlations exist between SWLS scores and other collected data.

**Table IX**

Pearson Correlation Between Demographic Data Collected and SWLS Scores

		SWLS Score
SWLS Score	Pearson Correlation	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	156
Age	Pearson Correlation	-.064
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.424
	N	156
State	Pearson Correlation	-.075
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.352
	N	156
Gender	Pearson Correlation	.123
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.127
	N	155
Dependents	Pearson Correlation	.013
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.876
	N	155
Marital Status	Pearson Correlation	-.109
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.177
	N	155

The screening questions presented at the start of this survey consisted of participation in the IPT workforce, age, and location. If the respondents indicated that they were not over 18, were voluntarily part-time employed, or did not live in the United States, they were not permitted to continue with the survey. Based on the nature of the screening process, more respondents answered the screening questions than were included in the final sample of 156. Please see Table 2 for a complete breakdown of demographic responses based on the final sample and those that were not included in the final results. Therefore, 294 respondents were polled on their age, while only 156 were included in the final results. The number of respondents that were selected out for not choosing IPT was 109. When looking at Table 2, the total number of participants for the study was 156, with 59% of those in the 18-25 age range and 41% selecting an age bracket above that. When looking at the total population of 294 participants that responded to the screening question, 54% selected an age range of 18-25, while 45.6% chose an age bracket above that. Therefore, the survey data implies that as age increases, participation in IPT employment decreases. Table 10 confirms this assumption with a Pearson correlation between the two variables with  $r = -.315$  at a .01 alpha level of a two-tailed test.

**Table 10**

Correlation Between Age and Participation in IPT Workforce

#### Correlations

		Employment Status	Age
Employment Status	Pearson Correlation	1	-.315**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001
	N	300	294
Age	Pearson Correlation	-.315**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	
	N	294	294

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).



#### F. Summary

The 156 respondent sample attained for this study was gathered through cluster sampling in pockets of employment and job attainment opportunities exclusively online. Hypothesis one has been rejected by calculating the point-biserial correlation between SWLS scores for IPT employees by gender and hypothesis two has been confirmed using SPSS to calculate a Pearson correlation. Table 7 depicts that fringe benefit access is associated with higher life satisfaction scores. None of the demographic data shown in Table 2 produced a significant correlation between the demographic data and SWLS scores. However, further potential research opportunities were revealed in Table 10, with a clear association between age and participation in the IPT workforce. All assumptions associated with a Pearson correlation calculation including the absence of outliers, linearity, related pairs, and level of measurement, have also been confirmed (Statistic Solutions, 2021).

### V. CHAPTER 5

#### A. Summary of Results

The purpose of this study was to close the knowledge gaps in existing research on the IPT employment group in the United States by reviewing the life satisfaction score and potential association of fringe benefit access. This included exploring the life-satisfaction of an insecure workgroup in the United States and providing an in-depth view of at least one labor policy factor that could be affecting IPT employee life-satisfaction. This data was then compared to current demographic respondent information to determine if the overall makeup of the IPT group had changed since 2010. This study considers the importance of providing fringe benefit access, either through governmental or employment avenues, when considering employee life satisfaction and satisfies the advocacy/participatory worldview theoretical framework of the researcher.

The first research question is focused on understanding the correlation between Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) scores and the IPT workgroup in the United States. The resulting Point-Biserial Pearson correlation analysis fails to reject the null hypothesis which states: participation in the involuntary part-time workforce in the United States does not have a negative correlation with self-reported life satisfaction scores. To answer the second research question, a Pearson correlation was computed to assess the relationship between SWLS scores and the number of fringe benefits indicated by the respondents. A statistically significant correlation has been found between SWLS scores of IPT employees and the number of fringe benefits available to those individuals. This research indicates that as the number of fringe benefits decreases, the life satisfaction scores of IPT employees also decrease.

Additional literature has been discovered on IPT employment and its effect on an individual's life satisfaction since the beginning of this study. Specifically, there have been findings that younger generations are affected more strongly by IPT employment in more prosperous democracies, and those findings have been replicated in this research (Ravenelle, 2020). The author reiterates previous literature by outlining how labor market policies and employment

protection laws differ between countries and affect the overall wellbeing scores of IPT employees (Ravenelle, 2020). However, a new connection is made between the generous social welfare benefits and an increase in job and financial security for its citizens (Ravenelle, 2020). This new literature does not replace the data collected through this study since it uses the U.S. Department of Labor data that does not include part-time workers into the part-time category if they work over 35 cumulative hours a week, even if they hold a part-time status with decreased benefit offerings as their job(s) (Valletta et al., 2020). Maintaining a country-specific focus on the USA, narrowing the study down to only the IPT workforce, and generating original data are critical conditions of this study that have been lacking in the past labor market and self-reported wellness research (Voßemer et al., 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015; Valletta et al., 2020).

#### B. Discussion of the Results

Research question number one explored the correlation between SWLS scores and the IPT employed workgroup. A score of 20 represents a neutral point where the respondent is equally satisfied and dissatisfied (Pavot & Diener, 1993). This research found no significant correlation between SWLS scores and the IPT employment group when divided by gender. The SWLS has been found in previous research to be uncorrelated with gender or age, and these findings were replicated in this study when the Pearson correlation was applied to the demographic data and the SWLS scores (Pavot & Diener, 1993). However, marital status has been previously shown to correlate with SWLS scores, which was not replicated in this study (Pavot & Diener, 1993).

One limitation of this research was the accumulation of online-only respondents. This may have resulted in obtaining a dataset that was skewed towards the younger age brackets. As shown in Table 2, most of the surveys were taken by those between the ages of 18 – 25. Since the established normative data for SWLS scores for young adults in America range between 23 and 25.2, the inability to obtain a sample from the older population offline may have skewed the scores upwards (Pavot & Diener, 1993). However, the normative mean accumulated for Western countries is frequently found to be between 23 – 28, which fall into the Slightly Satisfied or Satisfied categories as depicted in Appendix A (Pavot & Diener, 1993). When the mean score of 19.02 SWLS score of the IPT workgroup found in this research is compared to the 23-28 average Western SWLS score, it implies a significant difference between these groups that may need to be further researched.

Research question number two explored the relationship between fringe benefit access and SWLS scores. A Pearson correlational analysis resulted in a significant positive correlation between the number of fringe benefits available to an IPT employee and their SWLS score. Since fringe benefit access is responsible for only 2.92% of the total variability of SWLS score fluctuations as calculated by r squared (Table 7), it may not be a good predictor of an employee's satisfaction with their overall life. This is a logical observation since the SWLS average score discovered in this study for IPT employees as 19.2 can result from multiple life factors. The Slightly Below Average category states that people who score in this range may have small but significant problems in several areas of their lives or only have one significant life problem (Pavot & Diener, 2013). Therefore, simply

providing more benefits to employees may or may not raise life satisfaction scores.

### C. Conclusions Based on Results

#### 1) Comparison of the Findings with the Theoretical Framework and Previous Literature

The researcher approached this study with an advocacy/participatory worldview theoretical framework. Therefore, the researcher was interested in advancing social justice agendas and enhancing an individual's work-life environment (Creswell, 2008). Overall the researcher was interested in discovering a negative association shown in previous research between participation in the IPT workgroup and life satisfaction scores. This study's results from the first research question does not mimic the findings of previous literature that insecure jobs, such as the IPT workforce, are correlated with the decrease in overall life satisfaction found in other countries (Voßemer et al., 2018; Imhof & Andresen, 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015; Kauhanen & Nätti, 2015; Scherer, 2009).

The demographic data collected in this research differs in some ways from that previously collected in IPT employment studies. Some previous studies on well-being associated with IPT employment have found differences associated with gender, and some have not (Montero & Rau, 2015; Voßemer et al., 2018). However, women were one group that is disproportionately affected by labor market fluctuations caused by the pandemic in the United States (Groschen, 2020). This could account for the gender differences associated with the survey response for this research. Race and ethnicity are also reflected in the literature on involuntary part-time employment demographics. For instance, in 2017, Blacks and Hispanics made up a total of 10% of the involuntary part-time workforce as a percentage of total employment (Cunningham, 2018). This is contrasted sharply with only 3% involuntary part-time employment for whites (Cunningham, 2018). Demographics gathered in this research showed whites being the primary race in the IPT group. However, it is unclear if the IPT racial profile has altered from 2017 based on the labor market stress associated with the pandemic and passing of the Affordable Care Act or if minority groups were not appropriately represented.

Previous literature has found that additional research was needed on the specific organizational and political labor policies that affect a part-time worker's life satisfaction (Voßemer et al., 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015). Research question number two contributed to the existing research by providing additional information on how fringe benefits offerings affect the IPT workgroup. This was critical new data since research on the correlations between part-time work and well-being in the United States had not been conducted post-2010 (Montero & Rau, 2015). New research on this topic considers the labor market challenges since 2010, such as the Affordable Care Act (ACA) and Covid-19.

#### 2) Interpretation of Findings

This study indicates that a lack of access to fringe benefits significantly correlates with a lower life satisfaction score in the IPT workgroup. Employers create IPT positions in the United States typically to cheapen the cost of labor and shift the risk of employment to the workers (Ravenelle, 2020). Labor market changes associated with a lack of employment

predictability or security, globalization, deregulation, technological advances, and privatization contribute to the increase of the IPT workforce and the decrease of this workgroups overall wellbeing (Ravenelle, 2020).

The recommendation gained from reflection on this data is that as the part-time employment segment continues to grow, employers should invest in well-being-oriented H.R. activities to increase overall productivity (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). The gender and race disparities depicted in the demographic data of the survey collection for this research indicate that demographics may change compared to the existing literature on the IPT group based on labor market factors. However, the demographic differences could also be attributed to the inclusion of individuals in this study who work over 35 hours but are not yet considered full-time by any employer.

The positive outcomes associated with individuals who report higher ratings of life satisfaction include decreased risk of suicide, higher sociability, higher extroversion, a better quality of sleep, and higher happiness of close relatives (Boarini et al., 2013). The results of this research will provide data that can assist labor market decision-makers and organizational leadership on the needs of current IPT in the job market and consider labor market changes in the United States since the passing of the ACA and the effect of Covid-19. Maintaining a country-specific focus on the USA, narrowing the study down to only the IPT workforce, and generating original data are critical conditions of this study that have been lacking in the past labor market and self-reported wellness research (Voßemer et al., 2018; Montero & Rau, 2015; Valletta et al., 2020). Furthermore, the use of life satisfaction as a construct of overall wellbeing provides a valid and reliable measurement device that can allow this data to be used for comparison in future studies on IPT labor market studies (Boarini et al., 2013).

A surprising finding from this research is the observed relationship between age and participation in the IPT workforce. Data suggests that as age increases, participation in IPT employment decreases, as shown in a Pearson correlation in Table 10. Further investigation revealed newly published data that indicated a relationship between age and IPT employees (Ravenelle, 2020). Potential reasons for this new correlation in the United States that was not addressed in literature until recently could be based on the effect that Covid-19 and the passing of the Affordable Care Act had on the economy for younger generations.

### D. Limitations

Research shows that when understanding an employee's sense of well-being, self-reports of life satisfaction and feelings are valid measurements with high face validity, convergent validity, and construct validity (Boarini et al., 2013). Even though evidence displays that life satisfaction is a valid measurement of well-being, a respondent's answer is still subject to mood distortion factors such as the weather or a physical illness (Boarini et al., 2013). However, this biasing factor has been a minor issue when responses are collected multiple times over a long period (Boarini et al., 2013). This study was not able to collect responses multiple times or over a long period. It was also unable to attain the desired sample

size of 385 participants. A larger sample size would significantly benefit similar studies on the IPT workgroup.

The prevailing assumption of a one-size-fits-all approach to life satisfaction may cause discrepancies in scores of individuals with cultural differences (Headey & Wagner, 2019). The differing personal values applied to surveys on life satisfaction may not accurately reflect a person's actual life satisfaction measurement (Headey & Wagner, 2019). Regardless of the correlations discovered during this study, there is no magic strategy to ensure an individual's satisfaction with life (Headey & Wagner, 2019). Other limitations regarding the SWLS also exist. For instance, survey respondents could choose to distort their responses to the questions if they choose to do so (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Also, the SWLS only measures the cognitive component of S.W.B. and not the affective component (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Therefore, it is recommended that the results from this study be followed up by assessments from external sources such as interviewer ratings if possible (Pavot & Diener, 1993). The allowance given to the respondents to utilize their judgment when answering the SWLS questionnaire means that it is impossible to know what standard they are using to determine life satisfaction (Pavot & Diener, 1993).

#### E. Implications for Practice

An organization that provides desirable employee benefits to an employee can mutually benefit (Ko & Hur, 2014). Empirical studies on family-friendly benefits are significantly correlated with improved work attitudes, job satisfaction, workplace performance, and lower employee turnover intentions (Ko & Hur, 2014). Evidence also states that overall life satisfaction positively affects individual productivity and performance (Edgar et al., 2015). Since this study's research depicts a correlation between lower life satisfaction and the fringe benefits offered to the IPT workforce, perhaps organizational leadership will consider increasing the benefits offered to involuntary part-time employees to increase the rewards associated with increased productivity. Alternatively, this research may provide an organization insight into their return on investment for well-being-enhancing activities (Imhof & Andresen, 2018).

#### F. Recommendations for Further Research

To truly grasp the current state of the IPT workgroup in the labor market landscape of the United States, additional demographic factors should be gathered, such as income range, how the respondents access the fringe benefits, and education. Furthermore, delimiters including all workgroups in the United States should be polled, such as full-time, voluntary part-time, self-employed, etc. Polling all workgroups would assist in gaining a solid grasp on the current working-class life-satisfaction score in the United States to gain correlation data between groups. Finally, the benefits survey options were written to reflect existing demographic surveys offered by the U.S. Census Bureau. However, further breakdown of benefit offerings may provide organizations with information on how best to invest their resources and gain the highest return on their labor capital investment.

With additional time and resources, life satisfaction is best measured at multiple points over a long period to achieve a strong picture of how a country's labor market fluctuations affect a working group's score and demographic makeup.

Results from this study imply that the demographic makeup of the IPT workgroup has changed post-2010. An additional larger and longer study may provide more information on the exact makeup of labor groups in the United States to confirm this discovery. Finally, more data collection in the United States on employment status that does not simply rely on the U.S. Department of Labor is necessary. This way, future research on the labor market can include those individuals who work over 35 hours per week but are not considered full-time. These individuals may work multiple jobs, have less access to fringe benefits, and desire full-time employment but are not included in the U.S. Department of Labor IPT category data that is prevalently used by most labor market research in the United States (Valletta et al., 2020).

#### G. Conclusion

One significant finding that resulted from this study identified a positive correlation between fringe benefits and IPT employment. Additional data gathered during this research study suggest that there may be an association between younger adults and participation in IPT employment in the United States. Finally, race and gender participation in IPT employment is different from previously established research on the topic. For instance, in Chile, the effect of part-time employment on well-being is favorable for women and unfavorable for men (Montero & Rau, 2015). However, this research project found no difference between genders when life satisfaction was measured. Many organizational, governmental, and data collection factors have been discussed that contribute to these findings and the most affected demographics.

As economic factors continue to evolve, this research may never be complete but should be regularly conducted to determine how new issues shape this country's capitalist democratic foundation. Ideally, the U.S. Department of Labor should reassess their inclusion characteristics into the IPT workgroup to account for those individuals who work over 35 hours per week but lack access to desirable fringe benefits associated with full-time employment. This one change could allow research to be conducted on a broader scale on the IPT employment group. As a pilot study, this information provides a structure for further exploration into the effect that IPT employment has on the United State's labor market and an employee's life satisfaction.

#### APPENDIX

##### Appendix A

Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1 - 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responses.

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

## How Involuntary Part-Time Employment is Correlated with Life Satisfaction in the U.S.A.

Question 1: In most ways, my life is close to my ideal.

Question 2: The conditions of my life are excellent.

Question 3: I am satisfied with my life.

Question 4: So far, I have gotten the important things I want in life.

Question 5: If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

31-35 Extremely Satisfied

26-30 Satisfied

21-25 Slightly Satisfied

20 Neutral

15-19 Slightly Dissatisfied

10-14 Dissatisfied

5-9 Extremely Dissatisfied

### Appendix B

Additional demographic questions requiring participant survey responses.

1. Please select all fringe benefits that you have access to. (Select all that apply).

a. Tuition reimbursement or educational assistance

b. Life, disability, or health insurance

c. Dependent care assistance

d. Company discount

e. Transportation assistance

f. Retirement plan contributions

g. Employee meals or cafeteria plan

h. Fitness center access or discount

i. Bonus, company stock ownership, or other financial benefits above your regular salary

j. Paid time off

k. Other

l. No access to fringe benefits

2. Which of these describes your employment status at this time?

a. Full-time employed (Over 30 hours per week and considered full-time by employer)

b. Voluntarily part-time employed (Not looking for additional work or hours).

c. Involuntarily part-time employed (Still looking for additional work or hours).

d. Unemployed

e. Self-employed

f. Other

3. What is your age?

a. Under 18 years of age

b. 18-25 years of age

c. 26-32 years of age

d. 33-45 years of age

e. 46-55 years of age

f. 56-65 years of age

g. Over 65 years of age

4. What is your current geographical location?

a. The answer will consist of a dropdown list of all 50 states in the United States.

5. Please indicate your gender below.

a. Male

b. Female

c. Open response box

6. Do you have legally defined dependents under the age of 18 living in your household?

a. Yes

b. No

7. Please indicate the race in which you most identify. (Choose as many as apply).

a. Black

b. White

c. Hispanic

d. Other (open response box).

8. Please indicate your marital status.

a. Married

b. Single

c. Divorced

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