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This article uses a multilevel model to study financial professionals' expressed interest in working part-time. The sample includes 260 financial professionals in the United States, Hong Kong, and Great Britain who do similar work for one division of one multinational company headquartered in the United States. The authors find that the hours worked are similarly long across countries. Critical constituents, that is, employees with family responsibilities, are most likely to be interested in part-time work. Even net of critical constituency, however, Hong Kong finance professionals are much more likely than their American and British counterparts to be interested in reduced-hour arrangements. American finance professionals are least likely to express interest in working part-time, suggesting a strongly American emphasis on a culture of overtime in this U.S.-headquartered global company.

The "Overtime Culture" in a Global Corporation

A Cross-National Study of Finance Professionals'
Interest in Working Part-Time

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Scholars, business people, and the public throughout the industrialized world are increasingly concerned about workers' struggles to juggle work and family obligations (Blossfeld & Hakim, 1997; Haas, Hwang, & Russell, 2000; Klein, 1997; Lewis, Izraeli, & Hootsmans, 1992; O'Reilly & Fagan, 1998; Parcel, 1999; Parcel & Cornfield, 2000;). Higher rates of female labor force participation, accompanied by the rise in dual-earner and single parent households, the changing demographics of the workforce, and corresponding cultural shifts in the meaning and significance of families,

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have sparked this concern. As Gornick, Meyers, and Ross (1998) observed, "Many labor economists describe the influx of women into paid work as the single most influential change in the labor markets of industrialized countries in the postwar period" (p. 35).

Although balancing work and family is an issue for all kinds of workers, highly educated professionals and managers face particular challenges. In the United States, their working hours have increased in recent years, and a large minority now works 50 hours a week or more in addition to commuting time (Jacobs & Gerson, 1997). Managers' and professionals' long work weeks are partly due to features of their jobs. Because productivity is often difficult to measure, hours spent at work may be used as a proxy for work output. In addition, firms demand that managers and professionals demonstrate commitment by working long hours and by making work the central focus of their lives (Fried, 1998; Kanter, 1977; Schor, 1991). These aspects of professional and managerial work create what Fried (1998) called an "overtime culture" (p. 39).

Whether the culture of overtime extends across national boundaries is unclear, however. Jacobs and Gerson (1997) and Schor (1991) found that long work hours are more prevalent in the United States than in many European and other industrialized countries. However, these studies do not include Asian countries, and these researchers do not examine cross-national differences in the work hours of managers and professionals specifically. In contrast, other research—although not focused on work hours per se—implies that the culture of overtime characteristic of U.S. managers and professionals may be a feature of managerial and professional work in other industrialized countries as well. Especially in global industries such as finance, "American practices" are spreading across national boundaries and are replacing more traditional organizational practices (McDowell, 1997, p. 51). This process of Americanization might be especially true in companies headquartered in the United States.

Long work hours for professionals and managers may also be a response to the competitive pressures of globalization. These pressures have been responsible for employment restructuring and demands for increased work effort throughout the industrialized world (Frenkel, Korczynski, Shire, & Tam, 1999). Declining job security, coupled with greater emphasis on individual performance rather than seniority as the basis for pay and promotion, thus may be contributing to long hours for managers and professionals in most industrial economies. According to Frenkel et al., these practices have led to increased stress and reduced job commitment, which are responses that may fuel managers' and professionals' interest in reduced work hours.

These studies point to several issues for analysis. First and most broadly is the question of whether and how national context shapes professionals' and managers' views about time spent at work and their interest in reduced work hours. By "national context," we are referring to both the institutional structures, policies, and practices that shape work and family in a particular country and the country's cultural values and norms. Although the number of dual-earner families has risen in all industrialized nations, countries vary in the ways they have addressed issues of work-family balance and the role played by reduced work hours in this process (Blossfeld & Hakim, 1997; Klein, 1997; O'Reilly & Fagan, 1998). Understanding these issues becomes more pressing as more and more companies straddle national boundaries.

Second, there are the more specific issues of whether managers and professionals in the United States and elsewhere want to work shorter hours and what factors may explain their interest or lack thereof. As elite employees, managers and professionals have more power than other workers to effect broader change in the organization if they demand shorter hours or opportunities to work part-time. Scholars and policy makers concerned about work-family balance have advocated curbing U.S. professionals' and managers' long work hours and have promoted alternative arrangements, such as working part-time. They point to other industrialized countries as having more successfully resisted the encroachment of work on personal and family life. Yet if U.S. work norms are shared by managers and professionals in other industrialized nations, the prospects are dim for resisting the culture of overtime.

Whether professionals and managers desire to work fewer hours and are interested in part-time work are areas of spirited debate in the literature. U.S. studies analyzing data from the National Study of the Changing Workforce find that most parents and people with long work weeks would prefer to work fewer hours and that the average professional or manager would like to reduce work hours by 8 hours a week or more (Galinsky & Swanberg, 2000; Jacobs & Gerson, 1997). Among professionals and managers working 45 or more hours a week, Tilly (1992) found that between 5% and 10% of men and 12% and 14% of women were "involuntary full-time workers," meaning that they would like to reduce their work hours. What is not clear, however, is how many of these workers are interested in jobs labeled as part-time.

According to Epstein, Seron, Oglensky, and Saute (1999), part-time lawyers in the United States are considered "time deviants," and this stigma limits the number of attorneys who desire and are able to negotiate reduced work loads. Among managers and professionals, use of part-time employment options is often perceived as damaging to one's career (Raabe, 1998). Yet Tilly (1996) noted that part-time employment—especially when used to

retain highly skilled workers—can be positive for both employees and their employers. And Lee, MacDermid, and Buck (2000) argued that employers are learning to adapt to part-time work arrangements among professionals and managers. In contrast to these findings, Hochschild's (1997) study of one large U.S. company concluded that most workers have no desire to cut down on work hours, ignore company policies that would allow them to do so, and prefer time at work over time at home.

A cross-national perspective is necessary to fully understand these issues (Haas et al., 2000). This perspective can be useful in untangling the societal and individual-level factors that shape employment and in identifying similarities and differences in employment patterns across national contexts (Fagan & O'Reilly, 1998). Although research suggests that part-time work is increasing throughout the industrialized world, there have been relatively few cross-national studies of this issue (Blossfeld & Hakim, 1997; O'Reilly & Fagan, 1998). Even less is known about cross-national variations in professionals' and managers' interest in part-time work specifically and these employees' feelings of overwork due to long hours.

We study interest in part-time work among 260 managers and professionals who work in three countries (United States, England, and Hong Kong) for one division of a multinational financial services firm we call "International Finance" (a pseudonym). The definition of a part-time worker varies by country and occupation but generally means one "whose normal hours of work are less than those of comparable full-time workers" (International Labor Organization, 1992, p. 5). By part-time work, we mean a formal arrangement between an employee and the firm that the employee will work fewer hours and be paid less than a similar full-time employee. At International Finance, part-time managers' and professionals' officially scheduled working hours generally range from 17 to 32 hours per week, and these workers retain benefits. Only 7 people in our sample (4 in the United States, 2 in England, 1 in Hong Kong) reported having a part-time position.

By focusing on professionals' interest in working part-time, this article brackets the issue of opportunities for and constraints on workers' use of alternative work arrangements.¹ Our liberal definition of *interest* includes all employees who would like to work part-time, even those who acknowledge that they are unlikely to actually do so. Examining financial professionals in three countries who do very similar work for the same division of one company allows us to disentangle the effects of individual and national characteristics on interest in part-time work. To our knowledge, we are among the first to systematically examine these issues among similar professionals in one division of one global organization.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES: NATIONAL CONVERGENCE AND DIVERGENCE

What is the role of national context in shaping financial professionals' interest in part-time work? What other factors explain this interest, and are these factors the same across nations? Previous research offers grounds for both convergence and divergence across countries and identifies several factors that might explain financial professionals' interest in part-time work.

CROSS-NATIONAL CONVERGENCE AND THE ROLE OF CRITICAL CONSTITUENCIES

Although International Finance is a global company, it is headquartered in the United States and steeped in Western capitalist practices. Employees in all three countries have been exposed to Western, and particularly American, business practices and ideologies (Ralston, Gustafson, Cheung, & Terpstra 1993). This exposure may be expected to minimize, if not eliminate, country-level differences in employee interest in part-time work. Urban finance professionals and managers should be especially susceptible to the homogenizing effects of Western capitalist business practices. As Sassen (1991) showed, this population of workers may have more in common with colleagues in other nations than with their fellow citizens in other lines of work.

Moreover, International Finance may be characterized as a "high commitment work system," which promotes a strong culture of employee involvement in and commitment to the organization (Osterman, 1995; Pfeffer, 1997). Such a strong organizational culture may promote cross-cultural homogeneity in employee responses and, specifically, encourage long hours and discourage interest in reducing work hours. Although these high-commitment firms motivate employees by providing work-family benefits, these benefits may be designed to help employees spend more rather than less time at work (cf. Hochschild, 1997; Osterman, 1995).

National convergence may be especially evident in the cases of the United States, England, and Hong Kong, which are places that share many traditions and policies. These include a common political and administrative heritage, similar norms about strong male breadwinners, *laissez-faire*, individual responsibility for integrating work and family, and the provision of much less state support for employed mothers than what is provided by many European countries (Aryee, Fields, & Luk, 1999; Brannen & Moss, 1992, 1998; Brayfield, Jones, & Adler, 1998; Chan & Lee, 1995; Ellingsaeter, 1998; Gornick et al., 1998). In addition, in none of the countries is primary sector

part-time work for managers and professionals strongly institutionalized (Ngo, 1992; Rubery & Fagan, 1997; Tilly, 1992).

Consistent with these views, McDowell (1997) has documented the pervasiveness of U.S.-based, capitalist practices among London financial services firms. Convergence might be especially likely among workers in different countries who are employed by the same company. Ng and Chiu (1997), for example, found that a company's national origin influenced the human resource practices of firms located in Hong Kong.

These literatures imply that cross-national similarity in organizational practices and professional work orientation will diminish the role of national context as a predictor of employee interest in part-time work. Under these conditions, interest in part-time work may be more a function of employees' personal and family characteristics than their country location. Researchers studying corporate adoption of work-family policies and programs, such as part-time work, argue that these policies matter most to "critical constituents" who pressure employers to provide them (Goodstein, 1994; Ingram & Simons, 1995; Osterman, 1995). In these studies, the critical constituents for work-family benefits are mothers (and sometimes fathers) with family responsibilities, especially those without a homemaking spouse (Goodstein, 1994, p. 357; see also Blair-Loy & Wharton, in press; Ingram & Simons, 1995; Osterman, 1995).

In all three countries under study, employed women shoulder more responsibility for domestic work than do employed men (Aryee et al., 1999; Brannen & Moss, 1998; Ngo, 1992; Spain & Bianchi, 1996). Although the links between gender and part-time work vary somewhat cross-nationally (Blossfeld & Hakim, 1997; O'Reilly & Fagan, 1998; Smith, Fagan, & Rubery, 1998), research implies that women with children most need and desire alternative work arrangements (Moen & Dempster-McClain, 1987; Negrey, 1993). Thus, we expect that employee interest in part-time work will be higher among critical constituents—that is, women, married persons, parents, and those without a homemaking spouse—than other employees. After controlling for these effects, however, we do not expect any net country-level differences in employee responses. This leads to Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 1: Women, married persons, parents, and those without a homemaking spouse will be more interested in part-time work than will men, single persons, nonparents, and those with a homemaking spouse. Controlling for these effects, there will be no net country-level differences in employees' interest in part-time work.

CROSS-NATIONAL DIVERGENCE

In contrast, other research suggests that interest in part-time work will diverge across countries despite the homogenizing impact of American business practices and similarities in employed women's roles in family care; this literature also offers clues as to the patterns of country-level differences.

From a divergence framework, nations constitute different historical "constellations of factors; of economy, institutions and culture" (Ellingsaeter, 1998). Different national contexts thus could produce distinct understandings of work and family and different responses to work-family balance issues. Hofstede (1991) maintained that people carry different layers of "mental programming" within themselves, including "a national level according to one's country" and "an organizational or corporate level according to the way employees have been socialized by their work organization" (p. 10).

Perlow's (2001) study of software engineers in three countries is broadly consistent with this divergence view. Although software engineers in the United States are expected to work excessively long hours, this work pattern was not typical in the workplaces Perlow studied in China, India, or Hungary. Instead, she found significant variation in work-time standards and norms. She argued that these differences stem from the way work was coordinated in each country but suggested that coordination is itself shaped partly by the national context.

Studies of cross-national differences in the levels of part-time employment are also broadly consistent with our claim that national context will shape professionals' and managers' interest in working part-time.² For example, whereas part-time employment among women has risen in most European countries since the 1980s, wide variations remain (Blossfeld & Hakim, 1997, p. 5). These differences have been attributed to a variety of factors, including national differences in occupational and industrial structures, culture and social institutions, and in the characteristics of labor supply (Blossfeld & Hakim, 1997).

The countries we are studying also show differences in women's and men's levels of part-time employment. For example, in 1997, 40% of employed women in the United Kingdom worked part-time, whereas only 19% of employed women in the United States and just greater than 3% of women in Hong Kong were so employed (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1998; F. Tung, employee of Census and Statistics Department, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, personal communication, 1999). During this time, roughly 8% of employed men worked part-time in both the United States and the United Kingdom; in Hong Kong, 5% of employed men

worked part-time (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1998; F. Tung, personal communication, 1999).

Because these data refer to overall levels of part-time employment, they provide little specific insight into professionals' and managers' employment practices. These data also fail to distinguish between voluntary and involuntary part-time workers and between "primary" and "secondary" part-time jobs (Tilly, 1992, p. 330). Nevertheless, variations in the levels of part-time employment across national contexts are consistent with a divergence argument. At the most general level, the divergence perspective leads us to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Employees' interest in part-time work will vary across nations, net of the variables indicating critical constituency.

Extending this argument, the divergence perspective predicts distinct outcomes for different countries. In general, we expect that professionals' and managers' interest in part-time work will be lowest in the United States. As noted earlier, the culture of overtime—as reflected in American professionals' and managers' long work hours and the lack of cultural and institutional support for part-time work—is well-documented. This implies the following:

Hypothesis 2.1: Employees' interest in part-time work will be lowest in the United States, net of the variables indicating critical constituency.

Hong Kong managers and professionals should be more interested in part-time work than U.S. and British employees. Hong Kong's modern, industrialized economy is similar to the United States and England in per capita income and, like these societies, has seen a rise in the percentage of married women in the labor force and a corresponding increase in the number of dual-earner households (Aryee et al., 1999; Aryee, Luk, & Stone, 1998). In addition, similar to many U.S. employees, workers in Hong Kong are expected to put in long hours with little state or employer assistance with the problems of balancing work and family (Aryee et al., 1999; Ngo, 1992). Yet despite these similarities and Hong Kong's history as a former British colony, "Hong Kong has remained a Chinese society" (Aryee et al., 1999, p. 493). Hong Kong citizens (98% of whom are Chinese) are steeped in traditional Chinese cultural patterns, including Confucianism (Chan & Lee, 1995; Hong, 1997; Ralston et al., 1992; Redding, 1990).

In contrast to Western individualism, the Confucian worldview sees individuals as existing through and defined by their hierarchical relationships

with others (Redding, Norman, & Schlander, 1994). Furthermore, the family is the most important institution of Chinese society (Chan & Lee, 1995; Hong, 1997; Redding, 1990). In Hong Kong today, "utilitarianistic familism," which places the familial interest over and above the interests of the society, the individual, and other groups, is the "dominant cultural code" (Lau, 1983; see also Chan & Lee, 1995; Lau, 1981; Redding, 1990). The pursuit of familial interests is a primary concern, and the motivation for economic gain is to benefit the family rather than the individual worker (Lau, 1981, 1983; Chan & Lee, 1995).

Studies of work-family conflict among managers in Hong Kong and the United States lend support to this view. Although employees in both places experience work-family conflict, Hong Kong managers are more likely to feel that work interferes with family responsibilities, whereas American managers are more likely to complain that family interferes with work responsibilities (Aryee et al., 1999; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Rooted in the Confucian tradition of the family's preeminence over the individual, Hong Kong managers are more likely to see work as the means to the end of providing for the family. In contrast, more individualistic American managers are more likely to emphasize the role of their jobs in promoting their individual achievement (Aryee et al., 1999; cf. Bailyn, 1993; Hofstede, 1980). Hence, despite many similarities between Hong Kong and the United States (e.g., high rates of employment among married women, little institutional support for balancing work and family), different cultural traditions operate in these countries.

Based on these studies, we expect Hong Kong respondents will be more likely than American (and probably British) employees to resent the incursion of long work hours on their family responsibilities. And because Hong Kong finance professionals are immersed in a culture that values family as the cornerstone of society and identity, they will be less likely to count placing limits on work for family reasons as a career cost than will American and British employees immersed in a more individualistic culture. This implies that employee interest in working part-time will be higher in Hong Kong than in the United States or England.

Hypothesis 2.2: Net of the critical constituency variables, Hong Kong employees will be more interested in working part-time than their American and British counterparts.

Hypothesis 2.2a: Hong Kong employees' greater interest in part-time work will be explained by their greater tendency to resent the incursion of long hours on their family responsibilities and their lesser tendency to view placing limits on work time for family reasons as costly to their careers.

High interest in part-time work should also be found among British employees, although we expect this pattern to be strongly gendered. The pattern of part-time maternal employment is much more prevalent in England than in the United States and Hong Kong (Bailyn, 1993; Brannen, 2000; Brannen & Moss, 1998; Burchell, Dale, & Joshi, 1997; Rubery & Fagan, 1997). Although full-time maternal employment has increased in Britain since 1985, most mothers stay home when their children are young and then rejoin the work force part-time. Women are expected to do most of the domestic work, and balancing work and family responsibilities is seen as the private problem of individual mothers (Brannen, 2000; Brannen & Moss, 1998). Thus, as Duane-Richard (1998), explained, "The institutional framework tends to encourage women with children living with a partner to work part-time rather than dissuading them from working altogether" (p. 220).

Because part-time employment among women is a commonly accepted way for British families to juggle work and family responsibilities, British women and men should be more likely than their counterparts in Hong Kong and the United States to assume that female part-time employment is a desirable way to balance work and family obligations. Whereas the national convergence argument (Hypothesis 1) predicts similar gender differences in interest in part-time work across the three countries, the national divergence perspective predicts a larger gender gap among the British employees than among the Hong Kong and American employees in our sample. Specifically,

Hypothesis 2.3a: British women will be more interested in part-time work arrangements than will women in the United States and Hong Kong.

Hypothesis 2.3b: British men will be less interested in working part-time than male financial professionals in the United States and Hong Kong.

DATA AND METHODS

DATA

In 1998, we received permission from International Finance to study work-family policies in their organization. International Finance is a global financial services company with a strong, high-performance culture (cf. Osterman, 1995). The financial services industry demands particularly long hours, because it faces competitive pressures from globalization, consolidation, and new technologies (Blair-Loy, 1997).

According to the firm's internal, confidential cross-national employee surveys (conducted at various times in years prior to our study), International

Finance expects high levels of dedication and long work hours from its employees. In these surveys, employees described themselves as “passionate about what we do” and “competitive with a drive to win.” They agreed that “we are overworked and overwhelmed—we can’t work any harder or longer” and that a “lack of balance between work and personal life” was a major problem with the organization. Responses to an optional, open-ended question on our own survey supported this notion of International Finance’s high-commitment culture. For example, one respondent described the firm as a “hard-charging, hard-working organization.” Another commented, “International Finance is a great place to work, but it is also one of the toughest. The firm would easily take your life from you if you let them!” This description suggests that our respondents are likely to regard balance between work and the rest of life as salient yet problematic.

In 1999, after pretests at another organization, we administered our survey to a sample of professional and managerial employees in three divisions at International Finance.³ The data analyzed in this article are drawn from respondents in one of the divisions surveyed. This division was selected for this analysis because its employees are internationally dispersed, yet it is relatively homogeneous with respect to its occupational mix.⁴ Our respondents are urban, high-level financial professionals in the United States (in three large cities), Hong Kong, and England (London). Although International Finance is headquartered in the United States, 2% or fewer of the London and Hong Kong respondents were born in the United States.

The total number of usable surveys completed was 269. Because of missing data, the present analysis includes 260 professionals and managers, nested with 52 work groups.⁵ Of respondents, 160 were in the United States, 38 were in London, and the remainder (62) were located in Hong Kong. This reflects a 55% response rate for the work groups included in this analysis.

We did extensive tests for selection bias. Within each country, we compared survey respondents to survey recipients with respect to respondent gender, supervisor gender, work group sex composition, and work group size.⁶ By these measures, our respondents look similar to the survey recipients in the division under study. We also conducted tests that indicated little sample selection bias at the work group level.⁷

The U.S. and London samples are more ethnically diverse than our Hong Kong respondents. Roughly 95% of the Hong Kong sample identified as Asian, with the remainder identifying as a member of another ethnic group. Three quarters of the British respondents identified as White, 13% identified as Asian, and 13% identified as members of other ethnic groups (e.g., Indian or Middle Eastern). Approximately 70% of the U.S. sample identified as White, 11% identified as African American, 7% identified as Latino/Latina,

7% identified as Asian, and the remainder identified as another ethnic group (e.g., Native American).

Our survey includes a wide range of closed-ended items on respondents' attitudes and behaviors regarding balancing work and their other responsibilities. Sixty-eight respondents (25%) answered an optional, completely open-ended question; we use these responses for illustrative purposes.

METHODS

We used HLM4.0 to estimate a two-level multilevel model (Bryk, Raudenbush, & Congdon, 1996; see also Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992; DiPrete & Forristal, 1994). Multilevel models are useful when data are arranged hierarchically. These models are superior to traditional ordinary least squares models, which require the assumption of independence between observations, and they are superior to group-level models, which typically have low power to detect effects (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992).

Our two-level model differentiates between individual-level data and data collected at the work group level. The primary work group-level characteristic in our analyses is the country in which the work group is located.⁸ Separate regression models are estimated for each level, and these submodels specify how variables at one level affect relations occurring at another. Multilevel analyses can take many forms; we use a nonlinear random-intercept model. As described below, our dependent variable—employees' interest in working part-time—is binary. Hence, our models estimate the log odds of employee interest in part-time work as a function of individual and work group characteristics (i.e., country).

At Level 1 (individuals), the models we estimate take the following form:

$$\eta_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{qj}\chi_{qij} + r_{ij},$$

where η_{ij} is the log odds of interest in part-time work for individual i in work group j , β_{0j} is the intercept for the j th work group, β_{qj} ($q = 1, 2, \dots, Q$) are Level 1 coefficients, χ_{qij} is a Level 1 predictor q for case i in work group j , and r_{ij} is the Level 1 random effect. All individual-level variables are grand mean centered; hence, the intercept represents the adjusted average log odds of interest in part-time work for work group j , after controlling for all covariates.

Each Level 1 coefficient, including the intercept, is an outcome variable at Level 2 (work groups). Except for the intercept, however, we model all Level 1 coefficients as fixed effects (i.e., $\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{j0}$).⁹ The intercept is modeled as follows:

TABLE 1: Means and Standard Deviations for All Variables for Full Sample and by Country

Variable	Full Sample (N = 260)	United States (n = 160)	England (n = 38)	Hong Kong (n = 62)
Interest in part-time work	.431*	.375	.342	.481
Female	.581*	.625	.290	.645
Married or cohabiting	.708	.694	.737	.726
Have young children	.196*	.119	.342	.307
Have school-age children	.200	.219	.263	.113
Spouse is homemaker	.115*	.088	.263	.081
Hours worked	49.794* (8.158) ^a	48.927 (7.647)	50.632 (9.683)	51.520 (8.236)
Salary	\$94,827 (\$57,438)	\$93,281 (\$56,457)	\$111,710 (\$52,431)	\$88,467 (\$61,701)
Family costs	17.928* (3.766)	18.545 (3.618)	19.303 (3.914)	15.493 (2.936)
Work conflicts with life	.460**	.444	.401	.537

a. Standard deviations for continuous variables in parentheses.

*Indicates statistically significant differences between countries ($p < .05$). **Indicates marginally statistically significant differences between countries ($p \leq .10$).

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}W_{1j} + \gamma_{02}W_{2j} \dots + \mu_{0j},$$

where γ_{00} represents the average log odds of employee interest in part-time work; γ_{01} , γ_{02} , and so on are Level 2 coefficients; W_{1j} , W_{2j} , and so on are Level 2 predictors; and μ_{0j} is a Level 2 random effect. The intercept for any given work group is a function of the average log odds of employee interest in part-time work, work group-level covariates designating country, and a random error term. We supplement these quantitative models with responses to the open-ended questionnaire item.

DEPENDENT VARIABLE

We are interested in the degree of employee interest in part-time work, which we measure as a dichotomous variable. Our measure defines interest liberally; it takes into account both the desire to work part-time and respondents' assessments of their prospects for actually doing so. Hence, even respondents who desired part-time work but viewed their chances for this as unlikely were categorized as interested.¹⁰ Approximately 43% of our respondents were interested in part-time work according to this measure. Table 1 presents the means and standard deviations for the all variables in the analysis by the entire sample and by country.

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

According to the first hypothesis, interest in part-time work should be highest among those with family responsibilities. To examine whether part-time work is of interest primarily to these critical constituents, we included several dichotomous variables: sex (1 = female), young children (1 = children younger than age 6 at home),¹¹ school-age children (1 = children between 6 and 15 years of age at home), spouse at home (1 = spouse is full-time homemaker), and marital status (1 = married or cohabiting).

Our hypotheses regarding national convergence and divergence require us to also include effects for country. These country-level effects were measured as two effects-coded dummy variables: The first represents Hong Kong (coded 1), and the second is the effect for the United States (coded 1). England is the reference category (coded -1).

The next set of hypotheses pertains to possible mediating effects. We created two measures designed to assess the salience of work-family conflict for our respondents. The first variable gauges respondents' perceived sense of incursion of work responsibilities into their family and personal lives. Our Work-Conflicts-With-Life Scale represents the average response to four survey items ($\alpha = .67$) in which respondents were asked to check items that described themselves (1 = item was checked, 0 = not checked). The items include the following: "I wish I could cut down on the number of hours I spend working," "I feel overloaded by all the roles I play in life," "I worry how my long hours affect those in my personal life," and "I push myself too hard and exhaust myself."

The second variable gauges respondents' perceptions of the costs of prioritizing family on their chances for advancement. Family costs ($\alpha = .82$) represents the sum of six survey items. For each item, respondents were asked to assess its effects on "a person's chances for doing well at your level in the organization" (1 = *positive effect*, 2 = *somewhat positive effect*, 3 = *neither positive or negative effect*, 4 = *somewhat negative effect*, 5 = *negative effect*). High scores thus indicate that a more negative effect is anticipated. The five items include starting a family, shifting from full-time to part-time work, taking an extended parental leave, setting limits on hours spent at work, and refusing transfers for personal or family reasons.

CONTROLS

To ensure that the effects of our independent variables were not spurious, we examined several additional individual variables as possible controls. We

experimented with several models, but we retain only those two variables that were statistically significant in preliminary analyses.¹² We control for respondents' annual income (salary plus bonus and measured in dollars as the midpoint of a 10-category variable)¹³ and average number of hours worked per week (measured in hours).

DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS

Before turning to our findings from our multilevel models, we present descriptive results (see Table 1). These results show several important country-level differences. For example, our Hong Kong respondents report much greater interest in part-time work than those located either in London or the United States. Hong Kong respondents also perceive significantly fewer costs of prioritizing family and higher rates of work-family conflict than other respondents. Respondents in all three countries work long hours; the average respondent works 50 hours a week. Average salaries do not significantly differ across countries, nor does the proportion married or cohabiting. Hong Kong respondents are less likely to have young children than those in London and the United States, whereas there was a significantly higher proportion of men among our London respondents than among those in either the United States or Hong Kong.

Additional survey data (not reported) and our open-ended responses provide a fuller picture of respondents' working conditions and, for some, sense of overwork. For example, 88% of the sample said they often worked late. These long hours are worked in a stressful, fast-changing work environment. Between 80% and 90% of respondents answered *strongly agree* or *somewhat agree* to questions on whether they worked under tight deadlines, responded to unpredictable events, and found things changing rapidly in their work group.

The most common open-ended comment was a that about intense work pressure and long hours. These statements from U.S. respondents are typical:

The pressure is affecting my health. Lack of staff is causing us to rush, leaving room for errors. (Married woman, age 56, with grown children)

I used to work 10 to 12 hours before my children were born. I am trying to do nine hours a day now, which is very difficult to get work done in the allotted nine hour day. (Married woman, age 38, with two young children)

I would like to explore flextime work, that is working four days per week and receiving payment of 20 percent less. Or, working five days per week (hours logged) during a four day a week basis. (Married man, age 31, with a young child)

I don't see how I can work this job and have a family, given the constraints and demands of the job as it is now. (Married woman, age 38, no children)

British respondents echoed these concerns:

I think . . . part-time work . . . should be actively promoted at International Finance. There seems to be the general misconception at IF that the longer the hours that one works, the more productive they are! (Married woman, age 29, no children)

To achieve a healthy balance between work and personal life is to forego the career path. (Single man, age 43, no children)

I was held back . . . by a boss who was unsympathetic to women who work and have a family [and who said]: 'Women should not have children if they are not going to stay at home and look after them.' In my experience, 'working mums' are expected to work twice as hard without any reward to prove they are dedicated. The only way to get to the top with International Finance and be a mother is to *get to the top first*. (Married woman, age 35, with one young child and one school-age child)

One British employee negotiated a part-time arrangement a few years ago. However, senior management has terminated that arrangement, and she is planning to leave the company. She reported,

Senior management then decided that, due to headcount constraints, [International Finance] could no longer accommodate my part-time status and offered me a full-time position. Because I want to spend time with my family, I do not want to work for five days a week. [International Finance] has therefore agreed to make me redundant. (Married woman, age 34, one young child)

These comments were made by financial professionals in Hong Kong:

International Finance always wants to achieve a balanced lifestyle for employees. However, given the workload, consistently reduced headcount, and increasing our pressure, working shorter hours is no way possible. All employees are exhausted. (Single woman, age 41, no children)

The bank claims it cares about employees and they should balance work and family, but in reality, all the bank cares about is how much money you can make, even if it means how much personal time you need to sacrifice. . . . With the work load and budget pressure, to meet goals, one has no choice but to sacrifice personal time. (Married woman, age 36, two young children)

In sum, our respondents are well paid but work long, stressful days. Most are married or cohabiting. Half are concerned about the impact their work has on their family and personal lives. Open-ended responses from every country

TABLE 2: Effects of Individual Characteristics and Country on Log Odds of Interest in Part-Time Work

<i>Fixed Effect</i>	<i>Model 1</i>	<i>Model 2</i>	<i>Model 3</i>
Intercept2	-.367*	-.194	-.207
Individual level			
Female ^b	.790*	1.046*	.997*
Married or cohabiting	.712*	.699*	.576*
Young children	.458**	.274	.221
School-age children	-.079	—	—
Spouse is homemaker	-.759	—	—
Hours worked	-.036**	-.046*	-.011*
Salary	.6E-04*	.8E-04*	.9E-04*
Costs of family	—	—	-.071*
Work-life conflict	—	—	1.339*
Work group level			
Hong Kong ^a	—	.825*	.637*
United States	—	-.420*	-.377*
	<i>Variance Component</i>		
<i>Random Effect</i>	<i>Model 1</i>	<i>Model 2</i>	<i>Model 3</i>
Intercept 1	.239	.006	.004

a. England is the reference category, coded -1.

b. Variables in bold have been centered at their grand mean.

*Indicates statistically significant differences between countries ($p < .05$). **Indicates marginally statistically significant differences between countries ($p \leq .10$).

suggest pressure from their employer to work longer hours and devote less time to family and personal life. Work-family issues are highly salient for this sample. What determines an employee's interest in part-time work? We now turn to analytic models of these factors.

MULTILEVEL MODELS

BASELINE ANALYSES

We begin by estimating a baseline model that includes only the critical constituency variables and the two controls, annual income and hours worked. These baseline results (reported in column 1 of Table 2) allow us to examine the effects of these variables on the log odds of respondent interest in part-time work and to assess whether there is significant work group-level variation in the dependent variable.

As column 1 of Table 2 shows, five variables in the baseline model are statistically significant. For ease of interpretation, we centered all variables around their grand mean. These results provide initial support for the first hypothesis. As expected, interest in part-time work is higher among women, those with young children at home, and those who are married or cohabiting. By contrast, interest in part-time work is not related to having school-age children or to having a spouse at home. Both control variables are statistically significant: Higher salaries are associated with greater interest in part-time work, whereas those working fewer hours are more interested in this employment option.

The variance component for the intercept, shown at the bottom of column 1 of Table 2, reveals that after accounting for the effects of the individual-level characteristics described above, the log odds of employee interest in part-time work do not vary significantly across work groups ($\chi^2 = 60.500, p = .17$). These findings imply that interest in part-time work is shaped primarily by individual-level factors. Because the p value of chi-square is relatively low, however, features of the national context may also help to explain interest in part-time work.

When individual-level predictors are centered, as in our models, the intercept can be used to calculate the average likelihood of respondent interest in part-time work.¹⁴ Performing this calculation shows that the average level of employee interest in part-time work is .409. This interest level changes for different groups, however, consistent with the critical constituency hypothesis. As Figure 1 shows, controlling for hours worked and salary, married women report the highest level of interest in part-time work, followed by single women and married men. Less than 20% of single men report any interest in this employment option.

FULL MODELS

The remaining columns of Table 2 show results for our full models, which contain both individual- and work group-level predictors. First, we consider the effect of country (modeled as a work group-level characteristic) on employee interest in part-time work. Column 2 shows that when variables representing Hong Kong and the United States are added to the model, the effects of four of the five statistically significant individual-level variables shown in column 1 remain substantially unchanged. The effect of having young children on interest in part-time work is eliminated, however, suggesting that there are country-level differences in this variable.

The country-level effects are depicted in Figure 2. Employee interest in part-time work in Hong Kong is roughly twice as high as employee interest in the

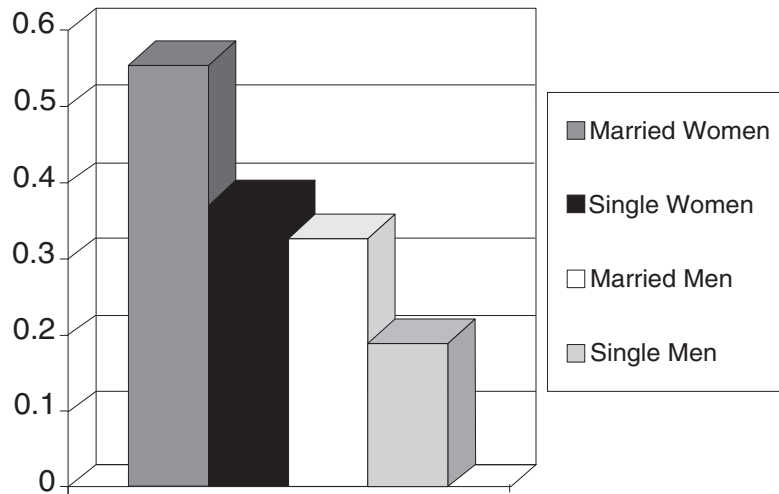


Figure 1: Probability of Respondent Interest in Part-Time Work by Sex and Marital Status, Controlling for Hours Worked and Salary

NOTE: All variables other than sex and marital status are calculated at their mean.

United States and England. Because these effects are net of the individual-level variables, they do not seem to reflect country-level differences in worker demographics. Hence, although critical constituencies are more likely than others to be interested in part-time work, there are also country-level differences in interest. Thus, the national convergence perspective is not supported. The significance of these country effects can be seen in their impact on the variance component, reported in the last row of column 3. Their inclusion reduces the variance in the intercept by more than 90% (chi-square = 49.125, $p = .468$). These national differences are all the more striking because they reflect workers employed in similar jobs in the same division of a single company. These findings support the national divergence argument (Hypothesis 2) as well as the hypotheses that predicted lowest interest in the United States (Hypothesis 2.1) and greatest interest in Hong Kong (Hypothesis 2.2).

To explore further these results, we calculated interest in part-time work for four groups of respondents in each country. These results, shown in Figure 3, reveal that there is a critical constituency effect within each country: Married women with young children are most likely to be interested in part-time work, whereas unmarried, childless men express least interest. In each of the four groups examined, however, Hong Kong employees are more

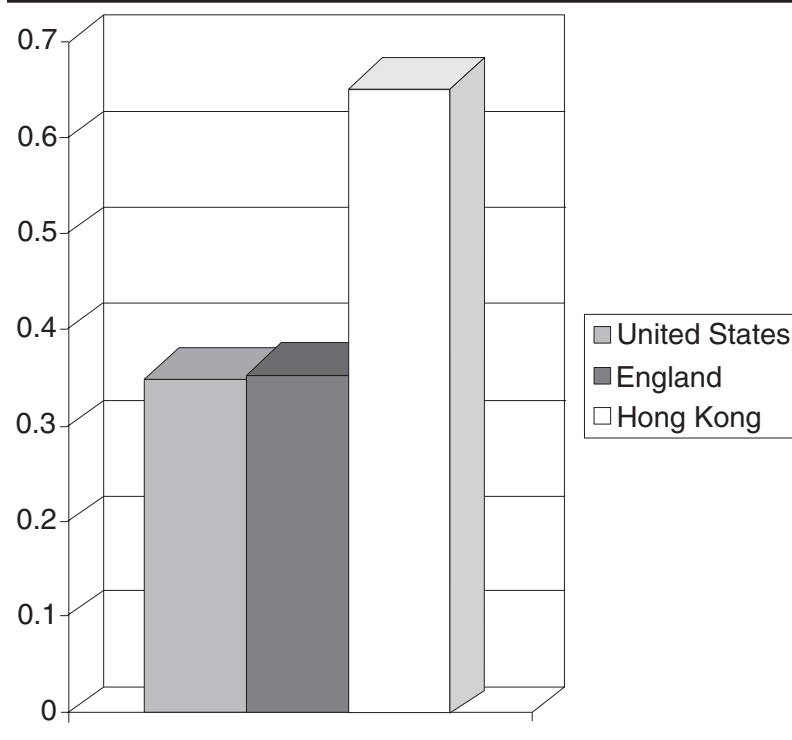


Figure 2: Probability of Respondent Interest in Part-Time Work by Country Controlling for Sex, Marital Status, Young Children, Hours Worked, and Salary

NOTE: All variables other than country are calculated at their mean.

likely to be interested in part-time work than their counterparts in England or the United States. In fact, single men in Hong Kong are more likely to be interested in part-time work than are single women and married men in England and the United States.

The results shown in Figure 3 fail to support Hypothesis 2.3a. British women in the sample (married and single) are slightly more interested in part-time work than are American women and are much less interested than are Hong Kong women. However, the difference between British and American women is not statistically significant, and in contrast to Hypothesis 2.3b, British men are not less interested than American men.

Our final set of estimates is reported in Table 2, column 3. This model tests whether differences in the salience of work-family conflict helps mediate the effects of country on interest in part-time work. This model thus includes all

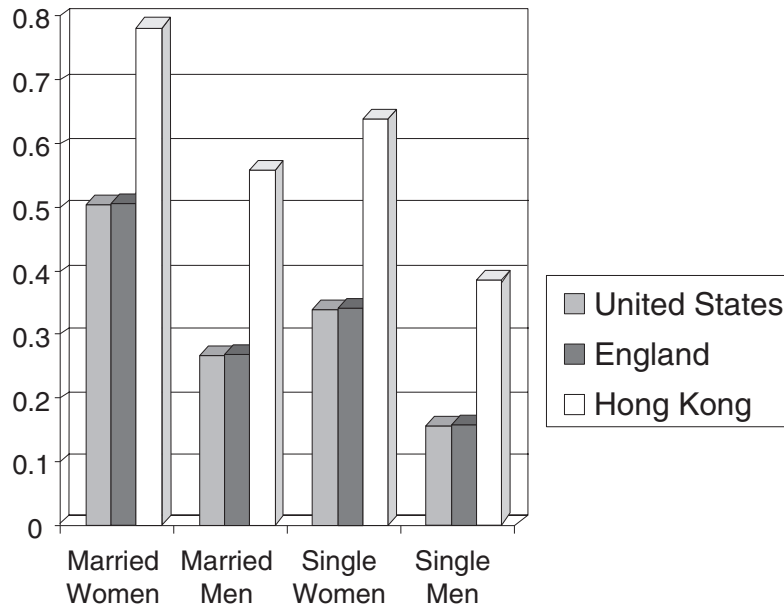


Figure 3: Probability of Respondent Interest in Part-Time Work by Sex, Marital Status, and Country

NOTE: All variables are calculated at their mean.

previous individual- and work group-level variables, and it includes two attitudinal measures. Both of the latter measures are statistically significant in the predicted direction, but their inclusion does not eliminate the effects of any other variable. As expected, those reporting higher scores on the Work-Conflicts-With-Life Scale are more interested in part-time work, whereas those who believe that prioritizing family life will be costly for their careers express less interest. Inclusion of these salience measures reduces the remaining variance in the intercept by approximately 30%.

Differences in the salience of work-family conflict do not completely account for country effects on employees' interest in part-time work. Figure 4 shows how interest in part-time work by country changes with the inclusion of the attitudinal measures. Hong Kong workers remain much more interested in part-time work than their counterparts in the United States and England, but the gap between Hong Kong and the other two countries has closed somewhat from that shown in Figure 2. This finding thus lends only modest support to Hypothesis 2.2a.

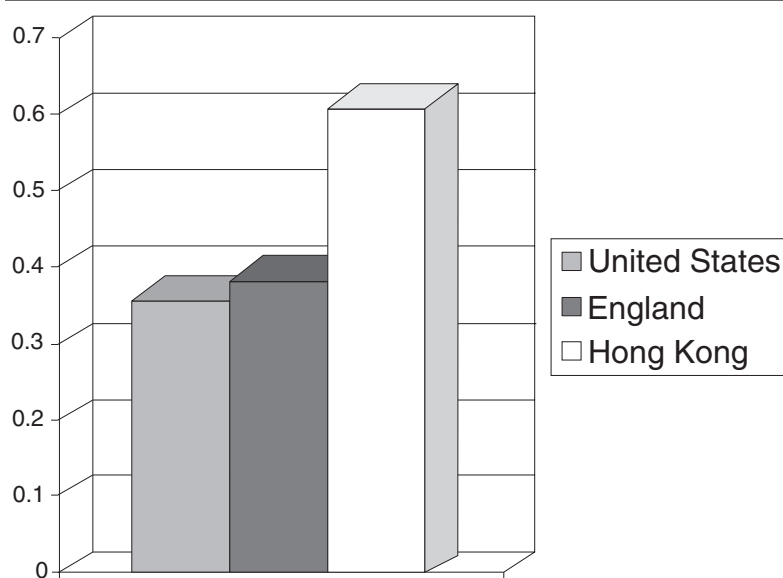


Figure 4: Probability of Respondent Interest in Part-Time Work by Country, Controlling for Sex, Marital Status, Young Children, Hours Worked, Salary, Family Costs, and Work-Life Conflict

NOTE: All variables other than country are calculated at their mean.

DISCUSSION

Employed women in the industrialized world continue to have more responsibility for family and children than their male counterparts; our results suggest that this group is a multinational critical constituency for part-time work. In particular, women in our sample are more likely to be interested in part-time work than men; married people are more likely to be interested than singles, and parents of young children are more likely than those without young children at home. With the exception of parenthood, these variables remain significant even net of the measures for country and the salience of work-family conflict.

The interest among critical constituents is not completely due to their greater family obligations, however. Only 24% of the unmarried women in our sample have children, compared to 70% of married men. Yet within each country, unmarried women are more likely to express interest in working part-time than are married men (see Figure 3). We speculate that gender

differences in socialization, expected future family obligations, perceived career rewards, and/or expected career costs for part-time arrangements encourage single women to have more interest than married men in reduced work hours.

Women's greater interest in part-time work also may stem in part from their belief that it is a realistic option for them, as compared to men. Employed women in the United States and England are more likely than men in those countries to work part-time (although this pattern does not hold true in Hong Kong, where rates of part-time work are very low for both sexes). In addition, we found that among those we defined as interested in part-time work, much higher percentages of men than women in the United States and England doubted that they would be able to take advantage of this form of employment. Fifty-nine percent of men in the United States who were interested in part-time employment were doubtful that they could ever use this policy, whereas only 43% of interested women felt this way. The gender differences were much greater among British respondents: 82% of men interested in part-time employment doubted that they could ever actually work part-time, whereas only 36% of similar women gave this response. (By contrast, although women in Hong Kong were more interested in part-time work than their male counterparts, among those who were interested, 69% of interested women versus only 45% of interested men doubted that they would ever be able to work part-time.) At the same time, the very small number of respondents actually working part-time at the survey date raise doubts about how realistic this option is for financial professionals of either gender.

More generally, our finding that women—regardless of marital status and country—are more interested in part-time work than men underscores Fagan and O'Reilly's (1998) observations about the "universally gendered" (p. 1) character of this type of employment (see also Negrey, 1993). Previous cross-national studies have primarily emphasized the concentration of female part-timers in low-level service jobs where they have few, if any, benefits and opportunities for promotion. Our research suggests that the gendered nature of part-time work is even broader; we show great interest in part-time arrangements even among female managers and professionals.

When gender and family status are controlled, we find significant national differences. Hence, even in a high-performance, American corporation, employees' views of part-time work and work-family issues more generally are strongly conditioned by the country in which they live. In particular, Hong Kong respondents express much greater interest in working part-time than their British and American counterparts. In fact, Hong Kong single men are more likely than single women and married men in England and in the

United States to report interest in part-time work. This finding highlights the importance of national context in understanding employees' responses to work-family issues.

Hong Kong employees' greater interest in part-time work cannot be attributed to the greater availability of this employment option. In fact, fewer Hong Kong workers overall are employed part-time than in the United States or England. And unlike most other industrialized countries (including England and the United States), part-time work in Hong Kong is slightly more common among men than women. Based on previous research, we believe that much of this Hong Kong effect is due to a Confucian-based culture that values family as the cornerstone of society and identity and regards work as the means to the end of better caring for family. Thus, even though Hong Kong respondents work about the same number of hours as their American and British coworkers, they are less likely to see time spent on family responsibilities as a cost to career advancement and are more likely to resent work as an incursion onto their lives outside of work.

According to the literature, "utilitarian familism" is the cultural tendency of Hong Kong Chinese to place familial interests over other interests, and material familial interests are at least as important as expressive and emotional ties between family members (Lau, 1981, 1983). This emphasis on promoting the family's financial well-being and the prevalence of small family firms in Hong Kong (Redding, 1990) might mean that some respondents want more time away from International Finance to be involved in family businesses or other independent ventures. However, 64% of women and 59% of men in the Hong Kong sample worry about how their work hours affect those in their personal life (compared to just 40% of British and 40% of American respondents with this concern). These respondents may wish they could spend more time with family members. Further research is needed on national differences in how employees would actually use desired extra hours away from work and ways this may differ by gender.

Hong Kong employees' concerns about long work hours and greater interest in part-time work may also reflect these workers' responses to the pressures of globalization. Although these pressures were not unique to Hong Kong, they may have been more intense for Hong Kong respondents, because our data were collected during the late 1990s Asian recession. Economic aspects of the national context thus may also play a role in shaping employees' interest in part-time work.

These national differences are all the more striking because they occur among professionals doing very similar work within one division of one company with a strong high-performance culture. American-based global

capitalism has not yet had a completely homogenizing effect on workers' preferences with regard to work-family balance. This finding aligns with other studies that have found significant national differences in numerous aspects of employment, such as managerial values, workers' psychological attachment to the organization, and choice of employee benefit plans, among others (Kirkbride & Tang, 1989; Oliver & Cravens, 1999; Ralston et al., 1993; Redding et al., 1994).

Our alternative hypothesis that British women would be more likely and British men less likely than their counterparts in the other countries to express interest was not supported. In our sample, British women have similar levels of interest in part-time work as American women and much less interest than Hong Kong women. British men show a similar pattern. The lack of a bigger sex gap in interest among British employees could be due to the fact that highly educated professional women in England are more likely than less-educated women to work full-time (Brannen & Moss, 1998). Thus, in forming work-family preferences, our female British respondents may not view British women generally as their reference group but rather professional women like themselves. Another possible explanation is that our very small sample of British respondents makes statistically significant effects harder to detect. A full test of the hypothesis about British women's greater interest and men's lower interest in part-time work due to the institutionalization of maternal part-time employment must await a larger sample of British respondents.

One starkly evident finding is that American finance professionals are less likely to express interest in working part-time than their counterparts in England and Hong Kong. This finding of a distinctly American culture of overtime aligns with cross-national findings by Jacobs and Gerson (1997) and Schor (1991). Although many American respondents complain about long work hours and worry that work conflicts with their family and personal lives, they are less likely to admit even a passing interest in part-time work than are their colleagues doing very similar work in the other two countries. Although we found more employee interest in part-time work than Hochschild's (1997) study of the "time bind" suggests, she has detected something about American employees' remarkable reluctance to even consider cutting back on work hours. We speculate that this reluctance may be due to greater individualism and a stronger equation of work with individual achievement and identity in the United States than in England and Hong Kong. Further research will have to explore these possible explanations and assess whether Americans' greater reluctance to consider part-time work also characterizes nonelite workers.

CONCLUSION

Work-family balance is an issue that reaches across the industrialized world. This issue is particularly salient for professionals and managers, who are most likely to be embedded within an overtime culture that demands excessively long work hours. Like others in these occupations, the managers and professionals in our sample work long, stressful hours. Despite the stigma of part-time work among professionals (cf. Epstein et al., 1999) and a strong, high-performance culture at International Finance that discourages part-time work, 43% of our respondents express some interest in working part-time. Although our measure of interest is generous, this high proportion expressing at least some interest in a fairly radical work arrangement is remarkable. Possibly, this discontent with long work hours and underlying interest in part-time employment among elite employees will gradually make part-time work arrangements more legitimate and more common in the organization. At the same time, even with a liberal definition of interest, greater than half of the employees we surveyed expressed no interest whatsoever in working part-time. This suggests that alternative work arrangements, although becoming more popular, may never appeal to a majority of professionals.

Much further research is needed to fully understand employees' interest in reduced work hours. Workers in different countries who express interest in part-time work may have very different ideas about what this means or how they might spend their wished-for free hours. New research should focus more directly on people's views of time and its allocation between work and other life activities (cf. Epstein & Kalleberg, 2001; Parcel, 1999). And consistent with Perlow (2001), more research is needed on the factors that shape time spent at work and the ways these vary across occupations, organizations, and countries.

In addition to problems with defining part-time work, our findings are qualified by the limitations of our sample: a relatively small sample of professionals in one organization. Moreover, our study shares a limitation with many cross-national studies in that we are unable to identify exactly what aspects of the national context account for the differences we observe. A larger cross-national sample that contained data on each country's institutional practices and cultural norms as well as information on workers' circumstances and beliefs would allow us to better understand the role of national context in shaping employees' views. However, our focus on employees holding very similar jobs in one division of one organization rules out many possible sources of variation. Research on a larger and more diverse

sample is needed to see if our findings can be generalized to professionals and managers in other types of companies, industries, and countries.

NOTES

1. People may desire alternative work arrangements but may be unable to arrange them. Workers who would like to reduce work hours may find themselves constrained by workplace policy, workplace culture and supervisor support, or work group demography (Blair-Loy & Wharton, *in press*; Epstein et al., 1999; Hays, 1998). National social policies and cultures may also shape the feasibility of working part-time (Haas, Hwang, & Russell, 2000). In addition, some may be unable to afford the drop in income or the costs to career advancement that a part-time arrangement would bring (Wharton & Blair-Loy, 2000). Part-time managers and professionals retain fringe benefits at International Finance, but the costs of providing them might prompt the firm to discourage part-time arrangements (*cf.* Schor, 1991).

2. Definitions of part-time employment vary, creating problems for researchers interested in cross-national levels of part-time employment (Hakim, 1997). In the United Kingdom, for example, part-time employment is defined as working less than 30 hours a week (Hakim, 1997). In Hong Kong, part-time work includes people in one of the following categories: works less than 5 days per week, less than 6 hours per day, or less than 30 hours per week (F. Tung, personal communication, 1999). In the United States, the Current Population Survey defines part-time workers as those whose weekly hours—in all jobs—total less than 35 per week (Blossfeld & Hakim, 1997). Other problems with these data on levels of part-time employment are that they do not distinguish between voluntary and involuntary part-time work (Bolle, 1997) or between primary and secondary part-time jobs (Tilly, 1992).

3. We mailed self-administered questionnaires to individuals at their work address and enclosed a self-addressed envelope for them to return the questionnaire to us. The surveys were confidential, and they were anonymous to the extent that we knew what work group a response came from but not what individual. Like much survey research conducted in organizations, our data are collected from self-reports and thus are susceptible to the problem of common method bias (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). We do not believe this was a serious problem, however. First, many of our measures of interest (and our controls) are demographic and hence not as subject to bias as measures of attitudes or behavior. In addition, interest in part-time work was not the survey's main focus; employees were asked about their knowledge of and interest in a whole range of work-family policies, and individuals responded differently to different policies. The attitudinal measures (*i.e.*, family costs and Work-Conflicts-With-Life Scale) appeared elsewhere in the survey and were not adjacent to each other. All of these factors minimize the extent to which respondents' desire to respond consistently could account for our results.

4. According to the human resource personnel we interviewed, this homogeneity is a function of the type of work performed by this division. Most employees in this division are financial professionals whose jobs involve the same discrete set of responsibilities. The two divisions not included in this study were not internationally dispersed. Our promise to protect confidentiality of the division prohibits us from discussing respondents' work in greater detail.

5. We sampled entire work units in each country. Hence, all of our respondents are members of semipermanent work groups (*vs.* rotating teams or solo workers). These work groups range from 2 to 34 employees, with a median of 7. Fifty-two work groups are included in the analysis. Response rates for the work groups included in the study varied somewhat by country; the

7 Hong Kong work groups had a 48% response rate, whereas the 12 work groups in London had a 58% response rate, and the 33 U.S. work groups had a response rate of 53%.

6. We constructed these four variables from our list of survey recipients. In England, two-sample *t* tests showed that among these four variables, the only statistically significant difference was for mean work group size: Respondents had an average work group size of 6 people, whereas survey recipients had an average work group size of 5. In Hong Kong, two-sample *t* tests showed no statistically significant differences between recipients and respondents except for the sex composition of the work group: Respondents' work groups were an average of 69% female, compared to recipients' average of 62% female. In the United States, two-sample *t* tests revealed no statistically significant differences between survey recipients and respondents for any of these variables. For the U.S. sample only, we could use a confidential personnel database supplied by the company to construct a few additional variables characterizing survey recipients. Comparing survey recipients to respondents, we found no statistically significant differences for the variables of marital status, organizational tenure, or age. We did find a modest but statistically significant difference in race: 75% of respondents in the United States sample were White compared to 67% of survey recipients. This higher proportion of Whites among respondents has been found in other organizational surveys as well (e.g., Podolny & Baron, 1997).

7. We used ordinary least squares to compute the predicted rate of nonresponse for each work group as a function of log work group size, supervisor sex, and country. Using procedures developed by Berk (1992), we then included these predicted probabilities in our models as a work group-level variable. The selection variable was not statistically significant in our models, nor did its inclusion affect any of the other coefficients. Following previous researchers (e.g., Podolny & Baron, 1997), we do not include the selection variable in our final analyses.

8. It is theoretically possible to estimate three-level models (e.g., individuals nested within work groups within countries). Because we have data on only three countries, however, we estimate a two-level model and treat country as a work group-level characteristic. This two-level approach is preferable to a conventional ordinary least squares model containing individual-level predictors and country-level dummies. The multilevel approach allows us to model the social dependence that exists between members of the same work group. Failure to take this dependence between individuals into account would produce inefficient regression coefficients and negatively biased standard errors (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992, pp. 98-102).

9. Because many of our work groups are relatively small (e.g., < 10), we use a random intercept model. In this type of model, the intercept is allowed to vary randomly across groups, but the slopes are fixed. Models containing large numbers of random effects are impossible to estimate when there are few observations per group (see Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992). We report results from "population-average" models with robust standard error estimates (Bryk, Raudenbush, & Congdon, 1996).

10. Employees were asked about their interest in and use of nine different work-family policies, including voluntary part-time work. The wording on the latter item was as follows: "Part-time: Employees are allowed to shift to part-time work." Responses included the following: "Have used/am currently using"; "could possibly use in the future"; "would like to use, but doubtful I will be able to"; and "no need, no interest." Employees were considered interested if they checked any one of the first three responses.

11. Approximately 75% of those employees who had children younger than 6 had only one child this young, and all but one of the remaining employees had only two children younger than 6. There was no statistically significant difference between having only one young child and having more than one young child in employees' interest in part-time work.

12. In preliminary analyses, we considered several other possible control variables (i.e., age, job autonomy, log job tenure, and log organizational tenure at the individual level; log work

group size and sex of supervisor at the work group level). None of these variables were statistically significant, and their absence did not affect any other coefficients in the model. Hence, they were dropped from the final analyses.

13. Our income categories were as follows: (a) less than \$40,000, (b) \$40,000 to \$59,999, (c) \$60,000 to \$79,999, (d) \$80,000 to \$99,999, (e) \$100,000 to \$129,999, (f) \$130,000 to \$159,999, (g) \$160,000 to \$189,999, (h) \$190,000 to \$229,999, (i) \$230,000 to \$259,999, and (j) greater than \$260,000. Salaries of British and Hong Kong respondents were converted to U. S. dollars.

$$14. \hat{\mu}_{ij} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\{-\gamma_{00}\}}$$

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