DO WOMEN REALLY WANT PART-TIME JOBS? AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON WHETHER FULL-TIME JOBS OR PART-TIME JOBS GIVE HIGHER SATISFACTION

by

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

The study explores the relationship between working status and the welling-being of prime-aged men and women with young children. By using the Canadian GSS cycle 19 dataset, I studied two aspects of well-being: "satisfaction with jobs or main activities" and "satisfaction with life as a whole". The main findings are that for partnered moms, those with part-time jobs report lower job satisfaction and higher life satisfaction than their full-time counterparts.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS USED

GSS   General Social Survey

LFS   United Kingdom Labour Force Survey

LIS   Luxembourg Income Study

OECD   The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

OLS   Ordinary Least Square

SWB   Subjective well-being

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

With the ever increasing female labour force participation, more and more partnered women are faced with the conundrum of holding paid jobs while caring for the family at the same time. As a result, part-time jobs with more flexible working time arrangements become increasingly popular among women in many countries (OECD Employment outlook, 2010). Despite of the increasing popularity, debate continues as to whether the growing part-time employment is a desirable labour market outcome. The negative view is that part-time jobs are generally polarized to the low-end low-wage occupations. Yet evidence showed that many women working part-time are actually qualified for, or have previously held, higher-level-better-paid jobs (Equal Opportunities Commission, 2005). Previous studies also found that more and more young women have high career expectations and aspirations and they have good educational achievement (Fortin, Oreopoulos and Phipps, 2013). Therefore, it is argued that the contrast of low-end nature of part-time jobs and the increasing education levels of women actually implies wastage or under-utilization of human capital (Booth and Van Ours, 2010). On the positive side, part-time work, by helping women reconcile their multiple responsibilities in the market and in the household, actually increase women's labour market participation.

Against this background, an interesting question is whether women really like their jobs or it is a choice they have to make under certain time constraints. Using the Statistics Canada Cycle 19 of the General Social Survey (GSS) time use database, I seek to answer the question whether part-time work increases or decreases women's job

satisfaction and life satisfaction, controlling for all the available personal and occupational characteristics. By ignoring those who are not in the labour force, I tried to compare whether full-time or part-time jobs give higher well-being index. Recognizing child care may be the most burdensome family task for most female workers, I focus on individuals with children under 14 years old in my empirical analysis. Specifically, I focus on three subgroups of individuals in the analysis: partnered mothers, partnered fathers and lone mothers. Ordinary least square (OLS) estimates are done for each of the three subsamples.

This paper is conducted in the following manner. Chapter two reviews the existing studies about job satisfaction among female workers and dual-earners families. Chapter three discusses the data used in later parts and presents some descriptive statistics. Chapter four presents the results of empirical regression. Finally, conclusions are drawn in chapter five.

CHAPTER 2 BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Part-time jobs: good jobs or bad jobs?

Part-time jobs have become increasingly popular in many OECD countries, especially for partnered women (married or common-law), a group which traditionally has low labour force participation. Figure 1 shows the labour force participation rates and part-time employment as a percentage of total employment for 30 OECD countries for women aged between 25 and 54 years. By the year 2012, the majority of OECD countries have a 70-85% female labour force participation rates while the part-time percentage of total employment varied widely, ranging from a low of 4.3% in Russia to as high as 55.9% in the Netherlands and 46.42% in Switzerland. On average, OECD countries have 22% of prime aged women who work in part-time jobs.

Despite the growth of part-time employment in the past decades, part-time job takers still faced a substantial "penalty" in terms of pay, job security, training and promotion and unemployment benefits, which has been confirmed by much of the existing literature.

For example, Bardasi and Gornick (2008), using cross-nationally comparable micro-data from the Luxembourg Income Study (LIS), investigated the wage gap between part-time and full-time women workers in Canada, Germany, Italy, Sweden, the UK and the US. A substantial wage penalty among women workers is found in almost all of the above countries. Similar findings were reported by Manning and Petrongolo (2008) using the UK Labour Force Survey (LFS). It was found in Britain that women with part-time work have 25% lower hourly earnings than their full-time counterparts.

Figure 1. Labour force participation rates and part-time employment as a percentage total employment, for prime aged women 25-54, 2012
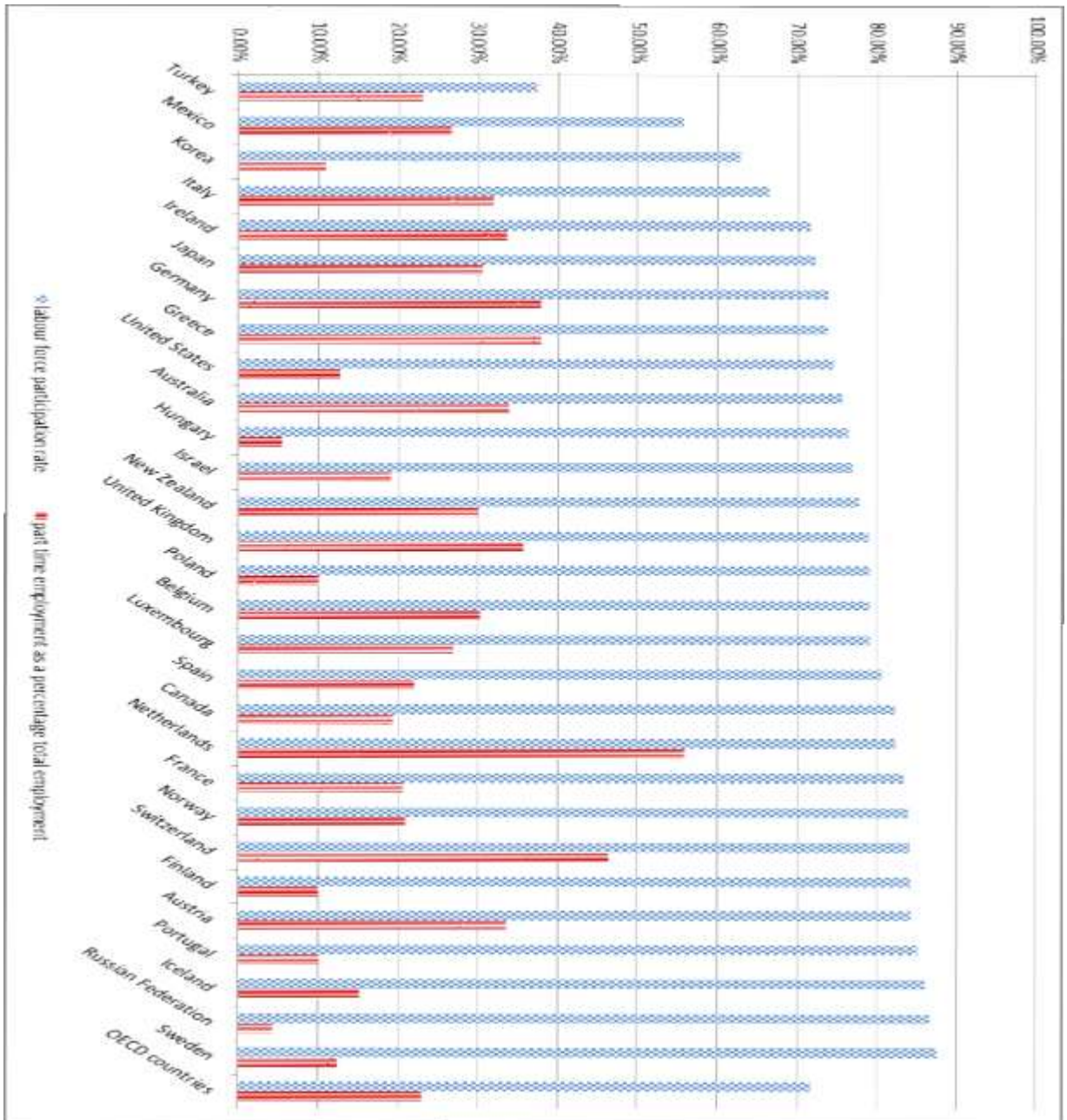
Data source: OECD labour force statistics

Note: 1. labour force participation rates are calculated as the rati of civilian labour force and population including conscripts and armed forces.

2. Part-time employment rate is calculated as the number of part-timers as a percentage of total employment (full-timers and part-timers), where part-time employment is based on a common definition of 30-usual weekly hours of work in the main job

Russo and Hassink (2008) investigated the results of part-time jobs from a career perspective and found that part-time working is generally associated with low incidence of promotion. In addition to wage and promotion prospects, part-time workers also report less training (Nelen and de Grip, 2009) and lower job security by both objective measurement (permanent contract) and subjective measurement (whether they feel that jobs are secure) (OECD, 2010).

Despite the "penalty" part-time job takers faced, it cannot be the complete story given the reality that part-time work continues to increase in many OECD countries. There must also be some "premium" for part-time jobs to justify the growth. The most important and salient advantage of part-time work is the flexible schedule, which allows women to reconcile their responsibilities in home and at work. Moreover, compared to one common alternative: ceasing employment during children rearing ages and resuming employment afterwards, part-time employment seems like a wiser choice since it allows one to maintain social connection. Overall, it remains hard to say whether part-time jobs are intrinsically "bad" or "good".

2.2 Factors affecting women's choice of part-time jobs: Statutory rights, childcare provisions and taxation

Female participation in the labour force may be determined by a variety of factors. Among them, I will discuss relevant policies (in section 2.2) and culture attitudes (in section 2.3). The relevant policies include (1) statutory rights for part-time workers; (2) child care provisions; and (3) system of family taxation.

From a policy-making perspective, there has been a debate on whether part-time jobs are good or not. The negative view is that part-time jobs imply under-utilization of labour force. And given the current population aging problem, the wastage of human capital obviously has some negative implications for future economic growth and public finance ((Jaumotte, 2003). On the other hand, it is also argued that some people, especially women with dual responsibilities, would simply opt for no labour market participation without the option of part-time working. And the large percentage of voluntary part-timers seemed to serve as good evidence for this view.

Despite these controversies, most OECD countries have introduced the so-called "equal treatment provisions" since the 1990s, which entitled the part-timers to receive the same contractual pay and working conditions as full-time workers. In many OECD countries, full-time working parents have the right to request the shift to part-time work (Not applicable in Canada, discussed later in section 2.5). However, such a request can be refused by employers on serious business grounds or any grounds, depending on countries.

Child care provisions are also important factors affecting women's choice of work status. A number of studies have explored the relationship between childcare provisions and female labour force status. Thomas Andren (2003), using data for Sweden single mothers, found that a decrease in childcare cost increases the working hours of those who already are working (instead of encouraging non-workers to start work). It is suggested that childcare costs are indeed an obstacle for women to full-time work (rather than to employment). Similar results are found in other countries. For example, Wrohlish (2009), using the data from the German Socio Economic Panel (SOEP), found that increasing

child care subsidies conditional on employment increases labor supply of all women including those highly educated women.

Taxation may also influence work incentives, it is argued that women's working hours are more sensitive to tax than men (Jaumotte, 2003). In a progressive tax system with individual tax filing, a household where the husband earns all the income would pay higher tax than a household where both spouses earn income. The effects of tax can be sophisticated in that tax incentive does not always reach its target outcomes. For example, Bosch and Van der Klaauw (2012) studied the effect of a tax incentive in Netherlands that financially encouraged women with high income husbands to work more. Interestingly, after the tax incentive took effect, women reacted by reducing their working hours with the higher after-tax hourly wage.

2.3 Factors affecting women's choice of part-time jobs: gender difference in time use

In addition to the economics incentives mentioned in the last section, cultures and social norms also contribute to women's choices of work status. The neoclassical economists posited that the family division of labour depended on comparative advantage where men generally have comparative advantage in market work and women in household production (Becker, 1965). The extreme case of this would be that husbands fully engaged in market work and women in house work. Yet part-time jobs for women provide a reconciliation of domestic and market works, which was referred to "incomplete specialization" by gender. Later, Akerlof and Kranton (2009) expanded the traditional utility function by bringing identity as an argument into the function. Thus the expanded utility function include both the monetary incentive and identity related payoff.

Holding the monetary payoff a constant, one will have more utility when his/her behavior is in accordance with his/her identity. The framework can be used to model the household division of labour. For example, husbands feel like losing their identities when they do house work or when their wives earn more than themselves. The utility can be restored when their wives undertake more housework.

These household behavior theories relate to the topic in the sense that they may affect women's preference of work status. In a culture where gender-stereotyping working roles are dominant, women working full-time may be less likely. It is found that in the Netherlands with the increase of female share of market work, the male share of housework increases very slightly. On the other hand, female share of house work does decrease, but the decrease is less than the increase in time engaged in market work (Booth and van Ours, 2010). According to the OECD employment database, in virtually every country, men have more leisure time each day while women spend more time doing unpaid housework. On average, women in OECD countries do 60% of unpaid work while in Japan and Korea it is over 80%. Norway gets the closest to equality at 54%, followed by Sweden and Denmark. The gender gap in leisure time is highest in Italy, followed by Mexico and Poland. It is zero in countries such as Canada and New Zealand.

2.4 Previous empirical studies on part-time jobs and subjective well being

Standard economic theory had been dubious about the use of subjective well-being (SWB) due to the facts that people have different expectations and personalities which are hard to include in econometric analysis. Moreover, comparability can also be a

problem: how can you compare the well-being of two people when they have totally different evaluation system? (Hamermesh, Daniel S. 2001) But the validity has been established by a number of studies. Oswald (1997) argued that subjective well-being is correlated with observable phenomena. For example, people who report high happiness tend to laugh and smile more, and they also tend to be rated by others as happier. Such connection between subjective well-being and objective measurements was also confirmed by Frey and Stutzer (2002).

While self-reported satisfaction has been widely used as a measurement for well-being, studies that specifically explore how work status (Full-time or Part-time) affects job satisfaction and life satisfaction are relatively rare, especially in Canada. Research from the Netherlands (Booth and Van Ours, 2010) found that partnered women with part-time work have higher job satisfaction. In terms of life satisfaction, the studies indicate that men are happiest if they have full-time jobs; they are even happier if their partner works in part-time jobs. For women the life satisfaction is not significantly affected by their working hours or their partners' working hours. Studies from Japan showed that rather than the actual paid work time, it is the gap between actual and desired work time that affects women's job satisfaction (Boyles and Shibata, 2009). In contrast to the work in developed countries, a study in Honduras found that women who work part-time do not exhibit higher job satisfaction (Lopez Boo, Madrigal and Pages, 2010).

It is also noted that part-time workers are not a homogenous group: some of them voluntarily choose the working status to comply with the prescription of gender identity; some of them choose to do so due to the inability to meet the demand of housework and

market work at the same time (Russo, 2012). As a result, part-time workers have demonstrated different responses in questions of job satisfaction and life satisfaction.
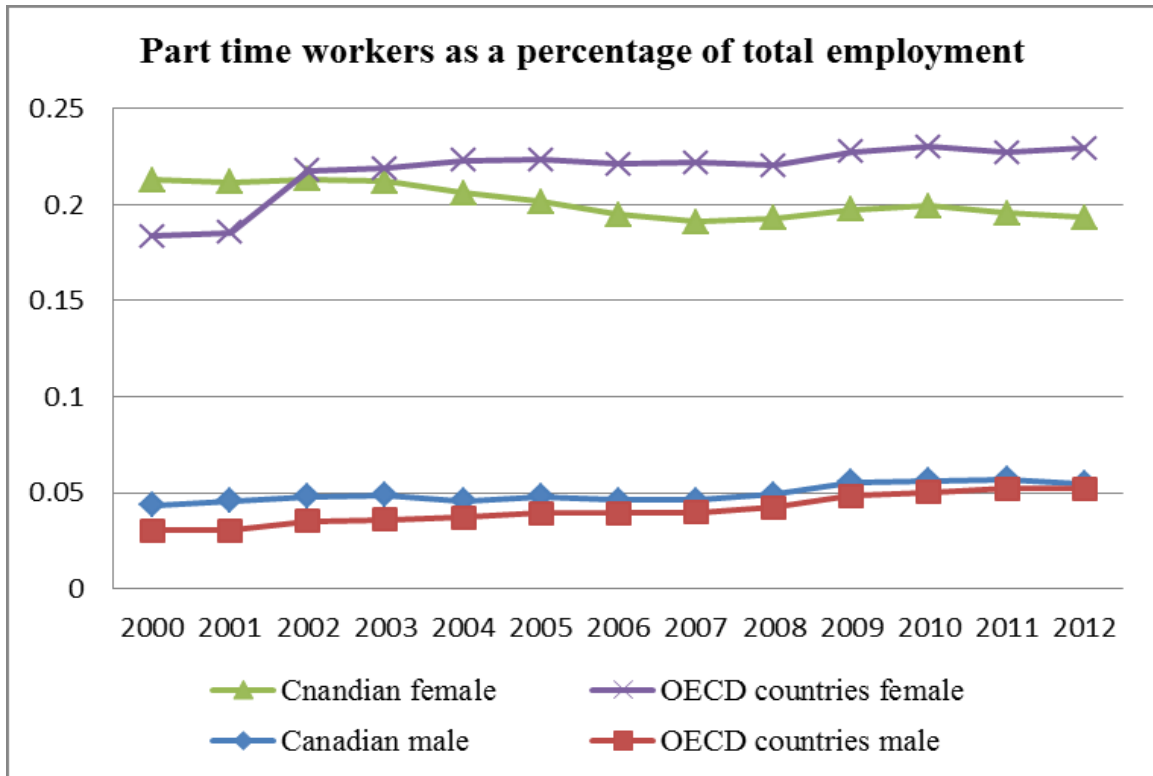
2.5 Part-time jobs in Canada

Figure 1 shows the labour force participation rates as well as the part-time employment as a percentage of total employment rates for 29 OECD countries. It can be seen from the figure that Canada has a lower-than-average part-time employment rate despite of its high-than-average labour force participation rates. Figure 2 shows the time trend of the above two rates from 2000 to 2012 for Canada and for OECD average. It can be seen that over the past 12 years, despite the increasing trend of part-time working among OECD countries, Canada's percentage of females working part-time is actually slightly decreasing from 21% to 19%. By 2012, while Canadian prime-aged women's labour force participation rate is 10 percentage points higher than the OECD average (82% versus 72%), the part-time employment percentage is actually 4 percentage points below the OECD average (19% versus 23%). Thus it seems that part-time jobs do not have such a high popularity among Canadian prime aged women as in European countries.

These results are actually quite understandable given that the relevant policies in Canada are not very supportive to part-time working and part-time workers. Despite the facts that many OECD countries allow full-time workers to request a shift to part-time work, such rights are not allowed in Canada. While around half of OECD countries require employers to notify part-time employees of any full-time vacancies, such requirements are not applicable in Canada. Furthermore, the qualifying period of access

to unemployment benefits are subject to working hours in Canada. That is to say that the length of the employment for a half time worker must be twice as long time for he/she to be qualify for the unemployment benefits (OECD employment outlook, 2010).

Figure 2 Part-time employment as a percentage total employment, OECD average and Canada, 2000 to 2012

Part time workers as a percentage of total employment

Legend: Cnandian female — OECD countries female — Canadian male — OECD countries male

Data source: OECD labour force statistics

Note: 1. Part-time employment rate is calculated as the number of part-timers as a percentage of total employment (full-timers and part-timers), where part -time employment is based on a common definition of 30-usual weekly hours of work in the main job.

CHAPTER 3   DATA, VARIABLES AND DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The data used in this paper are drawn from the Cycle 19 of the Canadian General Social Survey (GSS) time use main file collected by Statistics Canada. The survey was conducted from January through December 2005, targeting the population of all persons 15 years of age and older in 10 provinces, excluding residents of the Yukon, Northwest Territories, and Nunavut and full-time residents of institutions. The total size of the survey is 19597.

The analysis is focused on prime-age (25 to 54 years old) men and women who have at least one young child (under age 14) and one paid job (either full-time or part-time). The reason for focusing on this subsample of observations is that part-time jobs provide flexibility, which becomes more attractive when one has to struggle between career and housework. With childcare being probably the most time consuming unpaid work, it is more reasonable to focus on those who are shouldering both the childcare responsibility and work responsibility at the same time to see how part-time jobs may affect job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Those who do not have paid employment are dropped from the sample since I focus on whether full-time or part-time jobs give higher satisfaction. This subsample of observations is further divided into three groups: partnered moms are those female respondents living with married/common law partners with at least one child under age 14; partnered fathers are those male respondents living with married/common law partners with at least one child under age 14; lone moms are those female respondents who have no partners and at least one young child in the household. Focusing on these three subgroups, "partnered moms" has in total 1249

12

observations; "partnered dads" has 1415 observations; "lone moms" has 457 observations[1].

The dependent variables are "satisfaction with jobs or main activities" and "satisfaction with life as a whole". The question in the survey concerning job satisfaction is: "*Please rate your feelings about them, using a scale of 1 to 10 where 1 means "Very dissatisfied" and 10 means "Very satisfied". What about: your job or main activity?"* Concerning life satisfaction, the respondents were asked: "*how do you feel about your life as a whole right now*". Similarly, the response is coded 1 if very dissatisfied and 10 if very satisfied. The key explanatory variables are weekly working hours and working status (full-time or part-time). In this context, working full- time is defined as working 30 or more hours per week and working part-time is defined as working less than 30 hours per week.

Figure 3 and Figure 4 show the distribution of job satisfaction and life satisfaction respectively. For partnered moms, full-time respondents and part-time respondents are reported separately. For partnered dads and lone moms, the histogram is presented only for full-time respondents since part-time subsample sizes are too small (37 for part-time partnered dads and 62 for part-time lone moms) hence the distributions are likely to be biased.

Regarding "satisfaction with job or main activities', it can be clearly seen from Figure 3 that all of the three subgroups have the median and mode in level 8, and they share similar patterns in distribution: level 8 has the highest percentage, followed by level

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[1] Actually there are also some lone fathers who are male respondents with no partners and with at least one young child. "Lone father" has 136 observations, which is too small. So this group is omitted in the later parts of analysis.

Figure 3 Distribution of satisfaction with jobs or main activities
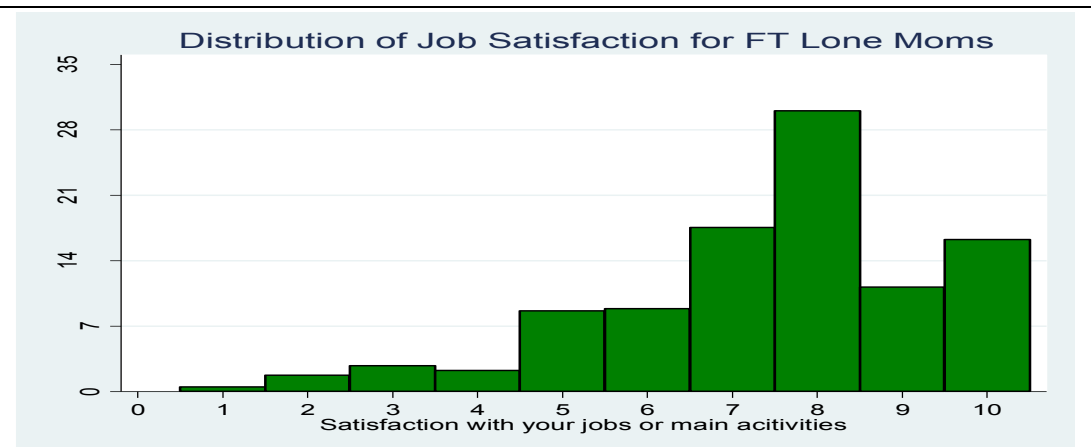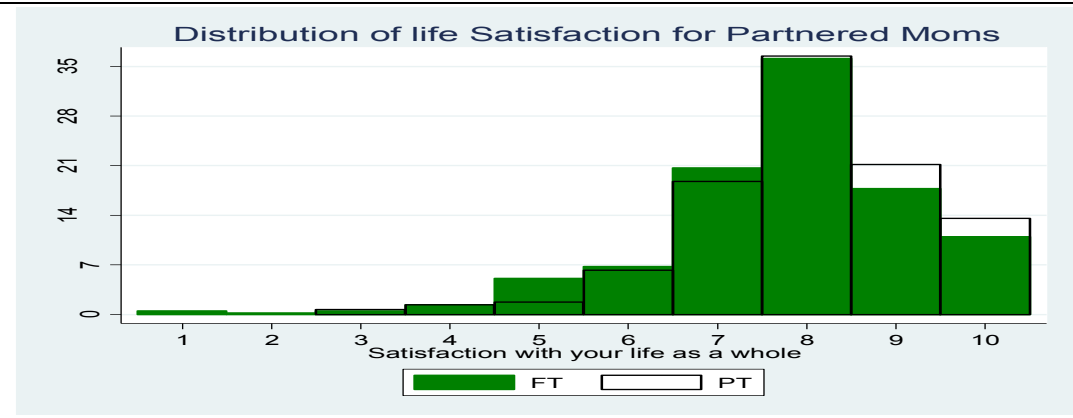
Panel a. Partnered Moms
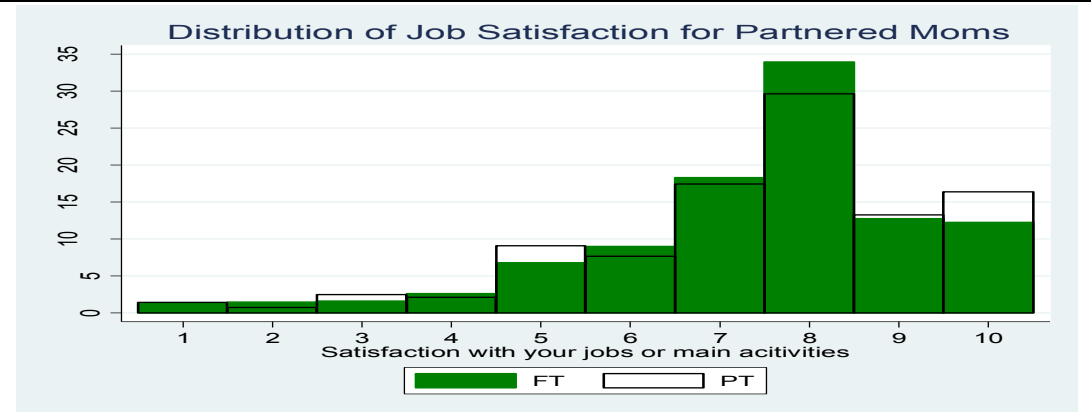
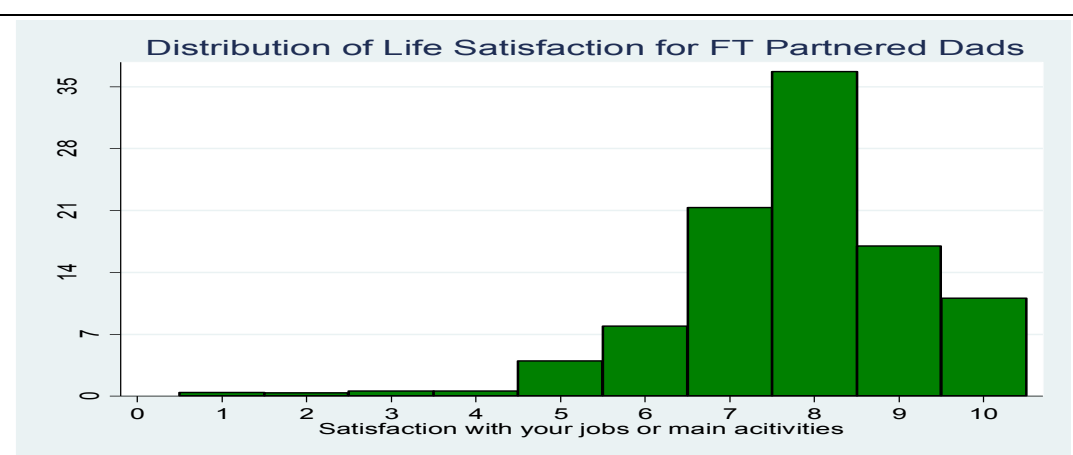
Panel b. Partnered Fathers

Panel c. Lone Moms

14

Figure 4 Distribution of life satisfaction

Panel a. Partnered Moms

Distribution of life Satisfaction for Partnered Moms

Satisfaction with your life as a whole

FT   PT

Panel b. Partnered Fathers

Distribution of Life Satisfaction for FT Partnered Dads

Satisfaction with your jobs or main acitivities

Panel c. Lone Moms

Distribution of Life Satisfaction for FT lone Moms

Satisfaction with your jobs or main acitivities

7, then followed by level 9 or 10 of satisfaction. Comparing the full-time and part-time distribution for partnered moms, it seems that part-time moms have more "stretched" distribution: while they have higher percentage for level 10 satisfactions, they also have higher percentage for level 5 and level 3 of satisfaction. This may indicate that part-time moms have higher probabilities to be either very satisfied or very unsatisfied with their jobs or main activities; while their full-time counterparts are more likely to be in the middle range of satisfactions (level 6, 7, and 8).

Figure 4 showed that the distribution of life satisfaction which looks quite similar to that of job satisfaction, but there is some subtle difference. Generally the distribution is highly concentrated on 7, 8, 9, 10 levels of satisfaction, but the distribution for lone moms lies to the left of those of the other groups with higher percentage in levels 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 and lower percentage in levels 8, 9, and 10. This indicates that lone moms generally have a lower life satisfaction than the other two groups. Comparing the full-time and part-time distributions for partnered moms, part-time working respondents have substantially higher density in level 9 and level 10, almost the same density in level 8 and a lower density in the bands below or equal to 7 compared to their full-time counterparts. Hence it seems to me that part-time moms' life satisfaction generally dominates their full-time counter parts, i.e., part-time working partnered moms generally have a higher life satisfaction than full-time partnered moms.

The GSS dataset also contained information about other determinants of "satisfaction with jobs or main activities" and "satisfaction about life as a whole". These include information on age, income, region, immigrant status, education, health and other

16

personal characteristics and job characteristics. Specifically, they are defined in the following manners:

1. Age of the respondents is presented in the dataset as a categorical variable with 15 groups ranging from 15 to 80 years and over. I focused only on prime-aged people (25 to 54) and used the mean age of each group to approximate a continuous variable (Age).

2. Similarly, income is the annual personal income of the respondent categorized in 12 groups, ranging from 0 to $100,000 and above. The mean income for each group is used to approximate a continuous variable (Income). Log of mean income is used in the OLS regressions.

3. Spouse income is derived from deducting average personal income from average household income. Log of mean spouse income is used in the regression.

4. Time crunch index is a derived variable which measures the number of yes in a series of ten questions regarding time crunch. These questions include "do you feel trapped in a daily routine?" or "do you feel constantly under stress trying to accomplish more you can handle?" To avoid too many categories, I used it as a continuous variable where 0 indicating "less time crunched" and 10 indicating "very much time stressed". Time crunch square is also included in the regression to catch the possible non-linear relationship.

5. Age of the youngest single child is a continuous variable capped to 25 years old, including birth, adopted and step-child (ren).

6. Number of children 0 to 14 years of age living in the household originally has four categories: none (code 0); one child (code 1), two children (code 2) and three or more children (code 3). Since I only focus on prime aged men and women with at least one child under 14 years old, the data I used only have values of 1, 2 and 3 for this variable. The baseline is two children.

7. Rural is a derived dummy variable with 1 indicating the respondent living in rural and small town or Prince-Edward-Island; 0 indicating the respondent living in larger urban centers.

8. Birth-outside-Canada is a derived dummy variable with 1 indicating the respondent was born outside Canada; 0 indicating the respondent was born in Canada.

9. Flexible schedule is a derived dummy variable with 1 indicating the respondents have a flexible schedule that allows him/her to choose the time he/she begins and ends the work day; 0 indicating he/she does not have a flexible schedule.

10. Permanent is a derived dummy variable with 1 indicating respondents' job is a permanent job, i.e. the employer did not hire the employee on the understanding that the job would last only for a fixed duration; 0 indicating otherwise.

11. Union is a derived dummy variable with 1 indicating that the respondent is a union member, i.e. covered by union contract or collective agreement; 0 indicating otherwise.

12. Self-perceived health is scaled from 1 to 5 where 1 indicating excellent health and 5 indicating poor health. The exact wording of the question was "In general, would you say your health is".

13. Sense of belonging is scaled from 1 to 4 where 1 indicating very strong and 4 indicating very weak. The exact wording of the question was "How would you describe your sense of belonging to your local community?"

14. Preference to work more or less is scaled from 1 to 3 where 1 indicating "prefer to work fewer hours for less pay", 2 indicating "prefer to work more hours for more pay" and 3 indicating "prefer the same hours for the same pay". 3 is used as the baseline.

Other control variables include highest level of education, region, occupation and industries. They are all categorical variables and are self-explanatory. So I will just present the mean values of them in Table 1 and omit their definitions.

The selection of variables is based on the numerous previous literatures that examine the contributing factors of subjective well-being at individual level. Up to date, there has been a general agreement on the main factors of SWB. For example, higher income is generally associated with higher happiness levels (Frey and Stutzer, 2002). Later, Blanchflower and Oswald (2011) argued that people who are rich, educated, and in work are more likely to be happy. The non-linear effects of age on life satisfaction were also found by Blanchflower and Oswald (2011), where people have the lowest satisfaction in their middle age. Immigrants generally reports lower life satisfaction than local counterparts. (Burton and Phipps 2010). In terms of "satisfaction with job or main

activates", I added some characteristics of jobs, such as whether it has a flexible schedule or whether it is a permanent job. Occupations and industry are also relevant job characteristics. Job satisfaction is closely linked to the salary paid and my focus is on the time stress aspects of the situation, hence I control the finance aspects by using personal income and spouse income.

The weighted mean and standard errors of the entire dependent and independent variables are presented in Table 1. It can be seen that in all of the three subgroups, working full-time is the dominant status for the majority of people, especially for partnered dads, where almost all respondents (98%) have full-time jobs. Some 86% of lone mothers work full-time and about 77% of partnered moms work full-time.

Table 1, together with Table 2 and Table 3; show an interesting phenomenon that working status has different associations with women's job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Specifically, as Table 2 indicates, part-time working partnered moms report significantly higher mean values of life satisfaction than their full-time counterparts (8.03 versus 7.72). In the group of partnered dads, part-time respondents have significantly higher means in job satisfactions (8.18 versus 7.42). One thing should be noted that for partnered dads and lone moms, the sample sizes for part-time workers are rather small: 37 for partnered dads due to the extremely low percentage of men taking part-time jobs; 62 for lone moms due to both the relatively small percentage and the small observations of lone moms. Therefore, although the means are presented in the table, the small samples may render comparison between full-timers and part-timers less convincing.

Table 1 OLS estimates of job/main activities satisfaction and life satisfaction on part-time dummy, without controlling variables

Baseline: full-time work

	satisfactions with job or main activities			satisfaction with life as a whole		
	partnered moms	partnered dads	lone moms	partnered moms	partnered dads	lone moms
part-time	-0.0565	0.776***	-0.319	0.304***	0.314	-0.0446
	(0.158)	(0.288)	(0.324)	(0.103)	(0.278)	(0.329)
R-square	0	0.005	0.003	0.008	0.001	0

Table 2 OLS estimates of job satisfaction and life satisfaction on group dummy, without controlling variables

Baseline: partnered moms

	satisfactions with job or main activities	satisfaction with life as a whole
Partnered dads	-0.164**	-0.0947
	(0.072)	(0.061)
Lone moms	-0.184	-0.566***
	(0.118)	(0.105)
R-square	0.002	0.008

Figure 5 Mean values of satisfaction with jobs or main activities
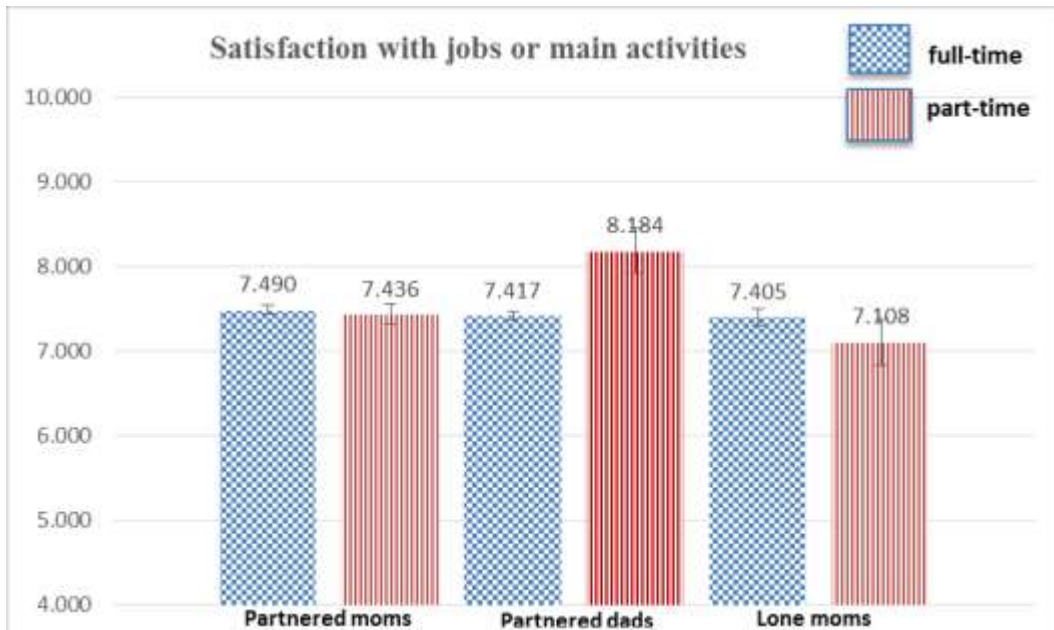
Note: Standard error bars (+/-1 standard error) are included.

Figure 6 Mean values of satisfaction of life
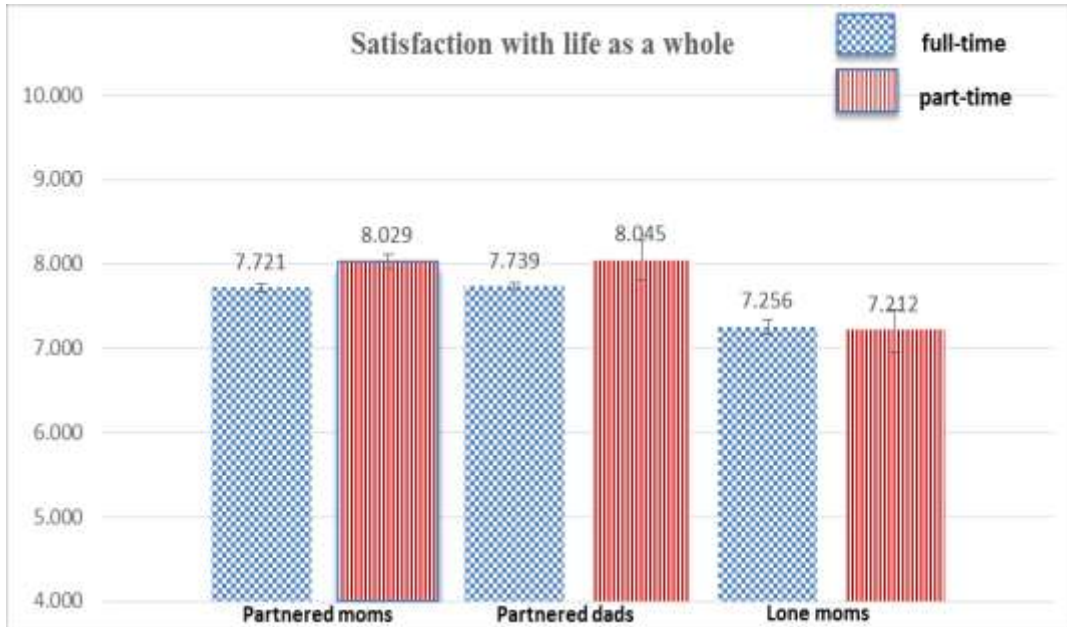
Note: Standard error bars (+/-1 standard error) are included.

Table 1 also indicates that lone moms have substantial lower mean values of life satisfaction while their job satisfactions are similar to the other groups. The statistical tests are presented in Table 3 which also indicates that partnered dads have a lower job satisfaction than partnered moms. This finding is consistent with the distributions presented in Figure 2 which indicates that lone moms' life satisfaction is generally dominated by those of partnered moms' and partnered dads'. Such patterns can also be seen from Figure 5 and Figure 6.

In terms of working hours, full-time partnered dads have on average 7 hours higher working hours than full-time partnered or single moms (48 hours versus 41 hours). Part-time working hours are roughly the same for the partnered moms and dads (about 17-18 hours), while part-time lone moms have a slightly higher working time (20 hours). This gender difference in working hours can also be seen in weekly hours dummies. Although the majority of partnered moms and lone moms work in full-time jobs, only around 15% of them have weekly working hours more than 50. This number for partnered dads, however, is 40%. Only around 10 percent of partnered dads work 30-39 hours a week, while over 30 percentages of partnered moms and lone moms fall in this categories. In summary, the majority of partnered dads work in long full- time jobs while partnered moms and lone moms are likely to work in short or median full-time jobs.

Regarding the preference to work more or less, it seems that lone moms have a higher percentage that prefers to work more and a lower percentage that prefer to work less. On the other hands, partnered moms have a lower percentage that prefer to work more and a higher percentage who want to work less. The vast majority of people prefer the same hours.

Regarding annual income, the differences between genders is still prominent. While full- time partnered dads earn $62,475 on average, full-time moms only earn around $40,000 ($44, 074 for partnered moms and $38, 066 for lone moms).

The other personal and job characteristics have quite similar means for these three groups. The average age of the respondents is 38 years old and the average age of the youngest child is around 6 years old. Around 20% of respondents live in rural areas; about 21% of the respondents were born outside Canada; around 42% of respondents have a flexible working schedule; around 92% of the respondents have permanent jobs; around 32% of respondents are union members.

Chapter 4 Empirical Analysis

In this section I would first explain what models and specifications I used and why they are used. Then the regression results are presented.

4.1 Models and Specifications

The OLS model is used for the regression of job satisfaction and life satisfaction respectively. Job satisfaction is an ordinal variable, ranging from 1 to 10, representing very dissatisfied to very satisfied. Theoretically, ordered probit or ordered logit may be more appropriate. But, previous empirical studies have shown that OLS produces very similar results, yet the interpretations are much more straight forward (Helliwell and Putman, 2004). Therefore, I use OLS method to regress subjective sell-being on a set of explanatory variables.

For each of the subsamples, three specifications are tested. The first specification would be to use the weekly working hours as the key explanatory variable. In this model, we can see the average change in job/life satisfaction caused by one unit change in weekly working hours. The linear relationship is assumed implicitly. The second specification is to use the dummy variable of working part-time, with 1 indicating working part-time and 0 indicating working full-time. Those who do not have jobs are excluded from the analysis so as to focus on the comparison between full-time and part-time workers well-being. The hypothesis is that the working part- time is associated with higher job satisfaction and life satisfaction. To further explore the relationship between working time and satisfaction, three additional dummies are created representing three

levels of work load in full-time jobs. These are dummy for working 30-39 hours per week, dummy for working 40-49 hours per week and dummy for working more than or equal to 50 hours per week. Mathematically, they can be expressed in the following equations:

(1) Job/life satisfaction = $\alpha + \beta_1$ Working Hours + β_2 X + μ

(2) Job/life satisfaction = $\alpha + \beta_1$ Dummy for part-time (hours<30) + β_2 X + μ

(3) Job/life satisfaction = $\alpha + \beta_1$ Dummy for hours 30-39 + β_1 Dummy for hours 40-49 + β_1 Dummy for hours at least 50 hours + β_3 X + μ

The weekly working hours and the four dummies constitute my key independent variables. X is the set of all the other explanatory variables including age, age squared, log income, age of the youngest single child living in household, whether the respondents live in rural area or was born outside Canada, the respondent's health status, highest education received, number of young children living in the household, regions respondents live. I also included "preference to work more or less" in the both the regression of job satisfaction and life satisfaction. For the regression of job satisfaction, I added some job characteristics including whether the job is permanent, whether it has flexible schedule, and whether it is covered by a union. Besides, occupations and industries are also added. For the regression of life satisfaction, I added sense of belonging to the local community since it has been proved as a very crucial part of life satisfaction.

All the regressions are originally done for three groups: partnered moms, partnered dads and lone moms. However, as noted in previous parts, the sample size for part-time partnered dads and part-time lone moms are very small so that the results may not be precisely estimated. Therefore, in the later parts of the paper, only the results for partnered moms are presented and discussed.

4.2 OLS regression results: job satisfaction and working status

Table 4 presents the OLS estimated coefficients for "satisfaction with jobs or main activities", with all the controlling variables presented in Table 6. The results are quite to the contrary of those in Europe. As can be seen, partnered moms in Canada exhibit a significant preference for full-time jobs and longer working hours. Partnered moms with part-time jobs generally report 0.568 lower levels of job satisfaction (in the grade of 10) than those with full- time jobs, which is significant at 1% level. Also, one extra working hour induces 0.0147 higher scores in job satisfaction for partnered moms (in the grade of 10), which is significant at 10%. Dummies of low, middle and high hours are all significant and positive with low-hour dummy and high-hour dummy significant at 1% while mid-hour dummy significant at 10% which indicates that partnered moms with low-hour full-time jobs or long-hour full-time jobs report higher job satisfaction than part-time workers.

"Preference to work more or less" also has substantial impacts on job satisfaction. Specifically, it is observed that both "prefer to work fewer hours" and "prefer to work more hours for more pay" have significant negative impacts on job satisfaction. Those who indicate "prefer less hours" have on average about 0.5 lower levels in job

satisfaction, which roughly equals the impact of "part-time" dummy (around 0.568) and which is significant at 1%. On the other hands, those who "prefer more hours for more pay" have on average about 0.4 lower levels in job satisfaction, which is significant at 10%.

In summary, partnered moms are generally more satisfied with their jobs or main activities with full-time jobs and with longer working hours. "Prefer less hours" has a significantly negative impact on job satisfaction.

Table 3 OLS estimates of satisfaction with jobs or main activities for partnered moms, key variables

Satisfaction with jobs or main activities			
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Weekly Hours	0.0147*		
	(0.00886)		
Part-time		-0.568***	
		(0.207)	
Weekly Hours 31-39			0.588***
			(0.217)
Weekly Hours 40-49			0.466*
			(0.238)
Weekly Hours 50+			0.863***
			(0.294)
Preference to work more or less (Baseline: Prefer the same hours for the same pay)			
1: Prefer fewer hours for less pay	-0.501**	-0.511***	-0.542***
	(0.197)	(0.197)	(0.198)
2: Prefer more hours for more pay	-0.456*	-0.443*	-0.438*
	(0.257)	(0.252)	(0.252)
Observations	753	756	756
R-squared	0.214	0.219	0.222
Adjusted R-squared	0.154	0.159	0.159

Note: 1. Standard errors are in parentheses.

2. *significance at 10% confidence level; **significance at 5% confidence level; ***significance at 1% confidence level.

3. Other variables included and reported in Appendix 2.

4.3 OLS regression results: life satisfaction and working status

Table 5 presents the OLS estimates for "satisfaction with your life as a whole", controlling for "preference to work more or less", "Sense of belonging to local community" and all the other control variables. (Coefficients for other control variables are presented in Table 7). It is shown that partnered moms in Canada generally have a higher satisfaction with life if they work in part-time jobs. Specifically, partnered moms with part-time jobs report 0.233 higher level of life satisfaction than their counterparts with part-time jobs, which is significant at 10%. The regression also shows that working hours have negative impacts on life satisfaction significantly at 5%. It is shown that one extra working hour generally induces 0.014 lower levels of life satisfaction in the scale of 10. At the same time, full-time low-hour jobs and full-time high-hour jobs are associated with significantly lower life satisfaction. "Preference to work more or less" does not exhibit significant impacts on life satisfaction.

As previously hypothesized, the "sense of belonging to community" helps explain life satisfaction and its explanatory power is quite significant. Specifically, for partnered moms, those who report very strong sense of belonging to local community have around 0.5 higher level of life satisfaction than those with somewhat strong of sense of belonging while those who report very weak sense of belonging have around 0.7 lower level of life satisfaction than the baseline group. These effects are alike in all the three specifications.

Table 4 OLS estimates for life satisfactions for partnered moms controlling for preference to work more or less, key variables

Satisfaction with life as a whole			
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Weekly Hours	-0.0138**		
	(0.00551)		
Part-time		0.233*	
		(0.127)	
Weekly Hours 31-39			-0.228*
			(0.133)
Weekly Hours 40-49			-0.152
			(0.142)
Weekly Hours 50+			-0.439*
			(0.228)
Preference to work more or less (Baseline: Prefer the same hours for the same pay)			
1: Prefer fewer hours for less pay	0.0524	0.0380	0.0572
	(0.153)	(0.153)	(0.153)
2: Prefer more hours for more pay	-0.217	-0.195	-0.188
	(0.137)	(0.139)	(0.137)
Sense of belonging to local community (Baseline: somewhat strong)			
1. very strong	0.521***	0.493***	0.498***
	(0.109)	(0.110)	(0.110)
3. somewhat week	-0.0366	-0.0311	-0.0287
	(0.128)	(0.128)	(0.127)
4. very weak	-0.663**	-0.698**	-0.699**
	(0.317)	(0.329)	(0.325)
Observations	902	906	906
R-squared	0.266	0.258	0.261
Adjusted R-squared	0.241	0.232	0.233

Note: 1. Standard errors are in parentheses.

2. *significance at 10% confidence level; **significance at 5% confidence level; ***significance at 1% confidence level.

3. Other variables included and reported in Appendix 3.

4.4 Job satisfaction/ life satisfaction and other determinants

Flexible schedules have positive and significant impacts on job satisfaction for partnered moms. Specifically, those with a flexible schedule report around 0.5 level higher job satisfactions in the scale of 10 which are significant at 1%. Other job characteristics, including whether the current job is a permanent job and whether the respondents are union members, generally have no significant impact on job satisfactions.

Self-perceived health has strong and positive effects on job satisfaction: people who perceived themselves healthier generally report higher job satisfaction. Those partnered moms perceived themselves excellent health report about 0.8 higher life job satisfaction than the baseline group of very good health while those perceived themselves fair health report some 0.7 lower life satisfaction than the baseline groups. An interesting pattern is found in terms of education, where partnered moms with some university or communities college education report the lowest level of job satisfaction. With regard to time crunch index, partnered moms who constantly feel time crunched have significantly lower job satisfaction. Region, occupations and industry generally do not have very large effects on job satisfaction, with the exception that partnered moms with occupations unique to primary industry report significantly lower job satisfaction other occupations

In terms of life satisfaction, only self-perceived health and the time crunch variable have significant impacts on life satisfaction among all the control variables. People who perceived themselves as healthier and people who feel less time crunched report significantly higher life satisfaction. Other variables, such as income, education and number of children under 14 years generally do not have large impact on life satisfaction.

Chapter 5 Conclusions and Discussions

Based on the estimation above, a few conclusions can be drawn. First and foremost, part- time jobs are associated with lower job satisfaction yet higher life satisfaction among Canadian partnered moms. The effect is more significant for job satisfaction (10%) than for life satisfaction (1%). Although the results seem to be quite different from those found in Europe, it actually coincides with our intuitions. As is stated in section 2, part-time jobs are associated with a substantial penalty in terms of job security, training and promotion and fringe benefit. Besides, the relevant policies in Canada are not very encouraging to part-time working compared to other OECD countries. Thus it is quite understandable that partnered moms in Canada actually do not find part-time working intrinsically satisfactory. On the other hands, provided that part-time working does give some advantages for reconcile between work responsibilities and home production, it is actually associated with higher life satisfaction. In addition to the working status, weekly hours also have some impacts on satisfaction. It is shown that longer working hours are associated with higher job satisfaction and lower life satisfaction. Besides, preference also affects job satisfaction. Compared to the respondents who prefer the same hours, those who preferred to work fewer hours or higher hours report substantial negative job satisfaction.

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Appendix A Weighted average mean values for all variables for the subgroups of partnered moms, partnered dads and lone moms.

	Partnered Moms			Partnered Dads			Lone Moms		
	FT	PT	total	FT	PT	total	FT	PT	total
Observation	960	289	1249	1378	37	1415	395	62	457
Percentage	76.86%	23.14%	100.00%	97.39%	2.61%	100.00%	86.43%	13.57%	100.00%
Satisfaction with jobs or main activities	7.490	7.436	7.477	7.417	8.184	7.436	7.405	7.108	7.362
	(0.058)	(0.130)	(0.052)	(0.047)	(0.267)	(0.047)	(0.097)	(0.273)	(0.092)
Satisfaction with your life as a whole	7.721	8.029	7.795	7.739	8.045	7.756	7.256	7.212	7.249
	(0.048)	(0.079)	(0.042)	(0.040)	(0.231)	(0.040)	(0.085)	(0.251)	(0.081)
Weekly working hours	40.568	17.319	35.031	47.632	18.356	46.926	41.549	20.349	38.517
	(0.249)	(0.435)	(0.354)	(0.278)	(1.057)	(0.297)	(0.466)	(0.946)	(0.546)
Weekly Hours 50+	0.408	---	0.311	0.401	---	0.392	0.405	---	0.347
	(0.016)	---	(0.013)	(0.013)	---	(0.012)	(0.025)	---	(0.022)
Weekly Hours 40-49	0.440	---	0.335	0.490	---	0.478	0.421	---	0.361
	(0.016)	---	(0.013)	(0.013)	---	(0.013)	(0.025)	---	(0.023)
Weekly Hours 30-39	0.152	---	0.117	0.109	---	0.106	0.174	---	0.149
	(0.012)	---	(0.009)	(0.008)	---	(0.008)	(0.019)	---	(0.017)
Prefer to work more	0.119	0.269	0.155	0.182	0.360	0.187	0.202	0.598	0.264
	(0.011)	(0.026)	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.080)	(0.010)	(0.020)	(0.063)	(0.021)
Prefer to work less	0.206	0.037	0.165	0.136	0.062	0.134	0.140	0.000	0.118
	(0.013)	(0.011)	(0.011)	(0.009)	(0.040)	(0.009)	(0.017)	(0.000)	(0.015)
Prefer to work the same hours	0.670	0.682	0.673	0.673	0.578	0.670	0.655	0.402	0.615
	(0.011)	(0.027)	(0.013)	(0.009)	(0.083)	(0.009)	(0.017)	(0.063)	(0.015)
Sense of belonging to your local community	2.195	1.997	2.148	2.199	2.330	2.202	2.269	2.504	2.303
	(0.015)	(0.027)	(0.013)	(0.013)	(0.083)	(0.012)	(0.024)	(0.063)	(0.023)
Age	38.362	38.100	38.300	39.408	41.416	39.458	37.932	37.827	37.917
	(0.027)	(0.043)	(0.023)	(0.022)	(0.130)	(0.022)	(0.042)	(0.123)	(0.041)
Age of the youngest single child	7.252	6.568	7.089	6.154	7.079	6.177	8.378	8.031	8.329
	(0.197)	(0.375)	(0.175)	(0.175)	(1.205)	(0.176)	(0.328)	(0.913)	(0.310)
Income	44074	22758	39041	62475	31949	61626	38066	25010	36222
	(828.787)	(1113.071)	(732.341)	(742.121)	(4447.783)	(743.761)	(1148.246)	(1993.055)	(1048.052)
Rural	0.188	0.197	0.190	0.208	0.118	0.206	0.178	0.281	0.193
	(0.013)	(0.023)	(0.011)	(0.011)	(0.054)	(0.011)	(0.019)	(0.058)	(0.018)
Born outside Canada	0.218	0.209	0.216	0.201	0.297	0.203	0.173	0.171	0.173
	(0.013)	(0.024)	(0.012)	(0.011)	(0.076)	(0.011)	(0.019)	(0.048)	(0.018)
Flexible schedule	0.385	0.458	0.402	0.439	0.713	0.446	0.367	0.390	0.370
	(0.016)	(0.029)	(0.014)	(0.013)	(0.075)	(0.013)	(0.024)	(0.062)	(0.023)
Permanent	0.935	0.803	0.907	0.938	0.713	0.932	0.913	0.746	0.890
	(0.008)	(0.023)	(0.001)	(0.007)	(0.076)	(0.007)	(0.014)	(0.056)	(0.015)
Union	0.336	0.356	0.340	0.306	0.440	0.309	0.319	0.347	0.322
	(0.015)	(0.028)	(0.013)	(0.012)	(0.083)	(0.012)	(0.023)	(0.061)	(0.022)

Appendix A (con't) Weighted average mean values for all variables for the subgroups of partnered moms, partnered dads and lone moms.

	Partnered Moms			Partnered Dads			Lone Moms		
	FT	PT	total	FT	PT	total	FT	PT	total
Observation	960	289	1249	1378	37	1415	395	62	457
Percentage	76.86%	23.14%	100.00%	97.39%	2.61%	100.00%	86.43%	13.57%	100.00%
Self-perceived Health									
1. excellent health	0.201 (0.013)	0.255 (0.026)	0.214 (0.012)	0.221 (0.011)	0.332 (0.079)	0.224 (0.011)	0.184 (0.020)	0.120 (0.042)	0.175 (0.018)
2. very good health	0.357 (0.015)	0.372 (0.026)	0.360 (0.014)	0.389 (0.013)	0.194 (0.079)	0.384 (0.013)	0.322 (0.024)	0.517 (0.064)	0.349 (0.022)
3. good health	0.340 (0.015)	0.280 (0.028)	0.326 (0.014)	0.312 (0.013)	0.373 (0.066)	0.313 (0.013)	0.348 (0.024)	0.241 (0.064)	0.332 (0.022)
4. fair health	0.091 (0.009)	0.070 (0.015)	0.086 (0.008)	0.072 (0.007)	0.101 (0.050)	0.073 (0.007)	0.124 (0.017)	0.098 (0.038)	0.121 (0.015)
5. poor health	0.011 (0.000)	0.023 (0.009)	0.014 (0.003)	0.007 (0.002)	0.000 (0.000)	0.006 (0.002)	0.023 (0.008)	0.025 (0.020)	0.023 (0.007)
Number of children 0 to 14 years of age living in the household									
1. one child	0.474 (0.016)	0.354 (0.028)	0.445 (0.014)	0.430 (0.013)	0.351 (0.080)	0.428 (0.013)	0.564 (0.025)	0.634 (0.062)	0.574 (0.023)
2. two children	0.410 (0.016)	0.456 (0.029)	0.421 (0.014)	0.413 (0.013)	0.462 (0.080)	0.414 (0.013)	0.350 (0.024)	0.230 (0.054)	0.332 (0.023)
3. three children	0.117 (0.010)	0.190 (0.023)	0.134 (0.010)	0.157 (0.010)	0.187 (0.065)	0.157 (0.010)	0.087 (0.014)	0.136 (0.044)	0.094 (0.014)
Highest level of education									
1. Doctorate/Master/Bachelor's	0.328 (0.015)	0.267 (0.026)	0.313 (0.013)	0.324 (0.013)	0.334 (0.079)	0.325 (0.012)	0.224 (0.021)	0.182 (0.049)	0.218 (0.019)
2. Diploma/Certificate form community college	0.354 (0.015)	0.392 (0.026)	0.363 (0.013)	0.303 (0.013)	0.248 (0.072)	0.302 (0.012)	0.334 (0.021)	0.350 (0.062)	0.336 (0.019)
3. some university/community college	0.141 (0.011)	0.174 (0.022)	0.149 (0.014)	0.129 (0.012)	0.168 (0.062)	0.130 (0.012)	0.167 (0.019)	0.218 (0.061)	0.174 (0.022)
4. high school diploma	0.134 (0.011)	0.116 (0.019)	0.130 (0.010)	0.162 (0.009)	0.155 (0.060)	0.162 (0.010)	0.159 (0.018)	0.148 (0.053)	0.157 (0.018)
5. some secondary/elementary/no schooling	0.044 (0.007)	0.052 (0.010)	0.046 (0.006)	0.082 (0.007)	0.094 (0.049)	0.082 (0.007)	0.117 (0.018)	0.102 (0.046)	0.115 (0.015)
Region									
1. Atlantic region	0.083 (0.009)	0.061 (0.014)	0.078 (0.008)	0.066 (0.007)	0.056 (0.038)	0.066 (0.007)	0.081 (0.014)	0.066 (0.032)	0.079 (0.013)
2. Quebec	0.242 (0.014)	0.191 (0.023)	0.230 (0.012)	0.219 (0.011)	0.285 (0.063)	0.220 (0.011)	0.256 (0.022)	0.221 (0.055)	0.251 (0.020)
3. Ontario	0.405 (0.016)	0.356 (0.028)	0.393 (0.014)	0.389 (0.013)	0.441 (0.083)	0.390 (0.013)	0.355 (0.024)	0.131 (0.043)	0.323 (0.020)
4. Prairie region	0.163 (0.012)	0.242 (0.025)	0.182 (0.011)	0.177 (0.010)	0.174 (0.083)	0.177 (0.010)	0.159 (0.024)	0.239 (0.055)	0.170 (0.022)
5. British Columbia	0.107 (0.010)	0.150 (0.021)	0.118 (0.009)	0.149 (0.010)	0.044 (0.063)	0.147 (0.010)	0.148 (0.018)	0.343 (0.061)	0.176 (0.018)

Appendix A (con't) Weighted average mean values for all variables for the subgroups of partnered moms, partnered dads and lone moms.

	Partnered Moms			Partnered Dads			Lone Moms		
	FT	PT	total	FT	PT	total	FT	PT	total
Observation	960	289	1249	1378	37	1415	395	62	457
Percentage	76.86%	23.14%	100.00%	97.39%	2.61%	100.00%	86.43%	13.57%	100.00%
Occupation last 12 months									
1. Management occupations	0.117 (0.010)	0.029 (0.010)	0.096 (0.008)	0.137 (0.009)	0.109 (0.052)	0.136 (0.009)	0.069 (0.013)	0.000 (0.000)	0.059 (0.011)
2. Business, finance and administrative	0.290 (0.015)	0.251 (0.010)	0.281 (0.013)	0.104 (0.009)	0.198 (0.066)	0.106 (0.008)	0.305 (0.023)	0.216 (0.000)	0.293 (0.021)
3. Natural and applied sciences	0.050 (0.026)	0.016 (0.008)	0.042 (0.013)	0.150 (0.008)	0.059 (0.039)	0.147 (0.009)	0.029 (0.053)	0.005 (0.000)	0.026 (0.007)
4. Health occupations	0.107 (0.007)	0.186 (0.007)	0.126 (0.006)	0.030 (0.010)	0.150 (0.039)	0.033 (0.009)	0.086 (0.009)	0.065 (0.009)	0.083 (0.007)
5. Occupations in social science, education	0.120 (0.010)	0.104 (0.023)	0.116 (0.009)	0.049 (0.005)	0.072 (0.060)	0.049 (0.005)	0.105 (0.014)	0.185 (0.032)	0.116 (0.013)
6. Artistic/culture/recreation/sport	0.034 (0.010)	0.055 (0.009)	0.039 (0.005)	0.022 (0.006)	0.092 (0.043)	0.023 (0.006)	0.029 (0.050)	0.018 (0.064)	0.027 (0.015)
7. Sales and services occupations	0.213 (0.013)	0.311 (0.027)	0.236 (0.012)	0.141 (0.011)	0.201 (0.048)	0.142 (0.011)	0.294 (0.015)	0.466 (0.022)	0.318 (0.013)
8. Trades, transport and equipment	0.016 (0.004)	0.032 (0.012)	0.020 (0.004)	0.237 (0.009)	0.073 (0.067)	0.233 (0.009)	0.027 (0.008)	0.046 (0.064)	0.030 (0.008)
9. Occupations unique to primary industry	0.005 (0.002)	0.004 (0.004)	0.005 (0.002)	0.048 (0.006)	0.036 (0.031)	0.048 (0.006)	0.009 (0.005)	0.000 (0.000)	0.008 (0.004)
10. Occupations unique to processing manufacturing	0.049 (0.002)	0.011 (0.004)	0.040 (0.002)	0.084 (0.007)	0.011 (0.018)	0.082 (0.007)	0.046 (0.011)	0.000 (0.000)	0.040 (0.009)
Industry last 12 months									
1. Agriculture	0.005 (0.002)	0.014 (0.007)	0.007 (0.002)	0.023 (0.004)	0.036 (0.031)	0.024 (0.004)	0.002 (0.002)	0.016 (0.016)	0.004 (0.003)
2. Forestry, fishing, mining, oil and gas	0.016 (0.004)	0.003 (0.003)	0.013 (0.003)	0.040 (0.005)	0.000 (0.000)	0.039 (0.004)	0.001 (0.001)	0.017 (0.016)	0.003 (0.003)
3. Utilities	0.003 (0.004)	0.004 (0.004)	0.003 (0.003)	0.017 (0.005)	0.000 (0.000)	0.017 (0.005)	0.003 (0.001)	0.000 (0.016)	0.003 (0.003)
4. Construction	0.017 (0.002)	0.030 (0.004)	0.019 (0.002)	0.108 (0.008)	0.000 (0.000)	0.105 (0.008)	0.017 (0.007)	0.011 (0.014)	0.017 (0.006)
5. Manufacturing	0.094 (0.009)	0.029 (0.010)	0.079 (0.008)	0.175 (0.010)	0.000 (0.000)	0.171 (0.010)	0.087 (0.014)	0.019 (0.014)	0.078 (0.013)
6. Trade	0.129 (0.011)	0.168 (0.022)	0.138 (0.010)	0.128 (0.009)	0.288 (0.076)	0.132 (0.009)	0.097 (0.015)	0.154 (0.046)	0.105 (0.014)
7. Transportation and warehousing	0.024 (0.005)	0.047 (0.012)	0.029 (0.005)	0.073 (0.007)	0.041 (0.033)	0.072 (0.007)	0.034 (0.009)	0.120 (0.042)	0.046 (0.010)
8. Finance, insurance, real estate	0.069 (0.008)	0.036 (0.011)	0.061 (0.007)	0.068 (0.007)	0.084 (0.046)	0.068 (0.007)	0.065 (0.012)	0.022 (0.019)	0.059 (0.011)
9. Professional, scientific and technical	0.088 (0.009)	0.050 (0.013)	0.079 (0.008)	0.104 (0.008)	0.034 (0.030)	0.102 (0.008)	0.094 (0.012)	0.035 (0.019)	0.086 (0.013)

Appendix A (con't) Weighted average mean values for all variables for the subgroups of partnered moms, partnered dads and lone moms.

	Partnered Moms			Partnered Dads			Lone Moms		
	FT	PT	total	FT	PT	total	FT	PT	total
Observation	960	289	1249	1378	37	1415	395	62	457
Percentage	76.86%	23.14%	100.00%	97.39%	2.61%	100.00%	86.43%	13.57%	100.00%
10. Management, administrative	0.033 (0.006)	0.027 (0.009)	0.031 (0.005)	0.018 (0.004)	0.063 (0.041)	0.019 (0.004)	0.074 (0.013)	0.068 (0.032)	0.073 (0.012)
11. Educational services	0.094 (0.009)	0.146 (0.020)	0.106 (0.009)	0.039 (0.005)	0.119 (0.054)	0.041 (0.005)	0.083 (0.014)	0.127 (0.043)	0.090 (0.013)
12. Health care and social assistance	0.219 (0.013)	0.280 (0.026)	0.234 (0.012)	0.041 (0.005)	0.178 (0.064)	0.044 (0.005)	0.207 (0.020)	0.246 (0.055)	0.213 (0.019)
13. Information, culture and recreation	0.052 (0.007)	0.042 (0.012)	0.049 (0.006)	0.036 (0.005)	0.021 (0.024)	0.036 (0.005)	0.038 (0.010)	0.018 (0.017)	0.035 (0.009)
14. Accommodation and food services	0.044 (0.007)	0.040 (0.011)	0.043 (0.006)	0.020 (0.004)	0.000 (0.000)	0.020 (0.004)	0.087 (0.014)	0.067 (0.032)	0.084 (0.013)
16. Public administration	0.062 (0.008)	0.010 (0.006)	0.050 (0.006)	0.072 (0.007)	0.009 (0.016)	0.070 (0.007)	0.078 (0.013)	0.005 (0.009)	0.067 (0.012)
15. Other services	0.053 (0.007)	0.076 (0.016)	0.058 (0.007)	0.037 (0.005)	0.127 (0.056)	0.039 (0.005)	0.031 (0.009)	0.075 (0.034)	0.037 (0.009)
Describe your sense of belonging to your local community									
1. very strong	0.196 (0.013)	0.227 (0.025)	0.196 (0.011)	0.187 (0.011)	0.113 (0.053)	0.185 (0.010)	0.169 (0.019)	0.148 (0.045)	0.166 (0.017)
2. somewhat strong	0.506 (0.016)	0.590 (0.029)	0.526 (0.014)	0.501 (0.013)	0.525 (0.083)	0.501 (0.013)	0.482 (0.025)	0.391 (0.062)	0.469 (0.023)
3. somewhat week	0.235 (0.014)	0.143 (0.021)	0.213 (0.012)	0.239 (0.011)	0.281 (0.075)	0.240 (0.011)	0.261 (0.022)	0.271 (0.057)	0.262 (0.021)
4. very weak	0.074 (0.008)	0.041 (0.012)	0.066 (0.007)	0.073 (0.007)	0.081 (0.045)	0.073 (0.007)	0.089 (0.014)	0.191 (0.050)	0.103 (0.014)

Source: GSS Time Use 2005.

Standard errors are in the parentheses.

Appendix B (continuation of Table 4) OLS estimates satisfaction with jobs or main activities for partnered moms, other variables

Satisfaction with jobs or main activities for partnered moms, other variables			
	(1)	(2)	(3)
age	0.233	0.237	0.243*
	(0.148)	(0.148)	(0.147)
age2	-0.00286	-0.00290	-0.00298
	(0.00191)	(0.00191)	(0.00190)
Log Income	0.0355	-0.00155	0.00257
	(0.0897)	(0.0752)	(0.0755)
Log Spouse Income	0.0870	0.111	0.108
	(0.138)	(0.137)	(0.136)
Time Crunch index	-0.247**	-0.260**	-0.256**
	(0.114)	(0.114)	(0.115)
Time Crunch index^2	0.0114	0.0123	0.0122
	(0.0111)	(0.0111)	(0.0112)
Age of youngest child	-0.0280	-0.0285	-0.0309
	(0.0235)	(0.0232)	(0.0233)
dummy=1 if rural	0.0178	0.00385	0.0212
	(0.190)	(0.188)	(0.190)
dummy=1 if birth outside Canada	0.142	0.163	0.190
	(0.219)	(0.217)	(0.220)
Dummy=1 if flexible schedule	0.524***	0.534***	0.536***
	(0.154)	(0.154)	(0.153)
Dummy=1 if permanent job	0.315	0.310	0.331
	(0.281)	(0.278)	(0.278)
Dummy=1 if a union member	0.206	0.197	0.215
	(0.215)	(0.213)	(0.213)

Appendix B (continuation of Table 4) OLS estimates satisfaction with jobs or main activities for partnered moms, other variables

Satisfaction with jobs or main activities for partnered moms, other variables			
	(1)	(2)	(3)

Self-perceived Health (Baseline: 2. Very good health)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
1. Excellent health	0.782***	0.772***	0.783***
	(0.196)	(0.195)	(0.197)
3. Good health	0.0189	0.0115	0.0112
	(0.177)	(0.176)	(0.175)
4. Fair health	-0.703**	-0.647**	-0.664**
	(0.303)	(0.298)	(0.297)
5. Poor health	0.145	0.191	0.200
	(0.743)	(0.715)	(0.711)

Number of respondent's child(ren) 0 to 14 years of age living in the household (Baseline: two children)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
One child	-0.186	-0.195	-0.178
	(0.161)	(0.160)	(0.160)
Three or more children	0.0690	0.148	0.121
	(0.238)	(0.232)	(0.234)

Highest level of education (Baseline: 2. Diploma/certificate from community college)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
1. Doctorate/Master/Bachelor's degree	-0.109	-0.104	-0.119
	(0.192)	(0.191)	(0.192)
3. Some university/community college	-0.498*	-0.497*	-0.483*
	(0.264)	(0.264)	(0.262)
4. High school diploma	0.271	0.228	0.233
	(0.277)	(0.271)	(0.271)
5. Some secondary/elementary/no schooling	0.598	0.592	0.615
	(0.391)	(0.389)	(0.396)

Appendix B (continuation of Table 4) OLS estimates satisfaction with jobs or main activities for partnered moms, other variables

Satisfaction with jobs or main activities for partnered moms, other variables			
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Region (Baseline: 3. Ontario)			
Atlanta	0.0743	0.0702	0.0649
	(0.222)	(0.222)	(0.221)
Quebec	0.117	0.1000	0.0860
	(0.211)	(0.209)	(0.209)
Prairie Region	-0.240	-0.220	-0.234
	(0.214)	(0.212)	(0.213)
British Columbia	-0.0724	-0.0826	-0.0771
	(0.275)	(0.268)	(0.269)
Occupation last 12 months (Baseline: Business, finance and administrative)			
Management occupations	0.118	0.176	0.177
	(0.265)	(0.261)	(0.262)
Natural and applied sciences	-0.109	-0.0824	-0.103
	(0.358)	(0.360)	(0.359)
Health occupations	0.0646	0.111	0.0994
	(0.332)	(0.329)	(0.328)
Occupations in social science, education	0.0381	0.0450	0.0438
	(0.282)	(0.282)	(0.284)
Artistic/culture/recreation/sport	0.319	0.302	0.275
	(0.451)	(0.450)	(0.444)
Sales and services occupations	-0.292	-0.264	-0.254
	(0.262)	(0.259)	(0.259)
Trades, transport and equipment	-0.582	-0.531	-0.547
	(0.761)	(0.763)	(0.763)
Occupations unique to primary industry	-2.701***	-2.397***	-2.639***
	(0.565)	(0.507)	(0.514)

Appendix B (continuation of Table 4) OLS estimates satisfaction with jobs or main activities for partnered moms, other variables

Satisfaction with jobs or main activities for partnered moms, other variables			
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Occupations unique to processing and manufacturing	-0.134	-0.162	-0.193
	(0.572)	(0.572)	(0.573)
Industry last 12 months (Baseline: Health care and social assistance)			
Agriculture	1.187**	1.257**	1.246**
	(0.555)	(0.544)	(0.543)
Forestry, fishing, mining, oil and gas	0.718	0.714	0.802*
	(0.473)	(0.466)	(0.472)
Utilities	0.868	0.834	0.831
	(0.530)	(0.515)	(0.535)
Construction	0.253	0.347	0.390
	(0.819)	(0.848)	(0.847)
Manufacturing	-0.215	-0.217	-0.174
	(0.374)	(0.372)	(0.376)
Trade	0.0283	0.0458	0.0631
	(0.321)	(0.314)	(0.314)
Transportation and warehousing	-1.410*	-1.374*	-1.327*
	(0.786)	(0.788)	(0.780)
Finance, insurance, real estate and lea	0.00316	-0.0309	0.00260
	(0.339)	(0.332)	(0.332)
Professional, scientific and technical	0.0903	0.0951	0.0952
	(0.351)	(0.347)	(0.348)
Management, administrative and others	-0.228	-0.251	-0.227
	(0.472)	(0.476)	(0.476)
Educational services	0.396	0.438	0.431
	(0.317)	(0.315)	(0.317)
Information, culture and recreation	-0.402	-0.410	-0.400
	(0.490)	(0.485)	(0.487)

Appendix B (continuation of Table 4) OLS estimates satisfaction with jobs or main activities for partnered moms, other variables

Satisfaction with jobs or main activities for partnered moms, other variables			
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Accommodation and food services	0.126	0.112	0.128
	(0.422)	(0.407)	(0.410)
Other services	0.137	0.166	0.182
	(0.377)	(0.378)	(0.377)
Public administration	-0.140	-0.160	-0.132
	(0.379)	(0.375)	(0.374)
Constant	1.720	2.446	1.723
	(3.177)	(3.154)	(3.143)
Observations	753	756	756
R-squared	0.214	0.219	0.222
Adjusted R-squared	0.154	0.159	0.159

Note: 1. Standard errors are in parentheses.

2. *significance at 10% confidence level; **significance at 5% confidence level; ***significance at 1% confidence level.

Appendix C (continuation of Table 5) OLS estimates for life satisfaction for partnered moms, other variables

Satisfaction with life as a whole			
	(1)	(2)	(3)
age	-0.0367	-0.0349	-0.0461
	(0.0808)	(0.0806)	(0.0796)
age2	0.000103	0.000132	0.000280
	(0.00104)	(0.00103)	(0.00102)
Log income	0.0632		0.0152
	(0.0489)		(0.0446)
Log spouse income	0.0643	0.0589	0.0600
	(0.107)	(0.106)	(0.106)
Time Crunch index	-0.247**	-0.260**	-0.256**
	(0.114)	(0.114)	(0.115)
Time Crunch index^2	0.0114	0.0123	0.0122
	(0.0111)	(0.0111)	(0.0112)
Age of youngest child	0.00657	0.00252	0.00302
	(0.0148)	(0.0148)	(0.0147)
dummy=1 if rural	0.00263	0.00597	-0.00191
	(0.120)	(0.120)	(0.120)
dummy=1 if birth outside Canada	-0.150	-0.157	-0.172
	(0.145)	(0.147)	(0.148)
Self-perceived Health (Baseline: 2. Very good health)			
1. Excellent health	0.267**	0.281**	0.271**
	(0.125)	(0.125)	(0.126)
3. Good health	-0.297**	-0.306***	-0.302**
	(0.118)	(0.118)	(0.117)
4. Fair health	-0.417**	-0.385**	-0.379**
	(0.186)	(0.186)	(0.187)
5. Poor health	-1.007**	-1.048***	-1.042***
	(0.392)	(0.402)	(0.392)

Appendix C (continuation of Table 5) OLS estimates for life satisfaction for partnered moms, other variables

Satisfaction with life as a whole			
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Number of respondent's child(ren) 0 to 14 years of age living in the household (Baseline: two children)			
One child	-0.0447	-0.0322	-0.0505
	(0.104)	(0.104)	(0.104)
Three or more children	0.0557	0.0733	0.0940
	(0.153)	(0.157)	(0.153)
Highest level of education (Baseline: 2. Diploma/certificate from community college)			
1. Doctorate/Master/Bachelor's degree	0.0948	0.0953	0.0994
	(0.122)	(0.122)	(0.123)
3. Some university or community college	-0.0722	-0.0676	-0.0803
	(0.152)	(0.153)	(0.153)
4. High school diploma	0.134	0.0963	0.0830
	(0.160)	(0.161)	(0.159)
5. Some secondary, elementary, no schooling	-0.0851	-0.119	-0.151
	(0.290)	(0.286)	(0.288)
Region (Baseline: 3. Ontario)			
Atlanta	0.191	0.181	0.179
	(0.128)	(0.128)	(0.129)
Quebec	-0.205	-0.199	-0.186
	(0.136)	(0.137)	(0.137)
Prairie Region	-0.175	-0.187	-0.173
	(0.140)	(0.140)	(0.137)
British Columbia	-0.189	-0.170	-0.168
	(0.155)	(0.155)	(0.156)

Appendix C (continuation of Table 5) OLS estimates for life satisfaction for partnered moms, other variables

Satisfaction with life as a whole			
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Constant	8.706***	8.601***	9.089***
	(1.868)	(1.861)	(1.859)
Observations	902	906	906
R-squared	0.266	0.258	0.261
Adjusted R-squared	0.241	0.232	0.233

Note: 1. Standard errors are in parentheses.

2. *significance at 10% confidence level; **significance at 5% confidence level; ***significance at 1% confidence level.