

5-2011

# WHAT ATTRACTS OLDER NURSES TO ORGANIZATIONS? PSYCHOLOGICAL MODERATORS OF THE IMPACT OF FLEXIBLE SCHEDULING AND MENTORING OPPORTUNITIES

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WHAT ATTRACTS OLDER NURSES TO ORGANIZATIONS? PSYCHOLOGICAL  
MODERATORS OF THE IMPACT OF FLEXIBLE SCHEDULING AND  
MENTORING OPPORTUNITIES

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A Thesis  
Presented to  
the Graduate School of  
Clemson University

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In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Master of Science  
in Applied Psychology

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by  
Sarah Anne DuBose  
May 2011

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Accepted by:  
Mary Anne Taylor, PhD, Committee Chair  
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## ABSTRACT

The current study investigated two psychological moderators (generativity and occupational stress) of the impact of flexible scheduling and mentoring opportunities on the attraction and application intentions of older nurses of bridge employment age. Of the 600 registered nurses who were contacted via postal mail, 101 responded. Participants were randomly assigned to one of six conditions in which a hypothetical job advertisement was manipulated with varying levels each of flexible scheduling (input vs no input into the schedule) and mentoring opportunities (formal, informal, and none). Input was found to have a main effect on organizational attraction, but main effects were not found for mentoring opportunities. No moderation effects were found. Interestingly, generativity was found to have a main effect on both organizational and application intentions, indicating its importance in future research of the interest to return to work of bridge employees.

## DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated in loving memory to my youngest brother, Jacob Ethan Tyler DuBose. In the 20 years this world was blessed to have Jacob, he made a difference in countless numbers of lives with his great spirit, compassionate soul, and loving encouragement. He will forever be in my heart.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to acknowledge my Chair, Dr. Mary Anne Taylor, for all of the support and encouragement that she has given me throughout this lengthy process. Without her understanding, compassion, and insight, this project may have never been completed. I would also like to thank Dr. Patrick Rosopa and Dr. Robert Sinclair for their expertise and invaluable contributions to this project. Thank you all.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

The world is facing a labor shortage that has already begun, but will continue to increase over the next several decades. Every day, 11,000 Baby Boomers turn 50, and there are only 43 million Gen Xers to fill the 152 million vacancies that Boomers are leaving (Kaye & Cohen, 2008). This mass retirement of long-employed workers will affect all areas of the labor market – from the private sector to the public sector, across both white and blue collar positions, and across all industries. Statistically, there are simply not enough younger employees with the needed knowledge, skills, and abilities to replace these retiring Baby Boomers.

The approaching mass retirement of Baby Boomers comes after a century-long trend of people living longer and retiring earlier (Shultz, 2003). The trend is global, and will strongly affect work in the United States. In 2004, over 10% of the global population was at least 60 years old. It is projected that in 2050, it will increase to 20% (Hedge, Borman, & Lammlein, 2006).

In the United States, it is expected that by 2030, there will be 70 million older people in the U.S., and that about 20% of our population will be 65 or older -- this figure is twice what it was in the year 2000 (Hedge et al., 2006). This reduction in the available labor pool is exacerbated by the fact that these older workers are retiring at much earlier ages than in previous years. For example, in 1950, more than 70% of all 65-yr old men were in the labor force, but by 1985, that had decreased to about 30% (Quinn, 2000). According to Penner, Perun, and Stuerle (2002) and Wellner (2002), it is estimated that

labor force participation by people over the age of 55 will have to increase by 25% in order to maintain a constant ratio of employees to the population.

Given the need for older workers to fill the anticipated vacancies in the labor force, organizational decision-makers are becoming more interested in exploring ways to recruit and retain older workers. Health care organizations are on the cutting edge of these interventions, as evidenced by the large number of organizations already engaged in proactive strategies for retaining and recruiting non-traditional employees (AARP, 2000). In the next segment, the pressing need for employees in this field is examined, and the unique aspects of recruiting and retaining non-traditional employees in nursing.

### *Nurses*

One area of the labor work force that is already experiencing a labor shortage is nursing. This shortage will only continue to intensify as more Baby Boomers retire, but it is already a critical situation that is felt around the world. The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics reported in November 2007 that more than 1 million new and replacement nurses will be needed by 2016 (Dohm & Shniper, 2007). The nursing profession is also projected to be the top growing profession, with an estimated 587,000 new jobs being created before 2016 (Dohm & Shniper, 2007). The current RN vacancy rate is 8.1%, with an estimated 116,000 vacant RN positions (American Hospital Association, 2007), and this shortage is expected to more than double to 340,000 by the year 2020 (Auerbach, Buerhaus, & Staiger, 2007). A survey published in *Nursing Management* in 2006 indicated that 55% of the RNs surveyed planned to retire between 2011 and 2020, and a majority of respondents were nurse managers (AMN, 2006).

To combat the shortage, many nursing schools are accepting more students, but the 5.4% increase in enrollment reported by the American Association of Colleges of Nursing (AACN, 2007) is not growing fast enough to meet the projected demand over the next 10 years. In fact, Health Resources and Services Administration (HRSA) officials have stated that the U.S. needs to graduate approximately 90% more nurses to meet the projected growth demands for RNs (Biviano, Tise, Fritz, & Spencer, 2004). One of the reasons more students are not attending nursing school is that there are not enough qualified faculty to teach them – U.S. nursing schools turned away 40,285 qualified applicants due to administrative issues such as insufficient faculty numbers, classroom space, and budget constraints (AACN, 2007).

Turnover is also a serious issue with the current RNs who are working. Because of the shortage of nurses, there are many opportunities available for RNs, but Kovner and colleagues (Kovner, Brewer, Fairchild, Poornima, Kim, & Djukic, 2007) found 13% of newly licensed RNs changed principal jobs after 1 year, and 37% wanted to. Average voluntary turnover for first year RNs in 2007 was 27.1% (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2007).

The problem is cyclical – insufficient staffing is raising the stress levels of currently employed nurses, impacting job satisfaction, and causing many nurses to leave the profession, making the shortage even greater. One study found that more than 75% of nurses reported believing that the nursing shortage presents a major problem for the quality of their work life, the quality of patient care, and the amount of time nurses can spend with each patient (Buerhaus, Staiger, & Auerbach, 2005). Of these nurses

surveyed, almost all see the nursing shortage as creating more stress on nurses, lowering patient care quality, and causing nurses to leave the profession (Buerhaus et al., 2005). This decline in patient care quality should continue to grow. As retiring Baby Boomers need care in their later years, there will not be enough nurses available to care for them.

Given the current shortage of nurses, it is important to understand the factors that predict the return to work among those nurses who are at or past retirement age. If health care organizations can understand the personal and work-related variables that are associated with attracting nurses back into the profession, they can formulate more effective recruiting programs. In addition, addressing the factors that are of most concern to these employees can create a more rewarding work environment for these health care professionals.

In the current study, past research is applied from white-collar professions to nursing in order to make predictions about the factors that are associated with bridge employment, or a return to work post-retirement. It is proposed that two major factors, opportunity to provide input in the work schedule and opportunities for mentoring, are significantly associated with interest in the return to work. Past research has suggested that flexibility is an important issue in the prediction of the return to work in some occupations, but this has not been found yet in the nursing profession (Armstrong-Stassen, 2008).

Examining one personal and one work-related variable that may moderate the potentially positive influences of mentoring and schedule input will also contribute to the literature. Perceived occupational stress is examined to determine if it moderates the

relationship between these two variables and interest in the return to employment. While past research has documented that input into scheduling is important, and related research suggests that mentoring programs can serve as an incentive for bridge employment, it is logical to believe that the stress experienced in the job may be a significant moderator of the effects of both variables.

Similarly, it makes sense that the opportunity to provide mentoring may be more important for some individuals than others. Thus, whether generativity underlies any positive effects of mentoring opportunities on the interest in continued employment is also examined. This would contribute to the understanding of the way in which these work-related and personal variables interact with organizational interventions designed to recruit nurses. In our first segment, bridge employment literature is examined as a means to provide a foundation for understanding the factors that predict interest in continued employment. Following that general review will be a discussion of personal and work-related antecedents of the interest in returning to work, emphasizing the role of generativity and occupational stress.

### Bridge Employment

Despite the fact that people are retiring earlier, many individuals choose not to completely withdrawal from the labor force when they retire from their career positions. Doeringer (1990) found that although 50 percent of US workers retire by age 60, only 11 percent fully withdrawal from the workforce. According to AARP (2002), 70% of older workers are planning on remaining in the workforce during retirement. Given this pattern,

researchers treat retirement as a continuum rather than as a dichotomy (Wang, Zhan, Liu, & Shultz, 2008). There are many alternatives to completely leaving the workforce. One of these is bridge employment.

Bridge employment refers to the patterns of labor force participation observed in older workers between the time they leave their career job and the time they completely withdrawal from the labor force (Doeringer, 1990; Feldman, 1994; Quinn, 1999). Traditionally, women, minority, and teenage workers have served as America's contingent workforce (i.e., part-time, temporary, seasonal, and contract workers). Increasingly, however, older individuals are joining this secondary labor pool, which now represents almost 25% of the total U.S. labor market. These older individuals often desire the flexibility of being in the secondary labor market (Shultz, 2001).

Survey data suggests that there are is a substantial labor pool of older workers who are interested in returning to the workforce. An AARP study found that almost 70% of older workers would like to work at least part time, half of the older workers surveyed expect to work past 70 years of age, and many expect to never retire (Hursh, Lui, & Pransky, 2006). A Longevity Center/ Harris Poll survey found that 3.7 million people over 55 who were not working would like to work and would accept a suitable position if it were available (Hursh et al., 2006).

There are many advantages of bridge employment for both individuals and organizations. Bridge employment can serve as a potential means for both employers needing to fill critical roles and for mature individuals looking for work (Shultz, 2001). Individuals can phase into complete retirement, while still earning an income. They can

also maintain the social interactions that would be lost if they chose complete withdrawal from the workforce.

There are other advantages from the organization's standpoint as well. Organizations benefit from having experienced individuals who can mentor younger employees. In addition, older workers have been shown to have fewer accidents, as well as lower absenteeism and lower turnover (Weckerle & Shultz, 1999). Other benefits of older workers reported by HR managers include the general perception that they are relatively loyal and reliable (Taylor & Walker, 1994; AARP, 2000). Older workers provide a wealth of professional and life experience, as well as institutional or corporate knowledge that can contribute positively to an organization's productivity (Hursh et al., 2006).

Similar findings have been reported in the healthcare industry. In Quebec, massive forced retirements in recent years have caused a shortage of nurses in healthcare. Despite the massive forced retirements, Saba and Guerin (2005) surveyed 402 older healthcare managers in Quebec and found that:

“older workers enjoy themselves more at work, are less concerned with advancement, more concerned with stability, and developing a good relationship with coworkers. They are more loyal, have better job morale, are more aware of occupational health and safety issues, and have much lower rates of turnover and absenteeism.”

In summary, workforce shortages coupled with the perceived advantages of an older workforce makes this labor pool attractive to management.

Bridge employment is growing and many organizations are recognizing the value that older workers can add to their workforce. In addition to recognizing their value, organizations are also accommodating the needs of older workers. Bridge employment articles have been published in media outlets that are frequently read by practitioners, such as Kaye and Cohen's (2008) piece in *Training and Development*, and AARP has begun publishing a list of best places for mature workers to work.

Research in this area is not without its challenges, and definitional problems exist when one tries to clarify the meaning of "older worker." Current research in the area of bridge employment has investigated many antecedents and outcomes of bridge employment, and most have been qualitative in nature. Part of the problem within the research is that "older worker" is not clearly defined, and there are no established cut-offs in the literature. According to Hedge et al. (2006), a multitude of definitions for "older worker" exist. The ADEA of 1967 defines older workers as age 40 and over (Hedge et al., 2006). The AARP requires members to be age 50 and over. The Older Americans Act of 1965, The Job Training Partnership Act of 1982, and The Workforce Investment Act of 2000 all define older worker as age 55 and over (Hedge et al., 2006). The traditional retirement age and eligible age for Social Security benefits is 62, with peaks in retirement seen at 62 and 65 (Center for Economic Development, 1999). However, given the fact that individuals are retiring at younger ages, those 50 and over are be considered in this study (Ruhm, 1990). It is worth noting that this age coincides with the point at which employees believe they are viewed as "older" by their supervisor (Reynolds, Ridley, &

Van Horn, 2005). Thus, the choice of 50 as a “break point” has practical and psychological relevance.

### *Bridge Employment of Nurses*

Bridge employment may be one way to combat the shortage of nurses in the labor force. Older nurses have experience that only comes with age and tenure, and could be a valuable asset for organizations. Little, if any, research has been conducted on bridge employment in the nursing field. With the vast majority of nurses in the U.S. being female, research indicating that women more likely to stay in same industry/occupation (Ruhm, 1990) is positive for the healthcare industry – which really needs to attract these older nurses who have the experience and licensure needed for RN positions.

The fact that employees seeking bridge employment are mostly interested in part-time work (Armstrong-Stassen, 2008; Doeringer, 1990) could also work to the advantage of healthcare organizations, which often need employees who are flexible with their scheduling to fill in different shifts. Thus, there are a number of conditions that are potentially favorable for organizations that wish to draw older nurses back into the profession.

In these troubled economic times, organizations must be flexible and innovative with their recruitment and retention techniques, and must take advantage of mature workers. As a means to understand the factors that are relevant to nurses, the general demographic and personal predictors of interest in returning to work are examined, and then the work-oriented factors that impact this interest are examined as well. Two distinct work-oriented ways to market to mature workers are with mentoring opportunities and

flexibility in scheduling. In order to fully appreciate why and how these factors may impact interest in continued employment, it is hypothesized that individual differences in perceived occupational stress and in generativity play a significant role in the impact of these variables on organizational attraction.

### *Demographic and Personal Predictors*

Given the interest in identifying those in the labor pool who are most interested in returning to work, a number of researchers have examined demographic factors associated with this outcome variable. Ruhm (1990) examined six waves of the Retirement History Study to identify patterns of older workers in bridge employment. Although some workers retire directly following the end of career employment, recent research suggests that this is the exception rather than the rule. Ruhm (1990) found that by age 60, more than half of the sample of 6,633 older workers had left their job, but only 11% had retired. Most individuals departed their career jobs well before the “normal” retirement age--over 20% prior to age 50, 33% before 55, and 50% before 60 (Ruhm, 1990).

Simple demographic data shed some light on the types of workers who are most likely to remain employed past traditional retirement ages. Whites, educated workers, individuals without pensions, and those leaving career jobs in their late fifties are relatively more likely to remain in the same industry or occupation. Men were more likely than women to stay in their career jobs full-time, but women were more likely to stay in their industry than men (40.4% vs. 35.9%) and are especially more likely than men to remain in the same occupation (49.3% vs. 36.4%). Despite these figures, most

bridge jobs are in different industries or occupations from career positions, and partial retirement (which is both more common and longer lasting than has been generally realized) almost never takes place on the career job (Ruhm, 1990).

Many companies assume that financial incentives are most important for those who are considering the return to work. While incentives are important, it is not the central factor driving many decisions to return to employment among white-collar employees (Armstrong-Stassen, 2008). Interestingly, it appeared that expected financial earnings have only a small impact in decisions to accept bridge employment (Ruhm, 1990), though they are more important in the decisions of individuals at lower incomes (AARP, 2002). These data are consistent with the findings from other studies, and suggest that basic demographic and occupational variables are important to consider when studying bridge employment since it is highly unlikely that models based on white-collar workers will generalize to blue-collar employees.

Kim and Feldman (2000) sought to identify individual characteristics associated with interest in bridge employment. These researchers looked at a multitude of antecedents of bridge employment, including: health, age, organizational tenure, desire to approximate current standards of living, previously declined early retirement incentives, retirement counseling, marriage, working spouses, and dependent children in a sample of retired professors of the University of California system. Excellent health, organizational tenure, and having working spouses and dependent children were positively associated with accepting bridge employment. Older workers were less likely to engage in bridge employment in or out of the university, and when they did, it was significantly less likely

to be full-time. Salary was also inversely related to accepting such employment. Kim and Feldman (2000) also investigated the role of pension benefits and marital status in the prediction of bridge employment, and found that professors were significantly *more* likely to engage in bridge employment if they were married and their spouse was still working, and if they had dependents.

In the current study health, financial status, marital status, gender and number of dependents (parents, spouses, or children) are included as control variables given their significance in the research just reviewed. The next segment reviews a number of work-oriented variables and their relationship to interest in bridge employment, followed by a discussion of psychological variables. Recent work suggests that both categories are relevant in understanding the preferences of older workers, and that these may be qualitatively different than the factors driving the decisions of younger employees. Hedge and colleagues (2006) noted that in midlife, workers' attitudes shift, and they begin to place emphasis on intrinsic rewards from work. Examples of these intrinsic values are feelings of accomplishment, learning and experiencing new things, and doing something worthwhile. At the same time, older workers also go through a period of self-assessment that sometimes leads them to place more emphasis on leisure and other nonwork pursuits (Hedge et al., 2006). This self assessment leads workers to want more flexible work arrangements, fewer hours, and jobs and work environments more responsive to their needs.

When organizations fail to consider the unique needs of older employees, many employees leave sooner than they would if the organization met their needs (Hedge et al.,

2006). According to Kaye and Cohen (2008), aging Baby Boomers want to do meaningful work, keep current with technology, learn new competencies, and use their lifetime experience. When these employees are given the options to do so, many will remain loyal and committed to their organization when offered interesting choices as they approach retirement age.

Given this shift in focus to more satisfying work environments, it makes sense that organizations need to understand and accommodate the needs of older employees if they wish to effectively compete for this valuable labor pool. Work-oriented factors most associated with interest in continued employment are reviewed, focusing on two main variables of interest: flexibility in work scheduling and the opportunity to engage in mentoring at work.

#### *Work related predictors*

While demographic information provides a basic empirical description of the individuals who are most likely to return to work, organizational factors have emerged as equally or more important predictors of this decision. These work-related factors, ranging from affective reactions to the job to scheduling flexibility, also predict interest in continued employment.

Research has found that many retirees expect to return to work, but in part-time jobs primarily in the service sector (Doeringer, 1990; Ruhm, 1990). Interestingly, Morissette, Schellenberg, and Silver (2004) found that people who retired from healthcare, social assistance, and education sectors were the least likely to return to paid employment. This finding suggests that it is particularly important to understand why

employees in these occupations, such as nurses, are motivated to leave and not return to the profession.

Aspects of work may impact the attractiveness of continued employment through their relationship with affective reactions to the organization. Accommodating the preferences and needs of older workers sends the message that they are considered a valued resource. These may reflect extrinsic and extrinsic incentives to return to or stay with the organization. Armstrong-Stassen's (2008) findings suggest that people in post-retirement jobs are drawn to organizations that explicitly value older workers and signal this through HR practices that accommodate the needs and desires of older workers. This has clear practical significance for recruiting. There is a growing body of research that suggests that support for job seeking behaviors is significantly related to the return to work, over and above financial considerations (Adams & Rau, 2004). By identifying the aspects of the job that are most important to non-traditional employees and providing information on employment opportunities, organizations may be at a competitive advantage. Needless to say, this has clear psychological benefits for older employees as well.

Thus, research suggests that a broad range of variables may impact the decision of older workers to return to or continue employment. Two work-related factors that are of particular relevance to this study are scheduling flexibility and mentoring opportunities.

*Scheduling flexibility.* Flexible work options have been found by many researchers to be desirable to older workers. In an empirical study investigating what elements attract employees to companies offering bridge employment, Rau and Adams

(2005) found robust effects for flexible scheduling. Sparks, Faragher, and Cooper (2001) suggested that flexible work arrangements could result in “lower stress, reduced absenteeism and tardiness, improved job satisfaction and productivity, and better work-family balance” for older workers, and Hedge et al. (2006) noted that greater flexibility in deciding how and when to do their work is an incentive for workers to consider bridge employment in the same occupation (which is crucial when looking at the field of nursing). Penner et al. (2002) found that 13% of older workers who left the workforce or found other jobs would have stayed with their employer if they had been offered part-time work. Flexibility in work options consistently emerges as a significant predictor of return to work for white collar professions.

Further research suggests that flexibility in hours and scheduling, as well as satisfaction with the current work environment, may be important determinants of the interest to return to work. Armstrong-Stassen (2008) found that employees participating in bridge employment were significantly more likely to be employed in part-time, non-permanent positions, compared to those who had not yet retired (career employees). Bridge employees also expressed a significantly greater desire to continue working for their organization than career employees. Armstrong-Stassen (2008) found that respondents participating in bridge employment reported that organizations providing flexible work schedules (days worked, hours worked), and providing a reduced work-week (part-time) were more important in influencing their decision to remain in the workforce.

To emphasize the importance of flexibility to older workers, some researchers have examined the impact of work flexibility in conjunction with other factors, providing additional evidence of the importance of this variable. Rau and Adams (2005) used a mock newspaper ad and found that a 3-way interaction occurs with scheduling flexibility, targeted equal employment opportunity (EEO) statement to older workers, and opportunities to transfer knowledge. Flexible work arrangements were found to have robust positive effects regardless of other policies, suggesting they are a key concern.

Understanding the relevance of flexible work for older employees is central in the retention and recruitment of this group. Penner and colleagues (2002) found that 13% of older workers who left the workforce or found other jobs would have stayed with their employer if they had been offered part-time work. Such flexible scheduling and alternative work arrangements include more than just part-time work. Working from home is another option that may allow older workers the freedom they want, while still being a valuable asset to the organization. Other options include: job rotation, lateral job options, job-sharing, and phased retirement (Hedge et al., 2006). According to Kaye and Cohen (2008), aging Baby Boomers are generally quite flexible, and willing to work part-time, temporary, and flex hours. Of course, these are non-traditional work options for many employers, which explains why so many companies have not yet actively pursued these options. In fact, while many organizations are generally aware that the workforce is aging, this does not emerge as a chief concern among white-collar managers, and most managers are not preparing for this shift (AARP, 2000).

Given the forecasted shortage of skilled workers, it is surprising that more organizations are not preparing for the change. However, some organizations are being proactive, and are working to attract and retain them using different employment options. A recent international study of the factors that encourage older workers to reenter the labor force revealed that employment policies that addressed older workers' needs, such as part-time work options, were critical in attracting them to the workforce. Conversely, the absence of such part-time work options was a major factor in discouraging older employees to reenter the labor force (Barusch, Luptak & Hurtado, 2009).

Clearly, older workers have very different expectations and desires regarding work than younger employees, and organizations will need to understand these differences to attract and recruit older workers. Honeycutt and Rosen (1997) suggest that organizations who take into account the needs of a diverse workforce will be at a competitive advantage with respect to attracting new employees, and that flexible scheduling is an important part of such policies. Flexible scheduling has emerged as one of seven important HR strategies for the recruitment and retention of older workers (Armstrong-Stassen, 2008).

Thus, it seems clear that flexible work scheduling is important in attracting older workers to jobs, particularly in white-collar occupations. This has been well-established in prior research, and it is anticipated that flexible scheduling will also predict the interest of nurses in remaining employed.

Past research also suggests that a second work-oriented variable, mentoring opportunities, will significantly predict interest in the return to work. In the next segment,

the potential importance of this factor in predicting the appeal of bridge employment is reviewed.

*Mentoring Opportunities.* While it is true that many bridge jobs often involve changes in occupation and industry (Hedge et al. 2006), it is less true for highly specialized professions such as nursing. Research indicates that bridge employees are interested in mentoring type positions, but is unclear as to whether formal or informal mentoring positions or opportunities would be preferred if employees were given the choice. This study investigates which type of mentoring opportunity nurses would prefer (formal or informal) and the extent to which mentoring opportunities have an impact on organizational attraction. To understand this question, past work on mentoring opportunities and their relationship to interest in the return to work are examined.

According to Kaye and Cohen (2008), many aging Baby Boomers *want* to mentor others, and many are good at it. There are many ways that bridge employment can allow for older employees to share knowledge or mentor younger workers. The advantages of such opportunities for the organization and the employee have been explored by researchers. Beehr and Bowling (2002) have noted that older workers may make excellent mentors to younger employees, as well as provide valuable advice to the decision makers of the organization. The mentor-protégé relationship provides mutual value – it allows younger workers to benefit from the experience of older workers, and provides older workers with a means to continue contributing to the organization (Hedge et al., 2006). Studies also indicate that all types of mentoring experience (as protégé, as mentor, or as both) are positively related to willingness to mentor others (Allen, Poteet, &

Burroughs, 1997). The mentor's decision to engage in a mentoring relationship is also likely to be influenced by the outcomes that he or she realizes by mentoring others (Newby & Heide, 1992). As will be discussed in a later segment, it is believed that mentoring can serve as a means to fulfill generativity needs and that this may interact with the appeal of such programs as a means to spark interest in the return to work.

In general, mentoring seems to be an appealing option for white-collar workers considering bridge employment. Given this, various types of informal and formal mentoring programs are explored.

*Formal vs. Informal Mentoring.* Mentoring relationships in which older employees mentor younger employees can be formal or informal. Formal mentoring relationships emerge largely through mutual initiation and ongoing connections between protégé and mentor. Typically these include formal assignment of mentor-protégé pairs by the organization. In contrast, the development of informal mentoring relationships occurs over time without external intervention or planning (Ragins & Cotton, 1991). Formal mentoring relationships are most often instigated by organizational representatives and involve a process for assigning employees or managers to mentor-protégé pairings, and are therefore not necessarily based on perceived similarity (Egan & Song, 2008). In addition, while informal mentoring relationships are not guided by external expectations, formal mentoring relationships often involve set expectations that are generated by organizational facilitators. These facilitators may set expectations for involvement such as participation in mandatory introductory sessions or ongoing training, number of meeting times, discussion topics and goal setting (Egan & Song, 2008).

Formal mentoring programs in organizations are typically characterized by deliberate pairing, a 6-12 month timeframe, and specific goals. The most common goals are socializing employees into the organization's culture, providing support for career development, as part of protégé promotion or succession planning effort, supporting new hires in the development of task and relationship effectiveness, as well as efforts of retention and promotion of women and minorities (Wanberg et al., 2003).

The popularity of formal mentoring programs in public and private organizations has been steadily increasing, however, few empirical studies have examined outcomes of formal mentoring programs (Wanberg et al., 2003). Understanding the outcomes of formal mentoring programs is challenging. Some research suggests that there is substantial variability in mentor commitment in these formal programs, and that this affects the level of support provided by mentors (Allen & Eby, 2007). Research on the benefits of mentoring for nontraditional employees is limited at this time, though. In a review of the mentoring literature, Wanberg et al. (2003) found only 13 of less than 25 studies to be well-conducted empirical studies focused on outcomes associated with formal mentoring programs in organizations. Typically, these studies do not include older employees in part time work roles, so it is unclear whether the mentoring programs benefit or attract this particular population.

The research reviewed thus far suggests that mentoring may be one non-traditional work role that makes part time employment more attractive to older individuals. Given that organizations are somewhat constrained in their ability to offer multiple types of mentoring programs, the present study compares and contrasts the

effects of both formal and informal mentoring programs. It is believed that informal mentoring, in which the mentor has some freedom to choose the mentee, may be more attractive than the confines of assigned or formal mentoring programs. However, even formal mentoring programs are expected to be more attractive than simply returning to the same type of work, without the opportunity to mentor.

The attractiveness of such options to the mentor are less well-understood than the benefits to the protégé. In fact, the majority of mentoring research has focused on only one member of the dyad—the protégé (Allen et al., 1997). Wanberg and colleagues (2003) found that employees who participated in a high-level facilitated mentoring program reported greater levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and manager performance ratings than a low-level facilitation group, and both mentoring groups were higher than their non-mentored counterparts on measures of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, person-organization fit and manager performance ratings (Wanberg et al., 2003). Similarly, Allen and O'Brien (2006) examined the effect of formal mentorship programs on applicant attraction and found that participants who read a job description featuring a formal mentoring program in the organization were more attracted to the organization than those who read a job description without mention of a formal mentoring program. Clearly, this research supports the benefits of mentoring, making the use of this option more attractive for organizations. But the question remains whether the opportunity to mentor actually serves as an incentive for mentors to return to work. Furthermore, it is unclear whether the appeal of this option is moderated by factors

such as the stress in the current or past work environment or the generativity of the individual.

Decidedly fewer studies have been conducted with a focus on the mentor in a mentoring relationship, which is the focus of the current study. In the next segment, the possibility that generativity moderates the potential attractiveness of mentoring to older employees are explored. For individuals with high generativity, mentoring may make part time work much more attractive. It is expected that those with lower levels of this need would be less influenced by mentoring opportunities.

Mentoring effects on interest in the return to work: Generativity as a moderator

While mentoring programs are clearly valued by older workers in certain occupations, it seems reasonable to expect that the appeal of the program may interact with internal needs that are satisfied by participation in such programs. Existing research suggests that generativity, or the need to “give back” to younger or less experienced employees may be a significant motivating factor in the desire to return to work. This is a factor that is logically related to and potentially satisfied by mentoring functions.

Generativity is an adult’s concern for and commitment to promoting the well-being of future generations (Erikson, 1963). Erikson identified generativity as the psychosocial focus of the seventh stage in his famous eight-stage model of human development occurring in middle adulthood. In this stage, the adult seeks to make a positive contribution to the next generation through parenting, teaching, mentoring, leadership, and creating and caring for various products and outcomes aimed at leaving a

positive legacy (McAdams, 2006). According to Erikson (1963), an adult may express a variety of motivations, concerns, beliefs, and commitments related to generativity at any giving point in the life course.

While early research provided information on the theoretical basis of generativity, more recent research provides evidence of the empirical relationship of generativity needs to outcomes that are valued both by the organization and by individuals. High scores on generativity measures have been shown to be positively related with indexes of prosocial behavior and productive societal engagements (McAdams, 2006). Highly generative adults are also known to invest considerable time, money, and energy into ventures whose longterm payoff is not certain (McAdams, 2006).

The literature on bridge employment has addressed the importance of generativity from both the qualitative and empirical aspects, and also from both the employee's perspective as well as the organization's perspective. Concern for the next generation has been found to be associated with happiness and life satisfaction (McAdams, 1993). For example, AARP's Work and Career Study (2002), found that 90% of older workers surveyed said that work makes them feel productive and useful, 89% feel that their job makes a contribution to society, and more than 65% said that their work gives them a reason to get out of bed in the morning. Of those surveyed, 90% said that working is important to their self-esteem, and 54% said it is *very* important (AARP, 2002). Conversely, younger white-collar retirees (51-59) cite that feeling unproductive and not useful are important, concerns, with additional research suggesting that social and

generative needs are at the forefront for these individuals (Taylor, Shultz, & Doverspike, 2005).

Generativity has long been understood to be part of the aging process; as adults age, they increasingly desire to contribute to younger generations, and from this they feel a sense of accomplishment. This sharing of knowledge with younger generations is essential in bridge employment, so that the knowledge that older workers have is not lost when they completely withdraw from the labor force. This need to be generative may account for the appeal of mentoring programs.

Although research is limited in this area, available studies on mentoring suggests that individuals mentor others for two reasons – other-focused reasons, and self-focused reasons (Allen et al., 1997). Other-focused reasons have also been called “communal generativity” and include desires to pass information to others, build a competent workforce, help others, help others succeed, benefit the organization, and to help minorities/ women move through organizational ranks. Self-focused reasons have also been called “agentic generativity” and include gratification at seeing others succeed, having free time for other pursuits, a personal desire to work with others, increased personal learning, pride, a desire to have influence on others, earning respect from others, and being remembered after death. Additional research suggests there are a number of benefits for older mentors, who report more mutual learning in mentoring relationships than their younger counterparts (Finkelstein, Allen & Rhoton, 2003).

Other research suggests that needs relevant to generativity often emerge as a motivating factor in mentoring relationships. Morfei and colleagues (2004) found a

variety of positive outcomes associated with mentoring others. These included satisfaction in seeing others grow and succeed, as well as a general satisfaction in helping others.

Generativity has been investigated as a predictor of affective reactions to work. Dendinger, Adams, and Jacobson (2005) investigated four reasons for working (social, personal, financial, and generative) and three attitudinal outcomes of bridge employment (job satisfaction, retirement attitudes, and occupational self-efficacy) using a sample of 108 recent retirees holding bridge employment positions. Generativity was found to be a reliable predictor of job satisfaction and attitudes toward retirement (Dendinger et al., 2005). Additional work based on a broad sample of individuals revealed that feeling useful and productive is a significant determinant in the interest of older people in returning to work, across all income levels (AARP, 2002). This has led to a call by researchers for studies involving fulfillment of generativity needs as a means to understand the needs of older employees (Noonan, 2005).

When older workers are placed in mentoring positions, it conveys the message that experience is valued, which may help to explain Dendinger et al.'s (2005) finding that generativity is a reliable predictor of job satisfaction. Hunt and Michael (1983) suggested that mentors gain satisfaction, esteem among peers and superiors, and self-confirmation by mentoring others. Benefits associated with mentoring revealed through case study or qualitative approaches include the personal satisfaction that comes from passing knowledge and skills onto others, exhilaration from the fresh energy provided by protégés, improved job performance by receiving a new perspective on the organization

from protégés, loyalty and support from protégés, and organizational recognition (Kram, 1985). Quantitative data show that mentors report deriving personal satisfaction from helping junior employees, improvement of their own managerial skills, and being stimulated by the ideas of protégés (Klaus, 1981; Reich, 1986). In a part time position, potential costs of mentoring may be less likely to be experienced by employees.

Given the wealth of research indicating that older individuals find mentoring opportunities appealing, and the data suggesting that generativity needs may be served by such programs, it is hypothesized that any relationship of mentoring opportunities to organizational attraction and interest in the return to work will interact with generativity. In the current study, generativity is explored as a potential moderator of the positive effects of mentoring on the interest in the return to work.

In the next segment, an additional moderator of the appeal of mentoring programs is explored: perceived occupational stress. While past work establishes the importance of input into one's work schedule, mentoring, and generativity as potential factors that drive the decision to return to work, it may be the case that none of these factors are important when the current or previous occupational environment is stressful. It is expected that mentoring and flexible scheduling will be related to the interest in return to work, and specifically that this relationship will be much stronger among those who perceive less occupational stress. For those who perceive more occupational stress, it is anticipated that these factors will not be as predictive of interest in the return to work.

## Occupational Stress as a Moderator of the Effects of Work Flexibility and Mentoring

Over the past decade, the significant influence of stress in the workplace has been increasingly recognized (Gellis, 2002). Occupational stress encompasses the stress that results from specific occupations across organizations. This study focuses on occupational stress in the nursing field. By its very nature, nursing is an occupation subject to a high degree of stress--nurses confront unique challenges every day.

While there are a variety of nursing positions, and various types of facilities that nurses can work in, there are some common sources of occupational stress for nurses. Common sources of stress for nurses are high workload (quantity and quality), patient care, interpersonal relationships with colleagues, and bureaucratic-political constraints (McGrath et al., 2003). Many studies suggest that lack of positive or other constructive feedback from senior staff is a problem (McGrath et al., 2003). Other issues that have been cited in the literature include: relationships with senior staff, role conflict and ambiguity, dealing with death and dying, conflict between demands of work and home, lack of job satisfaction related to low professional status and limited promotional prospects, interpersonal relationships with patients and relatives and with colleagues and subordinates, inadequate physical resources, coping with change in technology, and professional development (Hingley, 1984). In an empirical study, McGrath et al. (2003) also found that nurses reported the most commonly cited stressors as too little time to perform duties to the person's satisfaction and rationing of scarce services and resources. Meeting imposed deadlines, and counteracting, unhelpful views of others were also listed by nurses as causing them stress (McGrath et al., 2003).

Gellis (2002) studied occupational stress in healthcare, comparing social workers and nurses both working in hospital settings and found distinct differences between the two groups. Nurses reported significantly more occupational stress and lower job satisfaction than social workers. This study indicates that the amount of perceived stress had the greatest impact on job satisfaction, despite earlier findings that coping may be more important than the amount of stress itself (Latack & Havlovic, 1992; Lazarus & Folkman, 1991). This suggests that nurses may be in a particularly stressful occupation, and thus it is important to consider this factor in studies of interest in the return to work.

In more recent work by Wang, Zhan, Liu, and Shultz (2008), stress and job satisfaction significantly predicted interest in bridge employment among older workers. Wang et al. (2008) found that stress and job satisfaction had significant relationships to the actual decision to accept bridge employment in the same occupation. Employees who report work stress are more likely to find bridge employment in a different field than to fully retire, and employees who reported high job satisfaction were less likely to find bridge employment in a different field than to fully retire. Similar findings were reported by Gobeski and Beehr (2009) who found that those who experienced work strain were significantly less likely to choose bridge employment in the same career than in a different career.

It is important to note that the centrality of work in one's life is not a moderator of this effect. Work centrality can be high, but is still largely unrelated to adjusting to retirement or to the activities pursued post-retirement (Wong & Earl, 2009). Thus, the

assumption on the part of some employers that their non-traditional employees would be “lost” without work appears largely unfounded.

This variable of occupational stress has not been fully explored, and including a consideration of occupational stress can inform our model of the prediction of return to work in this particular occupation. This approach, considering occupational characteristics in designing recruiting programs, may facilitate a deeper understanding of the factors that drive the return to work among nurses. The current study will investigate both organizational attraction and application intentions. Organizational attraction is an affective reaction and application intentions are more behavioral in nature.

#### Summary

Based on prior research, it seems clear that flexible scheduling and mentoring opportunities are appealing to many older workers who are considering the return to work. Offering appealing bridge employment options can benefit not only the organization, but the employee as well, facilitating positive levels of adjustment from a full-time job (Topa, Moriano, Depolo, Alcover & Morales, 2009). In the current study, the relationship of these two factors (flexible scheduling and mentoring opportunities) on organizational attraction and application intentions is examined. In addition, past research is extended by proposing that the positive effects of mentoring on interest in continued employment are moderated by generativity. It is hoped that this study will contribute to our understanding of why mentoring may appeal to some individuals who consider returning to work.

The second goal of the study is to examine whether the potentially positive effects of mentoring and work flexibility on both organizational attraction and application intentions are moderated by occupational stress. While these variables are predictive of the general interest in return to work across white collar jobs, nursing has a high potential for stress, which may mitigate the positive impact of organizational attempts to recruit older employees. Understanding the importance of stress in nurses may improve the success of recruiting efforts and may also lead to a greater appreciation of the importance of stress in practical decisions that impact the organization. While most organizational decision makers may be aware that stress is detrimental to individuals, they may not realize that it is detrimental to the organization as well.

According to Shultz (2001), how to best incorporate older workers into an integrated strategic human resource planning effort depends on a number of factors. Despite the complexity of the strategy, it seems critical to engage in long-term planning for demographic changes. As Cauldron (1994) notes, the failure rate is much higher for contingent workers when they are simply hired as a “last ditch effort” rather as part of an integrated change effort. In a time where current HR practices are often explicitly or implicitly biased against older worker (Dychtwald, Erickson, & Morrison, 2004) and 65% of older workers have personally experienced or witnessed age discrimination on the job (AARP, 2002), several authors argue that this aging of the workforce will require major modernization in employment practices, including a radical change in HR strategies (Accenture Institute for Strategic Change, 2002; Drucker, 1999; Walker, 1998).

The research reviewed above suggests that offering mentoring opportunities and flexible scheduling to workers are two HR strategies that may increase the interest of older applicants in returning to work. These recruitment strategies may shape applicants' perceptions of organizations and their interest in applying to work (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981; Roberson, Collins & Oreg, 2005). As noted, the effects of mentoring and flexible scheduling on organizational attraction may be somewhat dependent on occupational stress and on the nurses' generativity. Thus, a consideration of both work oriented and psychological concerns may result in more beneficial outcomes for the organization and more attractive work options for the older employee.

### The Proposed Study

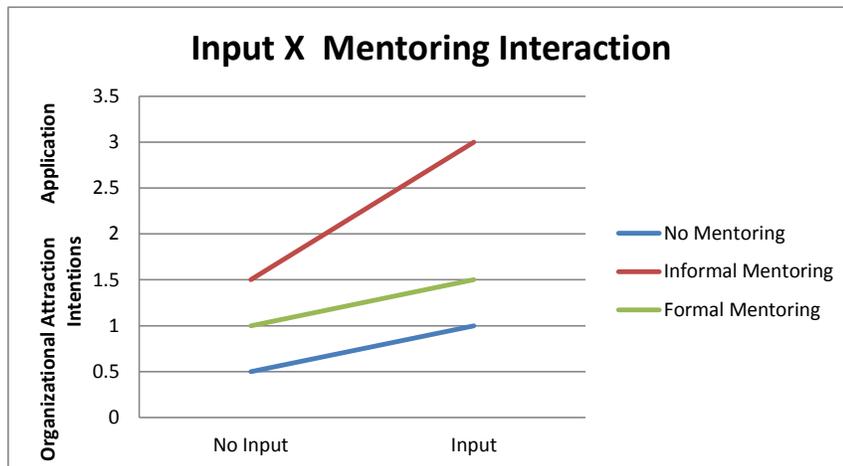
The proposed study seeks to expand the literature on bridge employment in the nursing field, and to identify specific variables that attract nurses who are interested in bridge employment to organizations. The two variables of interest in the current study are: flexible scheduling (input/no input) and mentoring opportunities (formal, informal, or none). Effects of these variables on interest in continued employment may be moderated by occupational stress. Furthermore, effects of mentoring may be moderated by individual generativity. Organizational attraction and application intentions are focused on as the main dependent variables of interest.

### *Hypotheses*

Based on past research, an interaction is expected between flexibility (input) and mentoring opportunities. Informal mentoring opportunities are expected to result in

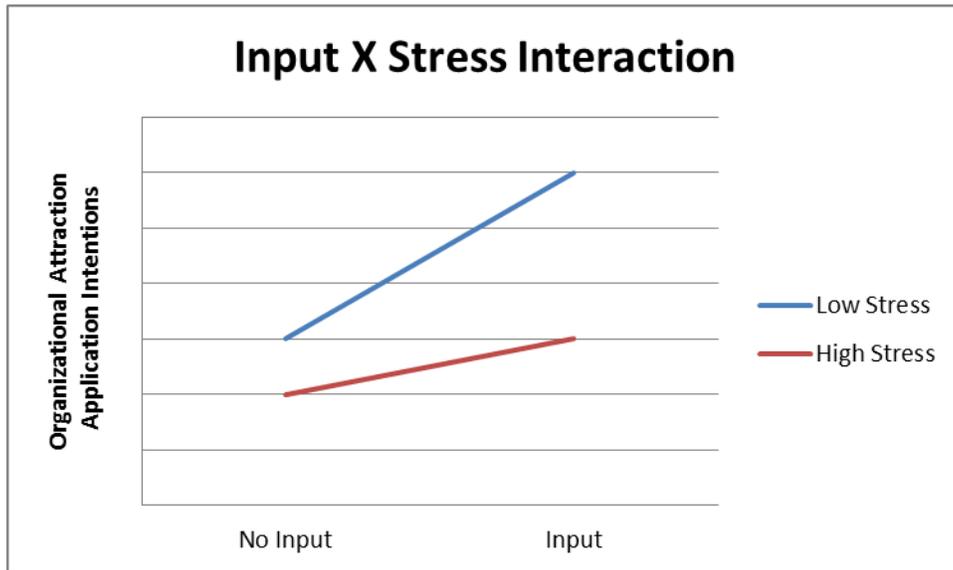
higher organizational attraction and application intentions because informal mentoring is more in the mentor's control than formal mentoring opportunities.

H1: Organizational attraction and application intentions will be highest when input into the work schedule is sought and when informal mentoring opportunities exist (Input X Mentoring Interaction).



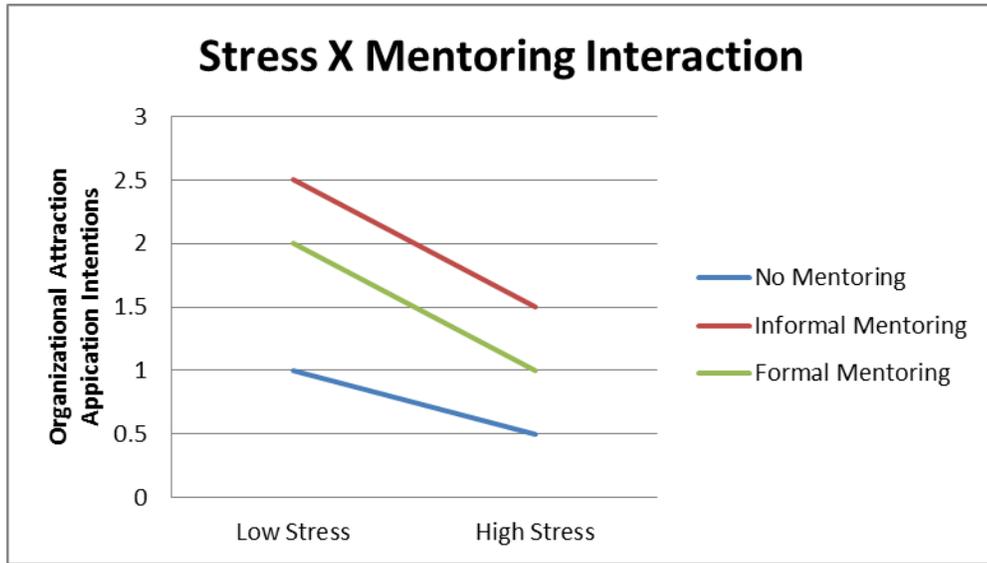
It is also believed that the main effects of mentoring and input would be moderated by occupational stress. In conditions of high occupational stress, withdrawal from the organization is more likely and return to the same occupation is less probable. Thus, it is likely that work options such as flexibility has a greater impact when the return to work is a viable and attractive option to employees. Specifically:

H2: The impact of scheduling input on organizational attraction and application intentions will be strongest when occupational stress is low (input X stress interaction).



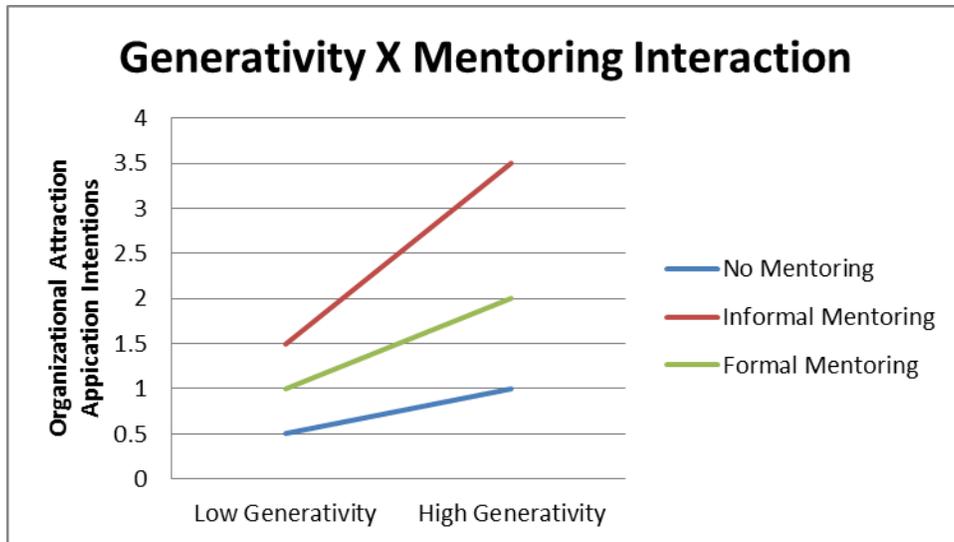
A similar dynamic is expected to characterize the relationship between high occupational stress, mentoring opportunities and interest in continued employment. Since employees are unlikely to want to return to a stressful work environment, it is anticipated that mentoring opportunities will have a greater impact when stress is low:

H3: Organizational attraction and application intentions will be highest when informal mentoring opportunities are available and occupational stress is low. Effects of mentoring will be moderated by occupational stress, in that effects of mentoring opportunities will be stronger for individuals reporting low occupational stress than for those reporting high occupational stress (Mentoring X Occupational Stress interaction).



It is also anticipated that some of the potentially positive effects of mentoring may interact with generativity. Those with high generativity are more likely to respond to incentives that gratify these needs. This leads to the following hypothesis:

H4: Organizational attraction and application intentions will be highest when informal mentoring opportunities are available and generativity is high (Generativity X Mentoring Interaction).



Exploratory analyses was conducted to test the potential three way interactions between mentoring, flexibility, and generativity and mentoring, flexibility, and occupational stress. It may be the case that organizational attraction and application intentions is disproportionately higher when these conditions are all at their most favorable (informal mentoring is present, there is input into scheduling, generativity is high; informal mentoring is present, there is input into scheduling, occupational stress is low). Given that past research has not even established moderators of the relationship between input into scheduling and bridge employment or mentoring opportunities and bridge employment, the more conservative option of building the hypotheses around more conservative two-way interactions was chosen.

## CHAPTER TWO

### METHOD

#### *Participants*

Six hundred currently licensed RNs in the state of South Carolina (for 25 years +) were randomly selected to receive the survey package via postal mail. Of the 600, 101 packets were returned, resulting in a 16.8% response rate. Of the 101 participants who responded, all were female, 90% were Caucasian, and 77% were married (mean age = 58.2 years, mean years as RN = 34.5, mean years in health care = 33.6). Participants received no form of compensation for their participation, and all participants remained anonymous.

#### *Materials*

The survey was delivered via U.S. Postal mail to the homes of potential participants. A letter to participants was included in each packet describing the study and the anticipated gains in knowledge that will come from responses, as well as any possible negative consequences of participating in the survey. Survey responses were kept in strict confidence. Please see Appendices B – G for all survey items.

#### *Design and Procedure*

Employing a methodology similar to Rau and Adams (2005), a 2 x 3 design was used to reflect the two levels of input into schedule (input vs. no input) and the three levels of mentoring opportunities (formal mentoring, informal mentoring, no mentoring). Six versions of a one-paragraph advertisement were randomly assigned to participants in which input into schedule and mentoring opportunities are manipulated. Based on

Roberson et al.'s (2005) findings regarding the content of recruitment messages—all advertisements were approximately the same length and provide the same level of detail, changing only the level of the independent variables between advertisements. Please see Appendix A for all six paragraphs. Each of the six conditions had between 13 and 25 participants (Conditions 1, 4, and 5 each had 13 participants, Condition 2 had 25 participants, Condition 3 had 16 participants, and Condition 6 had 21 participants). Condition was not systematically related to any predictor variables.

Questions designed to capture the two main moderators of interest – generativity (Appendix F) and occupational stress (Appendix E) were measured through questions at the end of the survey. The dependent variables, organizational attraction and application intentions (Appendix G), were measured at the end of the survey as well.

Given the importance of demographic/personal predictors in determining interest in the return to work, the survey included questions pertaining to the following background information: age, sex, marital status, number of dependents, type of dependents (available in Appendix B), number of years licensed as a nurse, number of years in work force, retirement status (available in Appendix C), and self-perceived health, perceived social satisfaction, and perceived financial comfort (available in Appendix D).

#### Perceived Occupational Stress

Occupational Stress was measured using the Nurse Stress Scale (NSS), originally developed by Gray-Toft and Anderson (1981). It was designed to measure the frequency and sources of stress for hospital nurses. The NSS lists situations that commonly occur in

a work setting and respondents are asked to indicate how stressful that situation has been for them, with a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never stressful) to 4 (extremely stressful). Gray-Toft and Anderson (1981) found test-retest reliability of .81, and internal consistency reliability of .89. Reliabilities for this and all other continuous scales are reported in the analyses segment. Please see Appendix E for a list of items contained in this measure.

### Generativity

McAdams and de St. Aubin's (1992) *Loyola Generativity Scale (LGS)* was used to assess generativity. The LGS was developed to assess generative concern, and consists of 20 statements. Respondents were asked to indicate how often the statement applies to them by marking a "0", "1", "2", or "3" in the blank provided. "0" indicates that it never applies, and "3" indicates that it applies very often or nearly always. McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992) found alphas of .83 for an adult sample, and .84 for a college sample. Please see Appendix F.

### Dependent Measures:

Organizational attraction and application intentions was assessed using a combination of items from Turban and Keon's (1993) and Highhouse, Lievens, and Sinar's (2003) measures of organizational attraction. Both original scales combine organizational attraction items with interest in application items, despite organizational attraction being an affective response and application intentions more of a behavioral response. Turban and Keon's (1993) scale is a five item, 5-point Likert scale ( $\alpha = .95$ ), and Highhouse et al.'s (2003) scale is a 15-item measure with 3 subscales (company

attractiveness, intentions toward the company, and company prestige), however only four of the original items were used in this study. No reliability estimates were reported by the authors. Each of these facets was supplemented with items developed by the authors. The two scales were examined for intercorrelations prior to analyses. Please see Appendix G.

## CHAPTER THREE

### RESULTS

#### **Initial Analyses**

First, both of the non-categorical predictors (generativity and occupational stress) and the dependent variables (organizational attraction and application intentions) were examined for range restriction and normal distributions. All distributions were approximately normal and did not suffer from range restriction. Descriptive statistics are reported in Table 1.

#### **Internal Reliability**

Next, internal consistency reliability was assessed for these four variables (generativity, occupational stress, organizational attraction and application intentions). Initially, occupational stress as defined by the NSS, revealed an alpha = .96 for the 59 item scale. On closer examination of individual items, the item-total correlations revealed that 3 items- NSS51 (corrected item-total correlation = .38), NSS41 (corrected item-total correlation = .36), and NSS18 (corrected item-total correlation = .29) had item-total correlations below .4 and would raise the alpha if deleted. After the three items were deleted, the reliability estimate rose to .98. Visual inspection of the deleted items revealed that two of these items (NSS41 and NSS51) were specific to nurses in management positions, and NSS18 asked about experiencing discrimination based on race or ethnicity.

Generativity, as defined by the LGS, had an alpha = .72, with the original 20 item scale. Five items were identified with corrected item-total correlations less than .3 (LGS2=.17, LGS3=.07, LGS5=.18, LGS9=.13, and LGS11=.22) and would raise the

alpha if deleted. After the five items were deleted, the reliability estimate rose to .84. Visual inspection of the deleted items revealed that these items were more situation-specific, asking about volunteering for a charity, adoption, working as a teacher, etc.

The dependent variables were both defined by fewer items (organizational attraction = 4 items, application intentions = 5 items). Neither scale had individual items with corrected item-total correlations of less than .5, so all items were kept for each scale. The internal consistency reliability for organizational attraction was .88, and for application intentions it was .95. Thus, the internal consistency reliability for occupational stress, generativity, organizational attraction and application intentions exceeded professional standards for reliability.

### **Control Variables**

Each control variable was then correlated with the dependent measures, with the intent of only retaining those that were significantly related to the dependent measures in further analyses. Organizational attraction was significantly correlated with age ( $r = -.25$ ) and financial comfort ( $r = -.22$ ). Application intentions were significantly correlated with age ( $r = -.27$ ), years as an RN ( $r = -.25$ ), number of dependents ( $r = .3$ ), and financial comfort ( $r = -.3$ ). These correlated control variables were treated as covariates in all future analyses involving these dependent measures. Please see Table 2 for descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among variables.

## Tests of Hypotheses

All formal hypotheses involved interactions between variables. Main effects were also tested and reported in table form along with each hypothesis test.

Hypothesis 1 stated that organizational attraction and application intentions would be highest when input in the work schedule was available and when informal mentoring opportunities existed. To test this hypothesis, a test of Input x Generativity was conducted for organizational attraction and then again for application intentions. The regression analyses showed the interaction to be nonsignificant for organizational attraction ( $\beta = -.01$ ,  $t(95) = -.02$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and also for application intentions ( $\beta = .4$ ,  $t(93) = .65$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Please see Table 3 for a visual depiction of the main and interaction effects of input and generativity.

Main effects of input and generativity on the dependent variables of interest were also tested. Regression analysis showed a significant main effect for input on organizational attraction ( $\beta = -.22$ ,  $t(95) = -2.28$ ,  $p = .03$ ), indicating that participants were attracted to organizations that advertised input into the schedule. Input was not a significant predictor of application intentions ( $\beta = -.04$ ,  $t(93) = -.41$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

Regression analysis showed a significant main effect for generativity on both organizational attraction ( $\beta = .20$ ,  $t(95) = 2.09$ ,  $p = .04$ ), and application intentions ( $\beta = .26$ ,  $t(93) = 2.6$ ,  $p = .01$ ). The relationship between the two was such that generativity was positively related to both attraction to the organization as well as the intent to apply. Hypothesis 2 stated that the impact of scheduling input on organizational attraction and application intentions would be highest when occupational stress is low. To test this

hypothesis, a test of Input x Occupational Stress was conducted for organizational attraction and then again for application intentions. The regression analyses showed the interaction to be nonsignificant for organizational attraction ( $\beta=-.41, t(95)= -.93, p>.05$ ) and also for application intentions ( $\beta=-.16, t(93)=-.35, p>.05$ ).

Again, main effects of the predictors on the dependent measures were tested. As stated previously, regression analysis displayed a main effect for input on organizational attraction, but not for application intentions. No main effects were found for stress on either organizational attraction ( $\beta=-.11, t(95)= -1.05, p>.05$ ) or application intentions ( $\beta=-.10, t(93)=-.94, p>.05$ ). Please see Table 4 a visual depiction of the main and interaction effects of input and occupational stress.

Hypothesis 3 stated that organizational attraction and application intentions would be highest when informal mentoring opportunities were available and occupational stress was low. To test this hypothesis, a test of Mentoring x Occupational Stress was conducted for organizational attraction and then again for application intentions. The regression analyses showed the interaction to be nonsignificant for organizational attraction ( $\beta=-.107, t(95)= -.32, p>.05$ ) and also for application intentions ( $\beta=.22, t(93)= .7, p>.05$ ). No main effects were found for mentoring on either organizational attraction ( $\beta=-.09, t(95)= -.86, p>.05$ ) or application intentions ( $\beta=-.18, t(93)= -1.82, p>.05$ ). As stated previously, no main effects were found for stress on organizational attraction or application intentions. Please see Table 5 for a visual depiction of the main and interaction effects of mentoring and occupational stress.

Hypothesis 4 stated that organizational attraction and application intentions would be highest when informal mentoring opportunities were available and generativity was high. To test this final hypothesis, a test of the interactive effects of Mentoring x Generativity was conducted for organizational attraction and then again for application intentions. The regression analyses showed the interaction to be nonsignificant for organizational attraction ( $\beta=.706, t(95)= 1.14, p>.05$ ) and also for application intentions, ( $\beta=.25, t(93)= .38, p>.05$ ). As stated previously, mentoring did not have a main effect on organizational attraction or application intentions, but generativity does have a main effect on both organizational attraction and application intentions. Please see Table 6 for a visual depiction of the main and interaction effects of mentoring and generativity.

One-way ANOVAs were also conducted using the variable Condition to determine if they effects of Mentoring may have been masked in the regression analyses. The one-way ANOVAs revealed that the mean organizational attraction was not significantly different for each condition ( $F(97)=1.86, MS_e=14.49, p >.05$ ), and also that the mean application intentions also did not differ between conditions ( $F(95)=1.96, MS_e=29.95, p >.05$ ).

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DISCUSSION

The current study expands the literature on bridge employment in the nursing field by examining predictors that attract nurses who are interested in bridge employment to organizations and by incorporating psychological as well as work-related factors as predictors. Specifically, flexible scheduling (input/no input) and mentoring opportunities (formal, informal, or none) were examined as the main variables of interest, with occupational stress and generativity examined as potential moderators, and with organizational attraction and application intentions as the main dependent variables of interest. Each of the significant findings and implications for theory and research are discussed below.

The major finding of the current study was that generativity had a significant main effect on both organizational attraction and application intentions. In terms of the proposed interactions, none of these were found to be significant, indicating that occupational stress and generativity do not moderate the effects of input or generativity on organizational attraction or application intentions.

Before discussing the implications of the study, it should be noted that prior research combines organizational attraction and application intentions into one composite. Given the nature of the differences in the measures of these two constructs, these two separate dependent variables were kept separate. The two dependent measures did prove to be highly correlated in the present study. The data was reanalyzed using a composite measure of organizational attraction and intentions to apply to the

organization. The findings mirrored those reported earlier. Thus, the lack of significance of findings cannot be attributed to splitting what is typically one dependent measure into two separate measures in this study.

### **Input**

Previous studies have found that “flexible scheduling” has been important in the decision to stay at work or return to work (Rau & Adams, 2005; Penner et al., 2002). In the previous literature, however, “flexible scheduling” has been either ill-defined or not defined at all, which is why this study chose to look at input in the schedule in more specific terms. In the current study, input was defined as “flexible hours” and no input was defined as a “fixed schedule.” Providing more well-defined operational definitions of flexible scheduling may help future researchers understand the impact of employee input within different occupations. In this study, a main effect for input into the schedule was found for organizational attraction. This finding strengthens past empirical research which suggests that flexibility in scheduling is a critical element of creating post-retirement work options that will encourage retirees to reenter the workforce (Rau & Adams, 2005). Furthermore, the current study was conducted during an economic recession, and the fact that input was still significant in shaping attraction to an organization suggests that it may have robust effects in applied settings. In practical terms, this suggests that organizations may have to explore more creative scheduling options to attract this limited workforce. It is likely, given the forecast shortage in healthcare workers, that those who are able to offer flexible part-time work will find themselves at a competitive advantage. Past research supports this view, since

organizational policies which convey a consideration of such age-specific needs serve as a means to attract older potential employees to the organization (Armstrong-Stassen, 2008).

In terms of occupation-specific findings, results showed that RNs found input in the schedule attractive, but it was not related to application intentions. This indicates that RNs like the idea of providing input into the schedule, but that it doesn't affect their actual interest in applying to that organization. This may be because nursing positions are historically positions where shifts are assigned, and many RNs (especially the population of interest) are used to this type of scheduling. It may also stem from the fact that interest in actually returning to the job is dependent on a host of individual, job-related, and organization-specific factors (Gobeski & Beehr, 2009; Griffin & Hesketh, 2008). Any single factor such as schedule input may be weighed by applicants along with many other considerations to determine the actual behavior of applying to an organization.

### **Mentoring**

This study attempted to investigate which type of mentoring opportunities that nurses would prefer – informal or formal. Mentoring opportunities were not found to be related to organizational attraction or application intentions. There are many possible reasons for these findings. It is possible that the manipulation didn't provide enough information to participants, and that a more specific explanation that provided a detailed explanation of mentoring would have had a more significant impact on the dependent variables. Thus, it is possible that the variable of mentoring was too vague for participants to understand and use in their decision making of whether or not they found

the organization attractive or would apply to the organization. This seems likely, given that generativity was a significant factor in shaping organizational attraction and application intentions, and mentoring is often related to this need.

In terms of methodological suggestions for future research, describing the mentoring as informal, where mentors can choose their protégé, rather than assigned, where mentor-protégé pairs are formally matched, may be an important consideration in defining this variable. Informal mentoring is generally more satisfying to individuals and may be more related to generativity (Armstrong, Allinson, & Hayes, 2002). Thus, providing a more specific and comprehensive definition of informal and formal mentoring to participants is important.

An additional consideration in the use of mentoring as a variable in academic research or as an incentive in applied settings can be drawn from past work. Past research on mentoring suggests that, although it may be a method to enrich jobs that workers currently hold, it may not be enough to entice retirees to reenter the workforce. Even for those who would enjoy mentoring, there are satisfactory substitutes in the post-retirement environment such as volunteering in different organizations (Cornwell, Laumann & Schumm, 2008). Such activities are alternative ways to satisfy altruistic motives that may be served by mentoring. Furthermore, the decision to return to work is, as noted earlier, multidetermined and the reasons for the return vary greatly among subgroups (Loi & Shultz, 2007). Mentoring may best be thought of as one of many ways to increase the attractiveness of jobs to some retired individuals.

## **Generativity**

While generativity did not serve as a moderator in the current study, a simple main effect was found for generativity on for both organizational attraction and application intentions, in that increased generativity was associated with greater attraction and stronger intentions to apply. Clearly, generativity should be studied more in the industrial organizational psychology area – it has been more extensively studied in the developmental psychology literature. A possible area of exploration in this area is in the different dichotomies that have been put forth for generativity. Allen and colleagues (1997) discuss other-focused reasons (agentic generativity) and self-focused reasons (communal generativity) for mentoring, and Parise and Forret (2007) have discussed generativity encompassing productive and nurturant behaviors. These would have great utility in understanding how and why generativity functions as a motivator in pulling retired individuals back to work.

The LGS measure of mentoring (used in this study) only purports to measure generative concern – but according to Parise and Forret (2007), 12 of 20 items assess self-perceived generative accomplishment – therefore measuring generative efficacy and success in addition to generative concern. The LGS also is not specific to generativity at work. Some research shows that generativity at work is not related to generativity in other areas of life. For example, Clark and Arnold (2008) found that generativity in the role of worker was unrelated to generativity in the roles as father and citizen. The development of work-oriented generativity scales may enhance the predictive power of this variable.

Given the relationship between generativity and well-being in later life, creating work environments that serve this need may benefit not only the organization in terms of recruiting effectiveness, but individual well-being (Huta & Zuroff, 2007; Reichstadt, Sengupta, Depp, Palinkas & Jeste, 2010). A consideration of individual needs such as generativity and the extent to which a post-retirement environment fulfills these needs allows the understanding of the adjustment of those who are nearing retirement and those who decide to return to work (Wang & Shultz, 2010).

### **Stress**

The hypothesized effects of stress were not found on either organizational attraction or application intentions. The possibility that stress may interact with other predictors that were primarily included as control variables such as age was explored. These findings should be interpreted with caution since they were purely exploratory.

Interestingly, stress did significantly interact with age when predicting organizational attraction ( $\beta=-1.3$ ,  $t(88)=-1.06$ ,  $p=.03$ ). Younger RNs reported similar Organizational Attraction regardless of Occupational Stress. Older RNs with high levels of Occupational Stress reported much less organizational attraction than did older RNs with less stress. Please see Appendix H for a graphical representation of the interaction.

It may be the case that those who are older have endured a stressful environment for a longer period of time, and that the effects of stress on organizational attraction and continued employment are cumulative. This has been evident in the stress and health literature. Longitudinal studies have found that chronic stress at work is related to serious health outcomes, and that individuals who experience chronic work stress are more than

twice as likely to experience metabolic syndrome (a cluster of risk factors that increase risk for heart disease and Type II diabetes) than individuals who did not experience chronic stress at work (Chandola, Brunner & Marmot, 2006).

### **Employment status**

Participants were asked if they were currently retired, but they were not asked if they were currently looking for employment. No significant differences were found between retired and non-retired participants. If participants had been active job seekers, different results may have been found. Research shows that if an individual is moderately happy with their current position, it would take a lot for them to initiate a job change. Another variable that was not measured was how many hours participants are currently working, whether they are full time, part time, or currently working flex hours.

### **Limitations and Future Research**

The popularity of formal mentoring programs in public and private organizations has been steadily increasing, however, few empirical studies have been performed which examine outcomes of formal mentoring programs (Wanberg et al., 2003). Even less research has been done on the benefits of mentoring for nontraditional employees, such as older employees. Mentoring studies are usually case studies about specific types of mentoring programs – either formal or informal. While this study differs in that it was a true experimental design to assess the attractiveness of formal and informal mentoring opportunities, the hypothesized results were not found. The lack of significant findings, however, should be taken as a directive to improve upon the study's design, and include variables that may be able to account for findings in previous literature that were not

replicated here. In addition, as noted earlier, more detailed explanations of the type of mentoring program offered by organizations may have an impact on the predictive power of this variable.

Some variables related to mentoring in the literature were not used in this study and may have had a significant effect on the lack of findings. The current study did not examine previous mentoring experience, and Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997) found that mentoring experience (as mentor, mentee, or both) is positively related to a willingness to mentor others. The nature of past mentoring experience, positive or negative, is another consideration in shaping individual attitudes toward mentoring (Eby et al., 2008).

Another issue in the mentoring literature noted earlier is the ability to choose the mentor/mentee. Thus, future research may want to make the definition of mentoring explicit, addressing the type of mentoring program in more detail.

The current study suffered from some limitations associated with the power of the study, or our ability to detect significant differences. A smaller sample size than desired was utilized. Participants were randomly assigned to conditions, but the conditions had unequal *n*'s. A positive aspect of this study related to power is the high reliability of the continuous measures, including the dependent variables, which is associated with reduced error of measurement and increased power in research.

The nature of the sample should be discussed as well. Overall, the sample was highly homogenous, with a majority of respondents being married Caucasian women

living in South Carolina. Thus, findings regarding generativity may be likely to generalize to similar populations.

It is also important to note that at the time the current study was conducted, the United States had been experiencing a recessed economy. This could have affected the results in a number of ways, mainly, that individuals may be working longer than anticipated due to the economy.

The main contribution of the current study is the understanding that generativity is an important variable in the study of bridge employment, and specifically to organizational attraction and application intentions of bridge employees. This study found significant main effects of generativity on both organizational attraction and application intentions. Future research should expand on this finding into other occupations and contexts, as bridge employees are becoming a more important part of our labor force.

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## APPENDICES

Appendix A

Recruitment Messages

Please assume you are reading the following (hypothetical) job advertisement AFTER your retirement. After reading the advertisement, please circle the response that indicates to what extent you agree with that statement.

Formal mentoring, input:

**NOW HIRING – FLEXIBLE SCHEDULING, FORMAL MENTORING OPPORTUNITIES**

XYZ Health System is now hiring for RNs. XYZ has long been established as providing excellent care to our patients, in many different areas of healthcare – Acute Care, Long-term Care, Behavioral Health, Retirement, Physician’s Services, and many others. We are a major employer and offer competitive salary, benefit packages, and flexible hours according to your preferences. In addition, we have opportunities for you to share your skills while training and mentoring others in our formal mentorship program. We are an equal opportunity employer.

Formal mentoring, no input:

**NOW HIRING – FORMAL MENTORING OPPORTUNITIES**

XYZ Health System is now hiring for RNs. XYZ has long been established as providing excellent care to our patients, in many different areas of healthcare – Acute Care, Long-term Care, Behavioral Health, Retirement, Physician’s Services, and many others. We are a major employer and offer competitive salary and benefit packages. In addition, we have opportunities for you to share your skills while training and mentoring others in our formal mentorship program. We are an equal opportunity employer.

Informal mentoring, input:

**NOW HIRING – FLEXIBLE SCHEDULING, INFORMAL MENTORING OPPORTUNITIES**

XYZ Health System is now hiring for RNs. XYZ has long been established as providing excellent care to our patients, in many different areas of healthcare –

Acute Care, Long-term Care, Behavioral Health, Retirement, Physician's Services, and many others. We are a major employer and offer competitive salary, benefit packages, and flexible hours according to your preferences. In addition, we have opportunities for you to share your skills with others through informal mentoring. We are an equal opportunity employer.

Informal mentoring, no input:

#### NOW HIRING – INFORMAL MENTORING OPPORTUNITIES

XYZ Health System is now hiring for RNs. XYZ has long been established as providing excellent care to our patients, in many different areas of healthcare – Acute Care, Long-term Care, Behavioral Health, Retirement, Physician's Services, and many others. We are a major employer and offer competitive salary and benefit packages. In addition, we have opportunities for you to share your skills with others through informal mentoring. We are an equal opportunity employer.

No mentoring, input:

#### NOW HIRING – FLEXIBLE SCHEDULING

XYZ Health System is now hiring for RNs. XYZ has long been established as providing excellent care to our patients, in many different areas of healthcare – Acute Care, Long-term Care, Behavioral Health, Retirement, Physician's Services, and many others. We are a major employer and offer competitive salary, benefit packages, and flexible hours according to your preferences. We are an equal opportunity employer.

No mentoring, no input:

#### NOW HIRING

XYZ Health System is now hiring for RNs. XYZ has long been established as providing excellent care to our patients, in many different areas of healthcare – Acute Care, Long-term Care, Behavioral Health, Retirement, Physician's Services, and many others. We are a major employer and offer competitive salary and benefit packages. We are an equal opportunity employer.

Appendix B

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Gender: \_\_\_ Male \_\_\_ Female

Ethnic Identification:

\_\_\_ Caucasian/White    \_\_\_ African-American/Black    \_\_\_ American Indian  
\_\_\_ Asian                \_\_\_ Hispanic                                \_\_\_ Other

Age: \_\_\_\_\_

Marital Status: \_\_\_ Married \_\_\_ Single \_\_\_ Divorced \_\_\_ Widowed \_\_\_ Other

Number of Dependents: \_\_\_\_\_

Ages of Dependents: \_\_\_\_\_

Appendix C

PROFESSIONAL AND RETIREMENT INFORMATION

Number of Years Licensed as a RN: \_\_\_\_\_

Number of Years working in health care: \_\_\_\_\_

Primary area of Nursing worked in: \_\_\_\_\_

Age at Retirement: \_\_\_\_\_

Years since retired: \_\_\_\_\_

If not yet retired, age you wish to retire at: \_\_\_\_\_

Which area of Nursing worked in at retirement: \_\_\_\_\_

If retired but currently working, which area: \_\_\_\_\_

How many hours a week? \_\_\_\_\_

Are you interested in working after formal retirement? \_\_\_\_\_

In what type of position? \_\_\_\_\_

What is your primary reason for working after retirement?

Social

Financial - didn't save enough

Financial - poor economy

Identify with profession

Identify with organization

N/A

For each of the following options, please use the following scale to rate how appealing each option is to you in a position after formal retirement.

Not at all Appealing	Somewhat Appealing	Moderately Appealing	Very Appealing	Extremely Appealing
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Working as a staff RN

Working as a staff RN with opportunities to informally mentor younger RNs

Working as a formal Mentor to younger RNs

For each of the following options, please use the following scale to rate how appealing each option is to you in a position after formal retirement.

Not at all Appealing	Somewhat Appealing	Moderately Appealing	Very Appealing	Extremely Appealing
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Full-time set schedule

Part-time, 4 hour shifts

Part-time, 8+ (10, 12) hour shifts

PRN – as needed

Part-year

Appendix D

PERCEIVED HEALTH AND FINANCES

Your level of health:

Poor            Fair            Average/Good            Excellent

My pension will be adequate to meet my financial needs after retirement:

Not at all      Somewhat            Moderately            Very            Extremely

I believe that I will be financially comfortable after retirement:

Poor            Fair            Average            Good            Great

## Appendix E

### NURSE STRESS SCALE (NSS)

Below is a list of situations that commonly occur in a work setting. For each situation you have encountered in your PRESENT WORK SETTING, would you indicate how STRESSFUL it has been for you:

Does Not	Never	Occasionally	Frequently	Extremely
Apply	Stressful	Stressful	Stressful	Stressful
0	1	2	3	4

1. Performing procedures that patients experience as painful.
2. Criticism by a physician.
3. Feeling inadequately prepared to help with the emotional needs of a patient's family.
4. Lack of opportunity to talk openly with other personnel about problems in the work setting.
5. Conflict with a supervisor.
6. Breakdown of a computer.
7. Inadequate information from a physician regarding the medical condition of a patient.
8. Patients making unreasonable demands.
9. Being sexually harassed.
10. Feeling helpless in the case of a patient who fails to improve.
11. Conflict with a physician.
12. Being asked a question by a patient for which I do not have a satisfactory answer.
13. Lack of opportunity to share experiences and feelings with other personnel in the work setting.
14. Floating to other units/services that are short-staffed.
15. Unpredictable staffing and scheduling.
16. A physician ordering what appears to be inappropriate treatment for a patient.
17. Patients' families making unreasonable demands.
18. Experiencing discrimination because of race or ethnicity.
19. Listening or talking to a patient about his/her approaching death.
20. Fear of making a mistake in treating a patient.
21. Feeling inadequately prepared to help with the emotional needs of a patient.
22. Lack of an opportunity to express to my other personnel on the unit my negative feelings toward my patients.

23. Difficulty in working with a particular nurse (or nurses) in my immediate work setting.
24. Difficulty in working with a particular nurse (or nurses) outside my immediate work setting.
25. Not enough time to provide emotional support to the patient.
26. A physician not being present in a medical emergency.
27. Being blamed for anything that goes wrong.
28. Experiencing discrimination on the basis of sex.
29. The death of a patient.
30. Disagreement concerning the treatment of a patient.
31. Feeling inadequately trained for what I have to do.
32. Lack of support from my immediate supervisor.
33. Criticism by a supervisor.
34. Not enough time to complete all of my nursing tasks.
35. Not knowing what a patient or a patient's family ought to be told about the patient's condition and its treatment.
36. Being the one that has to deal with patients' families.
37. Having to deal with violent patients.
38. Being exposed health and safety hazards.
39. The death of a patient with whom you developed a close friendship.
40. Making a decision concerning a patient when the physician is unavailable.
41. Being in charge with inadequate experience.
42. Lack of support by nursing administrators.
43. Too many non-nursing tasks required, such as clerical work.
44. Not enough staff to adequately cover the unit.
45. Uncertainty regarding the operation and functioning of specialized equipment.
46. Having to deal with abusive patients.
47. Not enough time to respond to the needs of patients' families.
48. Being held accountable for things over which I have no control.
49. Physician(s) not being present when a patient dies.
50. Having to organize doctors' work.
51. Lack of support from other health care administrators.
52. Difficulty in working with nurses of the opposite sex.
53. Demands of patient classification system.
54. Having to deal with abuse from patients' families.
55. Watching a patient suffer.
56. Criticism by nursing administration.
57. Having to work through breaks.
58. Not knowing whether patients' families will report you for inadequate care.
59. Having to make decisions under pressure.

Appendix F

LOYOLA GENERATIVITY SCALE

Instructions: For each of the following statements, please indicate how often the statement applies to you by marking either a 0, 1, 2, or 3 in the blank provided.

Never Always Applies	Occasionally or Seldom Applies	Fairly Often Applies	Very Often or Nearly Applies
0	1	2	3

- \_\_\_ 1. I try to pass along the knowledge I have gained through my experiences.
- \_\_\_ 2. I do not feel that other people need me.
- \_\_\_ 3. I think I would like the work of a teacher.
- \_\_\_ 4. I feel as though I have made a difference to many people.
- \_\_\_ 5. I do not volunteer to work for a charity.
- \_\_\_ 6. I have made and created things that have had an impact on other people.
- \_\_\_ 7. I try to be creative in most things that I do.
- \_\_\_ 8. I think that I will be remembered for a long time after I die.
- \_\_\_ 9. I believe that society cannot be responsible for providing food and shelter for all homeless people.
- \_\_\_ 10. Others would say that I have made unique contributions to society.
- \_\_\_ 11. If I were unable to have children of my own, I would like to adopt children.
- \_\_\_ 12. I have important skills that I try to teach others.
- \_\_\_ 13. I feel that I have done nothing that will survive after I die.
- \_\_\_ 14. In general, my actions do not have a positive effect on other people.

\_\_\_ 15. I feel as though I have done nothing of worth to contribute to others.

\_\_\_ 16. I have made many commitments to many different kinds of people, groups, and activities in my life.

\_\_\_ 17. Other people say that I am a very productive person.

\_\_\_ 18. I have a responsibility to improve the neighborhood in which I live.

\_\_\_ 19. People come to me for advice.

\_\_\_ 20. I feel as though my contributions will exist after I die.

Appendix G

ORGANIZATIONAL ATTRACTION

**This organization would provide fulfilling work opportunities for me:**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**I think I would enjoy working in a organization like this one:**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**This organization seems to be a good place for older employees to work:**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**Please indicate how much you would like to work for this organization part time after retirement:**

Not at all	Somewhat	Moderately	Very	Extremely
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**Please indicate your interest in accepting a job interview for part time work post-retirement for this organization, if invited:**

Not at all Interested	Somewhat Interested	Moderately Interested	Very Interested	Extremely Interested
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INTENT TO APPLY

**Indicate your interest in pursuing an application with this organization for part time work post-retirement:**

Not at all Interested	Somewhat Interested	Moderately Interested	Very Interested	Extremely Interested
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**Please indicate how likely you would be to accept a job offer for part time work after retirement from this organization:**

Not at all Likely	Somewhat Likely	Moderately Likely	Very Likely	Extremely Likely
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**Indicate the likelihood that you would gather additional information about the organization in order to apply for work:**

Not at all Likely	Somewhat Likely	Moderately Likely	Very Likely	Extremely Likely
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**What is the extent to which you would exert a great deal of effort to work for this organization?**

No Effort	Some Effort	Moderate Effort	Good Effort	Extreme Effort
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Appendix H

**How likely is it that you will return to the field of nursing for full time work after retirement?**

Not at all Likely	Somewhat Likely	Moderately Likely	Very Likely	Extremely Likely
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**How likely is it that you will return to the field of nursing for part time work after retirement?**

Not at all Likely	Somewhat Likely	Moderately Likely	Very Likely	Extremely Likely
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**How interested are you in returning to the field of nursing after retirement?**

Not at all Interested	Somewhat Interested	Moderately Interested	Very Interested	Extremely Interested
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**How interested are you in returning to work in a different occupation?**

Not at all Interested	Somewhat Interested	Moderately Interested	Very Interested	Extremely Interested
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Appendix I

Table G1. *Descriptive Statistics for Non-categorical Predictors and Dependent Variables*

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Possible Range</b>
Generativity	35.33	6.88	11	48	0-60
Stress	101.23	44.49	12	215	0-236
Org Attraction	13.79	3.84	4	20	4-20
App Intentions	15.09	5.61	5	25	5-25

Table G2. *Descriptive data and Intercorrelations Among Variables*

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age	58.16	5.7										
2. YrsRN	34.53	7.13	.69**									
3. YrsHealthcare	33.6	6.9	.56**	.73**								
4. #Dependents	.58	.97	.44**	-.36**	-.3**							
5. Health	4.46	4.2	-.03	.01	-.17	.04						
6. FinComfort	3.45	.84	.04	-.01	-.14	-.16	-.08					
7. OrgAttraction	13.79	3.84	-.25*	-.13	-.08	.15	-.06	-.22*	<b>.88</b>			
8. AppIntentions	15.09	5.61	-.27**	-.25*	-.14	.3**	.05	-.29**	.7**	<b>.95</b>		
9. Generativity	35.33	6.88	-.02	.09	.06	-.06	-.06	.11	.22*	.22	<b>.84</b>	
10. Stress	101.23	44.49	.22*	.12	0	.04	.01	-.16	-.1	-.04	.03	<b>.98</b>

*Note:* \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ . Health and Financial Comfort (FinComfort) scores ranged from 1-5, with 5 being the most positive response. Organizational Attraction (OrgAttraction) scores ranged from 4-20, with 20 being the highest possible (positive) response. Application Intentions (AppIntentions) scores ranged from 5-25, with 25 being the highest possible (positive) response). Generativity was measured by scores on the LGS, ranging from 0-45, with higher scores indicating more generativity. Stress was measured by scores on the NSS, ranging from 0-224, with higher scores indicating higher stress. Reliability estimates (where appropriate) are bolded and italicized.

Table G3. *Main Effects and Interaction Effect of Input and Generativity*

	Organizational Attraction			Application Intentions		
	$\beta$	t	p-value	$\beta$	t	p-value
<b>Input</b>	-.22	-2.28	.03*	-.04	-.41	.69
<b>Generativity</b>	.20	2.09	.04*	.26	2.6	.01*
<b>Input*Generativity</b>	-.01	-.02	.99	.40	.65	.52

\*Significant at .05, \*\*Significant at .01

Table G4. *Main Effects and Interaction Effects of Input and Stress*

	Organizational Attraction			Application Intentions		
	$\beta$	t	p-value	$\beta$	t	p-value
<b>Input</b>	-.21	-2.21	.03*	-.06	-.60	.55
<b>Stress</b>	-.11	-1.05	.30	-.10	-.94	.35
<b>Input*Stress</b>	-.41	-.93	.36	-.164	-.352	.73

\*Significant at .05, \*\*Significant at .01

Table G5. *Main Effects and Interaction Effect of Mentoring and Stress*

	Organizational Attraction			Application Intentions		
	$\beta$	t	p-value	$\beta$	t	p-value
<b>Mentoring</b>	-.09	-.86	.39	-.18	-1.82	.07
<b>Stress</b>	-.10	-1.01	.32	-.12	-1.14	.257
<b>Mentoring*Stress</b>	-.11	-.32	.75	.23	.70	.48

\*Significant at .05, \*\*Significant at .01

Table G6. *Main Effects and Interaction Effect of Generativity and Mentoring*

	Organizational Attraction			Application Intentions		
	$\beta$	t	p-value	$\beta$	t	p-value
<b>Mentoring</b>	-.045	-.48	.64	-.14	-1.37	.18
<b>Generativity</b>	.23	2.2	.03*	.25	2.5	.01**
<b>Mentoring*Generativity</b>	.71	1.14	.26	.25	.38	.70

\*Significant at .05, \*\*Significant at .01

Appendix J

Age and Stress Interaction on Organizational Attraction

