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WORK/FAMILY POLICIES AND PERCEPTIONS OF FAIRNESS:
PERSPECTIVES ON SUPERVISOR SUPPORT AND WORK SCHEDULE CONTROL

A Thesis

Presented to the

Department of Psychology

and the

Faculty of the Graduate College

University of Nebraska

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Masters of Arts

University of Nebraska at Omaha

by

Emily R. Blodgett

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Thesis Acceptance

Acceptance for the faculty of the Graduate College,
University of Nebraska, in partial fulfillment of the
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Abstract

In response to increasing degrees of work and family conflict, some companies have implemented work and family policies. However, evidence suggests that many companies will not implement work and family policies because they believe that some employees will feel that the policies are unfair, although this claim has been made with only minimal empirical evidence. This study examined employees' fairness perceptions of work/family policies. It was hypothesized that employees who might benefit from a work/family policy would feel that the policy was more fair than would employees who would not benefit from such a policy. To test this hypothesis, 849 bank employees responded to hypothetical work/family policies that either parent employees only or all employees could use. A second independent variable was supervisor status. The hypothetical supervisor in the scenario was either supportive or unsupportive of this discretionary policy. The respondent's parental status, a non-manipulated demographic variable, was the final independent variable in this 2 x 2 x 2 factorial design. Respondents rated the fairness of the hypothetical policy. The ANOVA results indicated that parent employees felt the policy that only parent employees could use was more fair than did nonparent employees who were not affected by the policy. Parents felt the policy that covered all employees was more fair than nonparents did; however, nonparents did feel the policy that covered all employees was more fair than the policy that benefited only parents. The supportiveness of the supervisor did not affect fairness perceptions.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

As the number of women in the workforce grows, businesses are attempting to help both men and women to meet their work and family needs. Currently about 40 percent of the workforce are dual-earner couples (Zedek & Mosier, 1990). Many families are experiencing increased stress as they no longer have one parent that stays home to see to child care and domestic responsibilities. Women are predicted to be 66 percent of new entrants to the labor force; 80 percent of these women are expected to have children at some point in time during their work lives (Galinsky & Friedman, 1986 as cited in Hughes & Galinsky, 1988). This suggests that dual earner couples and employees with families in the workforce will increase. What the corporate world can and should do to help families balance their work and family lives has been a question for several decades now. Many companies are beginning to implement work and family or work and life programs and policies to meet these needs.

One particularly interesting question that arises when implementing family-friendly policies is whether or not employees without children think that it is fair that employees with children receive special benefits such as maternity leaves, work at home arrangements, or child care subsidies. Concerns about the fairness of these policies can keep them from being implemented by companies, supported by supervisors, and used by employees (Galinsky, Friedman, & Hernandez, 1991; Glass & Estes, 1997). This study will examine employees' perceptions of fairness of work and family policies. First the incidence of work and family conflict will be reviewed. Next, the literature examining factors associated with work and family conflict will be reviewed. Supervisor support

and perceived control over work schedules will be discussed in detail as these two variables are consistently shown to lessen work and family conflict and are also factors that companies can control. Finally, organizational justice theory will be applied to the perceived fairness of work and family policies.

Work and Family Conflict (WFC): Definition and Incidence

According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), work and family conflict is “a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role” (p. 77). A distinction has been made in the literature between family to work conflict, in which the family life interferes with the work life and work to family conflict in which work interferes with family life (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Although it is good to keep in mind that there are distinctions and some differences in work to family conflict and family to work conflict, for purposes of this study, when the term work and family conflict is used, it will refer to the general incompatibility of the work and family roles.

WFC affects not only families with children, but also married couples who do not have children and those with elder care responsibilities. One of the first studies to examine the extent of work and family conflict was the University of Michigan’s 1977 Quality of Employment Study. Of people who were married and had jobs and children, 38 percent of men and 43 percent of women reported that job and family life conflicted “somewhat” or “a lot” with each other (Pleck, Staines, & Lang, 1980). More recently, in 1996, IBM surveyed its workforce and found that when trying to balance their personal and professional lives, 48 percent of men and 47 percent of women had difficulties

(Moskowitz, 1997). Similarly, a study of Boston University employees by Burden and Googins (1987) found that 36 percent of men and 48 percent of women reported feeling either “extreme stress” or “a lot of stress” in balancing their work and family roles (as cited in Thomas, 1991).

The incidence of work and family conflict one experiences appears to be the greatest when parents have children who have not yet entered primary school. In their study of 285 married couples, Hughes and Galinsky (1988) found that 42 percent of men and 43 percent of women experienced “some” or “a great deal” of work and family conflict. This percentage increased to 68 percent for women with children under the age of five. In an American Express study, 71 percent of 30,000 employees in 30 different companies reported that they “experienced stress from family-work conflicts—especially child care” (Levine, 1989). Similarly, in a Work and Family Resource study, 70 percent of fathers and 63 percent of mothers under the age of 35 reported that they were seriously concerned about the difficulties they were experiencing in balancing work and family roles (Trost, 1988).

While the number of and degree to which people experience work and family conflict vary from study to study, generally 30 to 40 percent of the workforce will indicate that work and family life interfere with each other some or a lot (Hughes & Galinsky, 1988). Given current demographic trends and the present level of work and family conflict, work and family conflict is an issue that is not likely to be resolved any time soon. People experience different levels of WFC because of the different factors associated with WFC, which will be discussed next.

Factors Associated with Work and Family Conflict

Theoretical framework. A variety of work, family, and individual personality variables have been associated with WFC. Generally, the effect that these variables have on one's experience of WFC can be classified into one of three categories outlined by Greenhaus and Beutell in their 1985 article, which reviewed the WFC literature up to that point. The three categories are time-, strain-, and behavior-based conflict. Time-based conflict is defined as "time spent on activities within one role generally cannot be devoted to activities within another role" (p. 77). This time conflict may result in making it physically impossible to perform in a second role (i.e., one can't be at home with a sick child and at the work site at the same time) as well as being preoccupied while trying to perform the other role (Barolome & Evans, 1979). Physical time-based conflict and preoccupation time-based conflict will both be referred to in this paper. Strain-based conflict occurs when strain caused by one role results in difficulty in meeting all of the demands of another role. Strain in one role can lead to "spillover" of negative emotions from one role into another role (Bartolome & Evans, 1980). Behavior-based conflict occurs when behaviors that are appropriate for one role, such as a drill sergeant being tough and assertive with his troops, is incompatible with behavior in another role, such as the drill sergeant caring for his two-year old. Behavior-based conflict has only been referred to anecdotally and there have been no studies that have tested behavior-based conflict empirically (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Due to the lack of empirical validation of behavior-based conflict, for purposes of this examination, we will focus on time- and strain-based conflict only.

Many variables associated with WFC will affect a person through time- and strain-based conflict. For instance, lack of supervisor support is associated with WFC (Galinsky, 1994). An unsupportive supervisor may not allow an employee to go home to take care of a sick child, which increases time-based conflict because the person physically can't be both at home taking care of the child and at work at the same time. In addition to causing physical time-based conflict, the same unsupportive behavior by the supervisor may cause the second type of time-based conflict (preoccupation time-based conflict) as the employee may be preoccupied with worries of the sick child and may be somewhat distracted from job responsibilities. The emotional strain and anxiety the parent feels because of not being able to care for the sick child is an example of strain-based conflict. As this example shows, one action can cause physical time-, preoccupation time- and strain-based conflict.

Work, family, individual, and government factors. Specific factors that cause time- and strain-based conflict can be grouped into work factors and family factors (Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997). Work factors that are associated with increased levels of WFC include the number of hours worked (Keith & Schafer, 1980; Pleck et al., 1980), inflexibility and lack of control over work schedules (Pleck et al., 1980; Thomas & Ganster, 1991), unsupportive supervisors, unsupportive co-workers, a non-family friendly organizational climate, conflict within the work role (Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly, 1983), and the degree of physical and psychological work demands of the job (Pleck et al., 1980).

Family variables that are associated with WFC include the supportiveness of the spouse, the age of children, number of children, and the quality of child care (Steinberg &

Gottlieb, 1994). Young children tend to take more time and attention than do older children (Pleck et al., 1980), thus leading to time-based conflict. Similarly, large versus small families take more time and lead to greater time-based conflict (Keith & Schafer, 1980).

Although the literature has not given much attention to how individual personality variables could affect the experience of work and family conflict, some interesting results have been found. Type A personalities tend to experience more WFC than Type B personalities (Burke, Weir, & Duwors, 1980). This could be due to Type A personalities' tendency to work the longest hours and travel the most extensively (Howard, Cunningham, & Rechnitzer, 1977), thus increasing the time-based conflict and possibly increasing strain-based conflict. There has also been one study (Durnin, 1996) that has found that those with high need for achievement as well as those with a high need for affiliation experience greater degrees of WFC. Those with high need for affiliation may desire to spend more time with their families or feel guilty for not being able to spend time with people who are important to them. Additional proposed sources of WFC include role salience (the more important or salient both the work and family roles are, the greater the WFC), negative sanctions for noncompliance with role demands (the greater the sanctions, the greater the WFC), and the stage of a person's career (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

One possible distal cause of WFC is the lack of an adequate national family policy. This stems partially from an ideological difference between the U.S. and countries such as those in Europe that have more adequate national family policies. Unlike many European countries where children are seen as a joint responsibility of the

state and the individual family, in the United States, children are viewed largely as the responsibility of the individual family. This ideology of the individual versus the individual *and* the state being responsible for the welfare of children impedes the U.S. government from proposing more adequate legislation dealing with families. As this ideology limits the government's involvement with families, it also limits the direction the government gives to companies for assisting families. For example, many European nations give four to five months off for maternity leave as compared to six weeks in the U.S. (Thompson, Thomas, & Maier, 1992). Regarding child care programs specifically, the U.S. is the only industrialized nation that lacks a national policy (Levine, 1989). Rather than implementing work and family programs as a response to government policy and to fulfill a social responsibility, organizations are more likely to implement work and family policies as a competitive tool to recruit and keep employees (Auerbach, 1990). This would suggest that policy implementation is varied at best and that many organizations may not implement work/family policies unless they are forced to in order to stay competitive.

WFC may cause people to feel "guilt over the possibility of neglecting a child, sadness at the prospect of giving up a valued career, fear of losing a needed income, and ultimately, frustration at their inability to reach a firm decision about how best to accommodate both roles," (Tipping, 1997, p. 262). A desire to reduce these negative feelings drives researchers to look for ways to reduce WFC, which is our next topic.

Reducing WFC

Family supportive policies have been implemented in order to reduce WFC. An entire review of the incidence and types of work and family policies is beyond the scope

of this paper. Understanding the effects of work and family policies is difficult at best because each company may offer different benefits as part of their work and family policy. There is a lack of sound information about which plans are most effective in lessening WFC and economically efficient to implement (Glass & Estes, 1997). Fallon (1997) points out that “there is very little systematic research evidence to substantiate the claims in the literature suggesting that a family-friendly atmosphere can help reduce the stress that workers experience from work-family conflicts” (p. 6). Due to the difficulty of measuring work and family policies as a whole, researchers will often look at one aspect of a policy, such as leave time, on-site day care, or flextime, and evaluate it. Knowing the aggregate effects of all the benefits of a work and family policy would be beneficial, but are not available at this time.

Work family policies can generally be broken down into three categories. The first is dependent care services which includes information about locating and obtaining elder or child care, having on-site child care facilities, paying child subsidies, and granting the traditional six-week maternity leave. The second category, control over work schedules, includes the reduction of actual work hours which would be the case with job sharing, phase-back for new parents, and reduced-work options. This second category would also include scheduling options that do not include a reduction of work hours such as telecommuting, compressed work weeks, flextime and work at home arrangements. The final category, creating a family-friendly culture, would include supervisor sensitivity training to work and family issues and treating work-life issues as part of the company’s strategic business plan.

In the research literature, control over schedules and supervisor support appear to have a larger effect on lessening WFC than do dependent care services, where results have been more mixed. In Thomas and Ganster's (1995) study of over 400 health care professionals, information and referral services failed to show any direct or indirect effects on lessening WFC. Due to the effects that supervisor support and control over work schedules have on lessening WFC, I will discuss them in detail.

Supervisor support. Supervisor support has been consistently associated with a reduction in WFC. An employee perceives a supportive supervisor as one who is supportive of the employee while the employee is in the work role "as well as flexible and understanding about the employee's family responsibility" (Hughes & Galinsky, 1988, p. 245). Galinsky (1988b) delineated supervisory support for work/family as "when supervisors (a) feel that handling family issues, especially as they affect the job performance, is a legitimate part of the role, (b) are knowledgeable about company policies that apply to family issues, (c) are flexible when work/family problems arise, and (d) handle employees' work/family problems fairly and without favoritism" (as cited in Galinsky & Stein, 1990, p. 372).

Many researchers believe that supervisor support is one of the most important predictors of work and family conflict (Galinsky, 1994). Supervisors appear to affect the incidence of work and family conflict that employees experience in three ways. First, unsupportive supervisors can counteract formal work-family policies (Raabe, 1990; Thompson, Thomas, & Maier, 1992). Second, lack of supervisor support is related to employee stress, and in turn, strain-based conflict. Third, unsupportive supervisors can also affect employees' perceptions of how able they are to balance with work and family

conflict (Galinsky & Stein, 1990, p. 372). Although supervisors' effects on employee perceptions of balancing WFC has received little attention in the literature, the relation between unsupportive supervisors and the effectiveness of work family policies is well established.

Some researchers believe that supervisory support is as important or possibly more important than the mere availability of policies in reducing the amount of WFC that employees experience and increasing a company's profitability (Galinsky, 1994; Raabe, 1990). Research has found that negative supervisors and organizational cultures can counteract formal policy use (Geiger, 1989; Kamerman & Kahn, 1987; Raabe & Gessner, 1988). Although a company may have a formal program, it is up to the supervisor's discretion whether or not the employee can use the program (Hughes & Galinsky, 1988; Raabe & Gessner, 1988). In fact, some supervisors actively discourage use of family supportive initiatives such as paid personal days (Raabe & Gessner, 1988).

Supervisory support lessens stress and the lack of support tends to increase stress. In Hughes and Galinsky's (1988) study, employees with supportive supervisors reported less stress and male employees reported fewer stress-related health problems. In another study that examined supervisor support and stress, the National Council of Jewish Women (1988) surveyed 2,000 employed women regarding working conditions before and after their pregnancies. They found that in regard to buffering them from stress, having a supportive supervisor was almost equal to having a supportive spouse (Galinsky & Stein, 1990). In a study of Johnson & Johnson, both male and female employees experienced less stress, felt that family and personal matters interfered with each other less, felt more successful in balancing work and family roles, and experienced less work

to family spillover when they rated their supervisors as more supportive, fair, and helpful when they have work-family problems (Galinsky, 1994). Hughes, Galinsky, and Morris (1992) did a study of over 500 Merck & Company employees. They found that employees with demanding jobs and low supervisor support for balancing work and family life reported negative emotional job to family spillover and had little energy left for their families which in turn was associated with greater tension in their marriages. Negative outcomes such as these may be the reason that employees in a nationally representative study of dual career couples with children chose training supervisors to be more accommodating of work and family needs as a change that would improve the quality of their family life while maintaining productivity (Galinsky & Hughes, 1987 as cited in Galinsky & Stein, 1990). Supervisor training was second only to merit raises.

Perceived control over work schedules. Schedule incompatibility (Staines & Pleck, 1983) describes how the schedule of time to be on the job is often incompatible with the needs of other family member's schedules. Reports of work and family interference were positively correlated with work inflexibility, which is defined as the degree of autonomy of the timing and structure of job tasks (Pleck et al., 1980). This is not surprising considering that job satisfaction tends to increase with the increased control over tasks and timing of jobs (Mason & Espinoza, 1983). Increased job satisfaction is just one of the many positive outcomes that occur as employees gain greater control over their work schedules. When an employee perceives a high level of flexibility in their work schedule, somatic health complaints decrease significantly, and because of decreases in WFC, attitudes as well as mental and physical health outcomes improve (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Galinsky (1994) found that although employees

state that greater schedule flexibility would help ease WFC, only 29 percent of employees in two of her studies were able to set their own arrival and departure times.

Additionally, flextime is far more commonly offered in businesses than are more novel work arrangements such as compressed work weeks, work at home arrangements, and job sharing (Hayghe, 1988).

Employees' control over schedules or lack of control can affect retention and production as well. Deloitte & Touche, the nation's fifth largest accounting, tax, and management-consulting firm, found in a 1996 survey of their professional employees that 81 percent said they had planned to leave the company if they had not had an opportunity to work a flexible schedule (Moskowitz, 1997). When Xerox Corporation let workers set their own work schedules, not only did sales increase and customer satisfaction improve, but absenteeism dropped by 30 percent (Moskowitz, 1997). Galinsky, Bond, and Friedman (1993) found that "employees with more autonomy in their jobs and more social support from supervisors, co-workers, and the workplace culture are more successful in balancing work with family and personal life, experience less work-family conflict and negative job-to-home spillover, are less stressed and are coping more effectively than other workers" (as cited in Galinsky, 1994, p. 129).

Traditional views of time and their effects on work schedules. In spite of the positive outcomes that are associated with giving employees more control over their work schedules, work schedule control by the majority of employees has not occurred due to the deep seated beliefs about time and commitment that are present in the business culture. There is a relationship between climbing the corporate ladder and time spent working during the work week. Showing commitment to the company is, in most cases,

a requirement one must meet in order to get promoted (Kanter, 1977). Commitment requires a person to appear to be single-minded about the job and the willingness to make personal sacrifices for the good of the team (Bartalome & Evans, 1980). Willingness to sacrifice is, in turn, shown by working overtime and by yielding to organizational demands without question (Bailyn, 1993). Presence, number of physical hours one spends at work, is thought to equal productivity and commitment, even though this is not necessarily the case (Galinsky, 1994; McColl, 1990).

In the past, when the majority of women stayed home and took care of the family responsibilities, it was possible for husbands to show commitment through extended work time and yielding to organizational demands. Today, even though only 11 percent of families have the traditional pattern of husband providing for a wife and children who are at home, corporate America still holds onto the notion that commitment should be shown through extended work hours as if the employee has no outside commitments (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Family needs will not be accommodated until there is a change in the corporate belief that the only way to get ahead is to sacrifice personal needs for those of the company (Galinsky, 1994).

The idea that time is a sufficient indicator of commitment and productivity is inaccurate for several reasons. First, it is not clear that employees who work longer actually accomplish more; they may create work to do and there actually may be little added value (Bailyn, 1993; Bartalome & Evans, 1980). Working smart, not necessarily working excessive hours, equals productivity (Galinsky, 1994; Harris & Trotter, 1989). People are beginning to advocate focusing on and accomplishing the task as opposed to focusing on working a set amount of hours at a set location (Bailyn, 1993; Galinsky,

1994). In spite of attempts to change the corporate cultural notions of time and commitment, there are still concerns with granting employees control over their work schedules.

Granting employees control over work schedules. One concern that employers may have is that when they give employees more autonomy and control, employees will want to work fewer hours and will be less productive. However, Rogers (1992) found that “the work/family policy most consistently highly rated and desired by workers was full-time flexible scheduling; most employees with family responsibilities said they did not want to, or could not afford to, work less” (as cited in Glass & Estes, 1997, p. 294). Similarly, a Families and Work Institute study of maternity leave found that the large majority of women cannot afford to take long unpaid leaves and that of low-income women, one in five returned to work before their six weeks of maternity leave was up (Bond, Galinsky, Lord, Staines, & Brown, 1991 as cited in Galinsky, 1994).

Instead of working less, what employees appear to want is control over when and where they work. There are several types of alternative schedules that allow employees to have greater control over when and where they work. Flextime refers to working around core business hours of 10:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m. For purposes of this study, the term alternative schedule will be used to describe all types of flexible work arrangements including working at home, job sharing, flextime, compressed workweeks, reduced-work options, and phase-backs for new parents. Job sharing occurs when two workers share the work hours, pay and benefits of one job. Employees use a compressed work schedule when they work 40 hours in less than five days. Reduced-work options give the employee the flexibility to cut down to three-quarters or half-time work schedules for a

specified period of time. Phasing back means that a new parent returns to work gradually after having a child. As we shall see in a later section, many employees will not use alternative schedules even when they are available due to fears of negative repercussions dealing with perceptions of fairness.

Organizational Justice

Definition and effects on behavior. Organizational justice is defined as “people’s perceptions of fairness in organizational settings” (Greenberg, 1996, p. vii).

Organizational justice stems from Adams’s (1963, 1965) equity theory. Greenberg (1990) notes that equity theory

claims that people compare the ratios of their own perceived work outcomes (i.e., rewards) to their own perceived work inputs (i.e., contributions) to the corresponding ratios of a comparison other (e.g., a co-worker). If the ratios are unequal, the party whose ratio is higher is theorized to be inequitably overpaid (and to feel guilty) whereas the party whose ratio is lower is theorized to be inequitably underpaid (and to feel angry). Equal ratios are postulated to yield equitable states and associated feelings of satisfaction. (p. 400)

Leventhal (1976, 1980) proposed the justice judgment model, which is concerned not with how people react to inequities, rather, what things people proactively do to work toward justice norms (as cited in Greenberg, 1990). “Together, Adams’s reactive approach and Leventhal’s proactive approach are commonly referred to as conceptualizations of distributive justice . . . because both focus on the fairness of outcome distributions” (Greenberg, 1990, p. 402).

A variety of behaviors have been associated with people's perceptions of justice. Workers who are over- or underpaid will try to restore equity by changing their level of effort and overall productivity (Greenberg, 1988, 1996). Willingness to accept third-party decisions and willingness to help the group are two positive behaviors associated with judgments of justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988). The willingness of a group to rebel or protest and individuals to steal or sabotage has been associated with injustice (Tyler & Smith, 1998). Schmitt and Marwell (1972) found that even if employees would experience a reduction in pay, they would be willing to leave a company that distributes wages inequitably to join an organization that distributes wages more fairly. It is clear that perceptions of distributive justice are linked to employee behavior, which is in turn linked to a company's bottom line.

“As studied by psychologists, equity is a psychological assessment that people make about their rewards and contributions relative to those of others. Hence, equity is in the eye of the beholder” (Tyler & Smith, 1998, p. 599). Perceptions of distributive justice can be subjective and difficult to predict. Because the subjective perceptions of injustice can have serious negative consequences for a company's bottom line, it is important for companies to understand these perceptions. In an attempt to avoid the aforementioned negative repercussions of injustice, I will examine distributive justice in terms of work and family policies in organizations.

Previous research on justice and work/family issues in organizations. To the author's knowledge, there has been little research examining justice concepts that are applied to work and family policies and procedures. Researchers want to determine to what degree employees without children experience injustice when employees with

children receive benefits to accommodate their family needs. An employer's belief that injustice will occur if parent employees receive special benefits, although it may or may not be accurate, still affects the incidence of work and family policy implementation.

Auerbach (1990) noted anecdotally that one barrier to establishing company child-care programs is that "both employers and employees are concerned that their organization not provide a service that favors some people and not others" (p. 393). When 188 companies were asked to cite obstacles to work and family initiatives, concern about equity issues was the number one or number two concern of 41% of the companies (Galinsky, Friedman, & Hernandez, 1991).

Although extending benefits to those who have children may cause others to feel they have been treated unfairly, to the author's knowledge this issue has been tested empirically in the literature by only one study. Galinsky, Bond, and Friedman (1996) used a nationally representative sample of 2,958 salaried and hourly wage workers to examine many issues relating to work/family policies. Resentment of work/family policies was one of the issues they examined. Parents were defined as those employees with children under the age of 18 and the rest of the employees who did not fit this description were considered nonparents. Surprisingly, nonparents were no more resentful than parents when asked how resentful they would be if their company were to offer work/family policies that would not directly benefit them. Although not speculated by Galinsky et al. (1996), the similarity between parent and nonparent groups may be partially accounted for by those in the nonparent group who have had children and wish they would have had a policy such as this when their children were younger. When combining parent and nonparent groups, however, nearly a third (31%) said that they

agreed somewhat with the statement that they would be resentful of a specific group getting benefits that were not available to all employees and 6% agreed strongly that they would be resentful. This 37% of the employees may prefer that benefits be distributed according to performance or equally rather than being based on employee needs. Taken together, these two results suggest that employees do have concerns about equity but that these concerns are not necessarily between those who do and do not benefit from a policy. It is possible that these results are due to individual differences in participants' need for justice.

Galinsky et al. (1996) also asked employees if they would be resentful of doing extra work due to a co-worker attending to a family or personal matter. Again, there were no significant differences between parents and non-parents when responding to this question, however, of all employees, 2% strongly agreed that they would be resentful and 13% agreed somewhat. Note that this question suggests only the occasional occurrence of need for help in a specific problem or emergency situation rather than acknowledging the day to day flexibility employees need to manage their work and personal lives. Had the question asked about how employees felt about a co-worker using an alternative work-schedule on a day to day basis, one can speculate that the resentment due to picking up some of the co-workers' workload may have been greater.

Galinsky et al. (1996) also analyzed demographic factors to examine patterns of feelings of injustice. They found that employees who were White, had a higher education level, and were managerial or professional employees were less likely to be resentful of both work/family policies that did not directly benefit them as well as extra work due to a co-worker who had a personal problem to attend to. Those with higher incomes also

were less likely to be resentful of benefits that do not benefit them directly. Galinsky et al. attributed these feelings of resentment to social class, however other interpretations may be just as likely. Those in management or professional occupations and those with higher incomes may be more satisfied with their benefits and may not object to others gaining benefits because it does not affect them a great deal. Managerial and professional employees and those with higher incomes may be less resentful of work/family policies because they may be more likely to influence what the policy encompasses, therefore being better able to look out for their own interests.

Resource distribution preferences. Feelings of resentment about policies may be related to people's preferences for distributing resources. According to Leventhal, Karuza, and Fry (1980), people have three general preferences in distributing resources: performance, equality, and need preferences. Typically, the business culture has distributed resources according to level of performance. Performance distributions facilitate productivity as high performers get the resources they need to continue to perform at a high level and poor performers may join a different organization that better suits their skills. Equal distributions are given in order to maintain group harmony and minimize feelings of deprivation relative to others. Needs distribution is the type of distribution that is most related to work and family policies because resources are distributed due to a specific need. Needs distribution helps improve the well-being of individuals and may be favored when meeting individual needs are necessary for the success of the group. In a study of 233 public and private sector employees, MacFarlane (1991) found that need-based considerations such as employed parents' needs, equal opportunity for women, and social responsibility were endorsed to a greater degree than

were concern for equity and profit maximization. Profit maximization would suggest a performance-based distribution of resources.

Distributing the benefits of a work-family policy according to needs is especially difficult because, as Glass and Estes (1997) noted in “The Family Responsive Workplace,” every family has different needs. Those with infants need child leave and infant care. Those with preschoolers need high-quality affordable child care and reduced work hours. Those with school-aged children need after-school, vacation, and summer-care. Those with teens and elder care responsibilities need flexible schedules to handle emergency situations. The diversity of needs contributes to the difficulty of designing and implementing policies fairly.

The different types of needs that families have are not the only challenge to implementing work/family policies. The preference for needs-based distribution may be weakened by four factors outlined by Leventhal et al. (1980). First, if there is a scarcity of resources, people may try to overlook or suppress the needs in question. As businesses struggle to survive in a competitive environment, benefits in work and family policies may be considered scarce resources. Second, some employers may be afraid that once they grant resources due to need, this action may commit the employer to make need-based distributions to the same person later on.

Third, Leventhal et al. (1980) note that the less the concern or responsibility a resource distributor feels for the person with unmet needs, the less likely resources will be distributed according to need. Another difficulty with the designing and implementing of work and family policy is that those who are in positions to design policies are least likely to need work and family policies for themselves, perceive the need for them, or

empathize with those who do have a need for them. People who are able to be exclusively focused on and committed to work due to lack of marriage, family, or other outside commitments are most likely to be promoted because they can dedicate their life to the job. However, these same people who are most likely to be promoted may be least likely to be sympathetic to work and family needs because they have the least amount of personal experience with the competing demands of work and family roles (Bailyn, 1993).

Some employees may believe that if they made a sacrifice for work that others should have to make sacrifices as well. For example, a supervisor may feel that she gave up a family for her career, so others should do the same if they expect similar career progression. This line of thinking is related to Leventhal et al.'s (1980) fourth factor that weakens the need-based preference: people may be less willing to distribute resources based on needs if they feel that the person in need could have by their own power avoided the need situation. In this case, the unsupportive supervisor may believe that having a family is a situation that one has the "power to avoid" if he or she so chooses.

As noted previously, supervisor support and perceived control over work schedules lessen work and family conflict. Concerns about appearing fair may impede supervisors from supporting the use of alternative schedules if the use of these schedules by some may cause feelings of unequal treatment for others. It is for this reason that we examine parent employees' perceived fairness of work and family policies.

Parent employees' perceptions of fairness and usage of work and family policies.

Even when work and family policies are available, taking advantage of them can jeopardize one's career. According to the Employee Benefit Research Institute (1992),

although alternative schedules such as home-based employment and job sharing help parents to better manage work and family obligations, they also mean lower wages, fewer benefits, and less opportunity for advancement (as cited in Galinsky, 1994). Similarly, Glass and Estes (1997) noted that “Qualitative evidence has repeatedly revealed that employees will not take advantage of family responsive policies, particularly leave, work reduction, and work schedule policies, if they feel that doing so will jeopardize their job security, work assignments, or promotional possibilities” (p. 301). As one example of such evidence, in 1990 Johnson and Johnson found that 44 percent of employees felt that taking advantage of time/leave policies would jeopardize their careers (as cited in Galinsky, 1994).

However, employees at every company don't feel they will lose their competitive edge by taking advantage of work and family policies. Plante & Moran, LLP, the largest Michigan-based accounting and management consulting firm, was one of Working Mother Magazine's 100 best companies for working mothers (Moskowitz, 1997). Sixty-nine percent of Plante & Moran's employees reported that they didn't feel that their careers would be in danger if they put family needs ahead of jobs demands (Moskowitz, 1997). Forty seven percent responded “always” and 52 percent responded “most of the time” when asked if their supervisor supported personal/family demands (Moskowitz, 1997). Unfortunately, responses such as these appear to be the exception, not the rule.

Summary

Work and family conflict affects many people now and given the increasing numbers of women who will enter the workforce, will most likely continue to do so in the future. WFC is a type of interrole conflict in which demands of one role make it difficult

to complete demands of the other role. There are several distributive justice issues surrounding work/family policies, their use by employees, and the support they typically get from supervisors. As alluded to earlier, many companies are not implementing work/family policies because of concerns with equity. A work and family policy may benefit those who have children living at home and not employees who have no children or whose children are grown (Levine, 1989). It was also noted anecdotally that people who do not benefit from work/family policies would feel that the policies are unfair, however, this claim has only minimal empirical examination.

To test whether or not non-benefiting employees will perceive work and family policies as unfair, hypothetical policies that vary in personal relevance were written. These policies reflected two of the four organizational stages of work/family policy implementation as delineated in Galinsky, Friedman, and Hernandez's (1991) Corporate Reference Guide to Work-Family Programs. This guide was devised from the authors' years of experience conducting research studies on organizational work/family issues at the Families and Work Institute as well as their examination of 188 companies' work/family policies for the specific purpose of creating the reference guide. These are stages that the authors have found that companies typically go through in the process of establishing work/family policies.

Corporate work/family policy stages. A Pre-Stage One company has little awareness of work-family issues, therefore, for the most part is inactive regarding work/family policies. A Pre-Stage One company may offer maternity leave and no other work-family benefits. Pre-Stage One organizations comprised 33% of companies examined in Galinsky et al.'s (1991) reference guide. As compared to a *Pre-Stage One*

organization, a Stage One organization is aware that there is a need for some type of child care policy in order to eliminate losses in productivity due to child care concerns. A Stage One organization will offer things such as flextime and child and/or dependent care referral services. Stage One organizations comprised 46% of organizations in this study. Equity issues are especially salient in Stage One as opponents claim that child care is a women's issue, and that even if it helped both males and females, families with young children are a small part of the workforce. A Stage One organization sees the need for child care policy as a women's issue as opposed to a work and family policy issue that affects both men and women.

A Stage Two organization moves beyond a Stage One organization by considering work/family a legitimate organizational issue and is concerned with work/family as an employee recruitment and retention issue. Stage Two organizations offer parents alternative work schedules such as work-at-home, reduced work weeks, and compressed work weeks as well as often giving managers guidelines and training in dealing with work/family issues. Stage Two organizations comprised 19% of companies in Galinsky et al.'s (1991) reference guide.

Finally, a Stage Three organization will broaden work/family concerns to work/life concerns and try to change the company culture by recognizing that what happens to all employees off the job may be critical to life on the job. Stage Three organizations will alter the culture to acknowledge that both parent and non-parent employees do have concerns outside of work. These companies make work/life issues a part of their strategic business plan and attempt to give "life" benefits to non-parent

employees by allowing them more schedule flexibility as well. Stage Three organizations comprised 2% of the companies in Galinsky et al.'s (1991) reference guide.

Summarizing the stages, 33% of the companies (Pre-Stage One) were not addressing work/family issues and another 46% (Stage One) were only starting to. One in five companies were making progress by having a work/family policy. Although only 2% of companies in Galinsky et al.'s (1991) reference guide have work/life policies, most advocates of work/family issues suggest that work/life policies should be the ultimate goal for employers. Studying work/life policies, which address all employees' needs, not just parent employees' needs, is on the cutting edge of policy research and development. This study examined whether or not work/life policies would be more readily accepted than work/family policies. Theoretically, work/life policies should be perceived as more fair than work/family policies because resources would be available to all employees instead of one particular group.

Preview of research design. To test the validity of the anecdotal claim that people who do not benefit from work/family policies would feel that the policies are unfair and to examine the acceptance of work/life policies, two hypothetical policies that parallel Galinsky et al.'s (1991) second and third stages were written. Both hypothetical policies allowed employees a high degree of control over work schedules including the option to use reduced work-week, compressed work-week, or work-at-home options.

There were several reasons to design a study that included Stage Two and Stage Three policies instead of Pre-Stage One and Stage One policies. It had already been established that a high degree of schedule control lessens WFC and that companies were granting more and more schedule autonomy to their employees. Examining Stage Two

and Stage Three policies allowed an examination of where companies were going and not where they had been in regard to work and family policies.

The first manipulated independent variable was who the policy would target or benefit, those with children twelve years of age and younger or all employees. For purposes of this study, the hypothetical Stage Two policy, entitled Parents of Young Children Policy, covered only parents with children twelve years of age and younger by giving them a high degree of control over their work schedules. The hypothetical Stage Three policy, entitled the Work/Life Balance Policy, allowed for a high degree of control over work schedules to all employees, regardless of whether or not they currently have children twelve years of age or younger.

The second, non-manipulated, independent variable was respondent status. Questionnaire respondents were divided into two groups: (1) those who had a child twelve years of age or younger whom were covered by both policies and (2) those employees who had no children or had a child thirteen years of age or older, whom were only covered by the Work/Life Balance policy. The third manipulated independent variable was supervisor support of the policy. The hypothetical supervisor was either supportive or unsupportive of the policy.

This study improved upon the past study by Galinsky et al. (1996) that examined resentment of work/family policies. Their study examined only Stage Two policies and did not allow for a comparison between Stage Two policies that benefit only parents and Stage Three policies that benefit all employees. Their study consisted of questionnaire responses with no manipulated variables, which the present study has. The present study also examined whether or not a supervisor's support of the policy would affect the

policy's perceived fairness. Supervisor supportiveness is an important variable to study because without a supportive supervisor employees may not feel comfortable using policies even when they are available and because research has found that supervisor support lessens WFC.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 predicted a two-way interaction for respondent status and policy target. When judging the Parents of Young Children policy, the nonparents and parents with older children respondent group were expected to judge this policy as less fair than respondents with young children would; however, no difference was expected between the two respondent groups in the perceived fairness of the Work/Life Balance policy. Galinsky et al. (1996) did not find differences between parents and nonparents when they asked employees if they would be resentful of a policy that did not benefit them. The present author, however, expected different results because policies in the present study allowed for greater flexibility in schedules (i.e., a larger benefit that more employees would want) whereas in Galinsky et al.'s study flexibility was allowed only for emergency family situations (smaller benefit that primarily only parent employees would want).

If Hypothesis 1 were correct, it would suggest that although a Stage Two policy would have positive effects on the well-being and productivity of parent employees, a Stage Two policy might also have negative effects such as a decrease in morale or team spirit on non-benefiting employees. Alternatively, the Stage Two policy may have been viewed as fair by all employees because those whose children are grown may have been empathetic and wished they had had such a policy available to them when their children

were younger. Similarly, those without children may have felt that the Stage Two policy was fair because they wanted family-friendly policies to be available to them if they ever had children. If Hypothesis 1 were correct, it would suggest that employees would perceive a Stage Three policy that benefits all employees to be more fair than a Stage Two policy that benefits only a certain group of people.

Hypothesis 2 qualifies Hypothesis 1 by predicting a three-way interaction. For respondents with children twelve years of age and younger, policies supported by the supervisor were predicted to be perceived as more fair than those without supervisor support. For nonparents and parents with older children, when judging policies that benefit all employees, the policy that was supported by the supervisor was predicted to be perceived as more fair than the policy without supervisor support. However, when nonparents and parents with older children judge policies that benefited only parents with young children, those without supervisor support were expected to be perceived as more fair. For the nonparents or parents with older children, they may have felt that it was unfair that they didn't benefit from a work and family policy and resented the possibility of picking up part of their co-workers workload. They may have also resented the fact that co-workers were not around when they were needed. However, if the supervisor did not support the policy and would not allow co-workers to actually use it, the policy would be no threat to them and would probably be perceived as more fair than if it was supported by the supervisor and was therefore used frequently by co-workers.

Other demographic information including gender, age, and number of children was also collected and analyzed to examine other possible relationships between the variables.

Chapter 2

Method

Participants

The study population consisted of employees of a banking establishment that had offices throughout 10 states, most of which were in the Midwest. The bank had approximately 3,500 employees. Because it would have been logistically difficult and unnecessary to survey all 3,500 employees, the bank proposed a criterion to determine who the surveys would be sent to. Bank employees were easily categorized into exempt and non-exempt employees. Exempt employees earned a salary while non-exempt employees were paid on an hourly basis. The bank believed that, even though the non-exempt employees would have understood that the survey was a university research study, the non-exempt employees would have been more likely to expect the bank to take some action based upon the survey results and then be displeased when the bank did not take such action. The bank also felt that non-exempt employees would have been least likely to be able to use policies such as the ones described in the survey because of the need for those non-exempt employees to be physically present at the work location. Because of these employee relation concerns, the bank requested that the survey be sent to exempt employees who worked either at a main bank location or at a branch office. Participation by these exempt employees was voluntary.

Thirteen-hundred surveys were sent out to exempt employees and 849 were returned for a 65.3% response rate. The majority of the respondents, 77.5%, resided in Nebraska, Iowa, Kansas or Colorado. Three respondents did not report their gender. Of the 846 remaining respondents, 40.5% were male and 59.5% were female. See Table 1

Table 1

Age Distribution of Respondents

<u>Age Range</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>Percent</u>
20-29	196	23.1
30-39	270	31.9
40-49	240	28.3
50-59	122	14.4
60+	19	2.3
<u>Total</u>	<u>847</u>	<u>100.0</u>

for the respondents' age distribution. Because the population consisted of salaried, exempt employees, 63% of the respondents supervised other employees. Nine respondents did not report the number of children they had. Of the remaining 840 respondents, 40.1% of the respondents had at least one child 12 years of age or younger living with them and the remaining 59.9% of the respondents did not. See Table 2 for the frequency distribution of number of children per employee. One-third of the survey respondents, 33.5%, had never had children.

Design

This study was a between-subjects 2 x 2 x 2 factorial design. Employees evaluated the fairness of one of four policy-supervisor support combinations. Hypothetical policies varied on policy target (targeted at employees with children 12 years of age and younger or targeted at all employees) as well as supervisor support for the policy (supportive or unsupportive). Respondents were employees with children 12 years of age and younger or employees with no children and parents with children 13 years of age and older.

Independent Variables

There were three independent variables. The first independent variable was policy target. The hypothetical policies targeted either parents with children 12 years of age and younger or all employees. From this point forward, the policy that targeted parents with children 12 years of age and younger will be referred to as the "family" policy while the policy that targeted all employees will be referred to as the "life" policy. The second independent variable was respondent parental status. Respondents were either employees with children 12 years of age or younger or employees with no children

Table 2

Respondents' Number of Children

	0	1	2	3	4+	missing
Parents						
Number	0	89	143	60	24	5
Percent	0	27.7	44.5	18.7	7.5	1.6
Nonparents						
Number	272	64	100	43	26	4
Percent	53.4	12.6	19.7	8.4	5.1	.8

Note. "Parents" is defined as employees with a child 12 years of age or younger whereas "Nonparents" is defined as employees with children 13 years of age or older or no children.

and employees with children 13 years of age or older. From this point forward, respondents with children 12 years of age or younger will be referred to as “parents” whereas respondents with children 13 years of age or older and no children will be referred to as “nonparents” unless indicated otherwise. The third independent variable was supervisor supportiveness. The hypothetical supervisor was either supportive or unsupportive. The scenario states that the supportive supervisor had been known to be sensitive to work/family or work/life issues and would most likely let employees use the policy. The unsupportive supervisor, on the other hand, was described in the scenario as being insensitive to work/family or work/life issues and was not likely to let employees use the policy.

Measures

See the Appendix for a copy of the survey. The first four questions of the survey were averaged to form a fairness scale. The four questions are (1) “How fair would this policy be?” (2) “How acceptable do you find this policy?” (3) “How supportive would you be of this policy if your company actually implemented it?” and (4) “Do you think implementing this policy would be the right thing for a company to do?” Responses were measured on 7-point scales. The reliability of this four-item scale was .94. See Table 3 for correlations of the four scale questions. In question five, respondents were given space to make comments about their responses to the first four questions.

Next, six questions related to work/family policies were asked. First, respondents answered the question “Would you use this policy?” on a 7-point scale from “very unlikely” to “very likely.” “Why or why not?” was then asked as an open-ended follow-

Table 3

Correlations of Four Items Comprising the Fairness Scale

	Fair	Accept	Supportive	Right
Fair	1.00			
Accept	.85	1.00		
Supportive	.73	.84	1.00	
Right	.76	.84	.82	1.00

N=840

up question. This question was asked to enable the researcher to explore which employees under which circumstances would be most likely to use such a policy. Similarly, the participants were asked how much impact the policy would have had on their life, which was on a 7-point scale from “no impact” to “very large impact.” This question was also followed by an open-ended “why?”. Finally, the participants were asked which part of the policy was most appealing to them: working fewer hours, having a full-time flexible schedule or neither. This question was also followed by an open-ended “why?” question.

The following three questions were manipulation check questions. The first asked whether or not the policy would be applicable to the respondent. This question was included to determine if the respondent understood if he or she was in the target group. The second asked whether the new supervisor was supportive or unsupportive of the policy. The manipulation check stated that an employee could use the policy only if his or her supervisor approved it and asked the respondent to circle “True” or “False.”

The survey also included six demographic items. The first three included the participant’s sex, age category (e.g., 20-29, 30-39), and number of children the respondent had. An additional demographic question was asked to determine the respondent’s parental status, which was a non-manipulated independent variable. Respondents were asked to circle one of the following two responses: “I have a child twelve years of age or younger living with me” or “I do not have a child twelve years of age or younger living with me.” In addition, respondents were asked if they were not at all likely, not sure or very likely to have a child living with them sometime in the future if

they had not already had a child. The final demographic question asked the respondents to answer “Yes” or “No” to the statement “I supervise other people at work.”

Procedure

All exempt employees were sent an electronic mail message from the Human Resources Director, who was also a First Vice President of the bank. The electronic mail message stated that the survey would be sent out within a week and that the bank had approved the survey. It also stated that the survey was simply a research questionnaire written by a university student as part of a school project and that the bank did not plan to take follow-up action based on the results of the survey. Finally, the email stated that the survey would be voluntary and the responses would be confidential.

The bank provided mailing labels of all employees in the target population. The survey was mailed to the population of bank employees in a 6 ½ x 10 inch manila envelope via company mail approximately one week after the electronic message was sent. The first page of the survey contained statements about their role as participants, survey benefits, and confidentiality. It also reminded employees that their participation was completely voluntary. In addition to the survey, a postage-paid envelope addressed to the UNO Psychology Department was enclosed. Employees were requested to return the survey in the envelope within 10 to 14 days. A participant placed his or her survey in the envelope and returned it to the UNO Psychology Department.

Chapter 3

Results

Manipulation checks

The first manipulation check examined a respondent's understanding of the policy target and his or her parental status. The respondent needed to understand who the policy was targeted at (i.e., parents with children 12 years of age and younger or all employees) and whether or not he or she was in the target group. The manipulation check asked the respondent to circle either "would" or "would not" in response to the following question: "If implemented, this policy would would not be applicable to me." For respondents who received the family policy that only parents with children 12 years of age and younger were allowed to use, 83.5% answered correctly about whether or not the policy was applicable to them and 16.5% answered incorrectly (see Table 4 for a breakdown by parental status).

For respondents who received the life policy that all employees could use, 57.6% answered correctly that it was applicable to them while 42.6% answered incorrectly that the policy was not applicable to them. Since all employees were covered by this policy, it was expected that more respondents would report that the policy was applicable to them. It is suspected that the manipulation check was not phrased precisely enough. Instead of asking whether or not the policy was applicable to them, the question would have been more clear had it asked the respondent to answer yes or no to the following statement: "I, as an employee, would be covered by the hypothetical policy described above." Although all respondents who received a life policy could have used it, many

Table 4

Manipulation Check: "If implemented, this policy would/would not be applicable to me."

	<u>n</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Family Policy		
Parents		
Would	124	82.1
Would not	27	17.9
Nonparents		
Would	41	15.7
Would not	220	84.3
Life Policy		
Parents		
Would	114	68.3
Would not	53	31.7
Nonparents		
Would	124	50.4
Would not	122	49.6

respondents may not have felt it was applicable to them because there were very few circumstances in which they would need to use such a policy, especially if they did not have children. Respondents who did not answer this question correctly may have felt this policy did not apply to their particular situation. No further action was taken regarding this manipulation check because the incorrect responses were most likely due to an inadequately worded question rather than a lack of understanding on the part of the respondent.

The second manipulation check examined a respondent's understanding regarding whether or not the hypothetical supervisor was supportive or unsupportive of the policy. Respondents were asked to circle the correct underlined response to the following statement: "The new supervisor is supportive unsupportive of this policy." For respondents who received a policy with a supportive supervisor, 348 (88.8%) answered correctly and 44 (11.2%) answered incorrectly. For respondents who received a survey with an unsupportive supervisor, 278 (70.0%) answered correctly and 119 (30.0%) answered incorrectly. A few respondents wrote on their surveys that the supervisor supportiveness manipulation check question was unclear. The manipulation check question may have been more clear had it stated, "The new supervisor described in this scenario was supportive/unsupportive of this hypothetical policy" instead of "The new supervisor is supportive/unsupportive of this policy." Some respondents may have answered this question with their current supervisor in mind instead of the hypothetical supervisor. Based on the manipulation check, the supervisor supportiveness manipulation did not work as well as was hoped, especially for those respondents who were in the unsupportive supervisor condition.

The final manipulation check examined whether or not the respondent understood that the policy usage was based upon the new hypothetical supervisor's discretion. All participants should have responded "yes" to this question. Seven-hundred thirty-three (88.1%) of respondents answered correctly and 99 (11.9%) answered incorrectly. From these responses it appears as though the majority of respondents understood that an employee's use of the policy was based upon the supervisor's discretion.

For the most part, the manipulations were successful. According to the first manipulation check, a majority of respondents understood whether or not they were allowed to use the described policy. Incorrect responses to the first manipulation check were arguably the result of the manipulation check question not being stated precisely enough. Next, the supervisor supportiveness manipulation did not work as well as was expected for the respondents in the unsupportive supervisor condition. Finally, most of the participants understood that policy usage was subject to the supervisor's discretion.

Fairness

Table 5 presents the means of the fairness scale score for each of the eight conditions. The grand mean for the fairness scale was 4.56 ($SD = 1.70$). Respondents used the entire range of the scale (i.e., 1 to 7).

Before running the ANOVA statistic, a homogeneity of variance test was performed to ensure that there were no significant differences in the within cell variability. The Cochran's test ($C = .16, p > .05$) failed to reject the null hypothesis meaning that there was no significant difference in the within cell variability between the different treatment groups. Differences in the within cell variability were most likely due to chance.

Table 5

Mean Fairness Rating for Each of the Eight Conditions

	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>
Family Policy			
Parents			
Supportive Supervisor	5.15	1.73	75
Unsupportive Supervisor	5.11	1.46	77
Nonparents			
Supportive Supervisor	3.91	1.89	125
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.13	1.69	130
Life Policy			
Parents			
Supportive Supervisor	4.92	1.75	81
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.99	1.53	87
Nonparents			
Supportive Supervisor	4.50	1.59	119
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.47	1.54	128

Table 6 presents the ANOVA. As Table 6 indicates, the main effect of parental status was significant. The mean of the fairness scale for parents was 5.04 ($SD = 1.62$) while the mean for nonparents was 4.25 ($SD = 1.69$). This result is consistent with the general premise of the justice literature that those who receive a benefit would perceive the situation as more fair than those who did not receive a benefit. The eta-squared for the main effect of parental status was 5.2%. Eta-squared can be defined as proportion of the total variability in the dependent variable that is accounted for by variation in the independent variable. Statistically speaking, the eta-squared is the ratio of the between groups sum of squares to the total sum of squares. Hence, parental status accounts for approximately 5.2% of the variance in fairness scores.

Hypothesis 1 predicted a two-way interaction for respondent parental status and policy target. When judging the family policy (i.e., the policy that targeted employees with children 12 years of age and younger) it was predicted that parents would perceive this policy as more fair than would nonparents; however, there would be no difference between parents and nonparents in the perceived fairness of the life policy (i.e., the policy that targeted all employees). This prediction was largely supported. There was an interaction between the respondent parental status and the policy type. The means are shown in Figure 1. Table 7 shows the simple effects. As hypothesized, parents did perceive the family policy as more fair than did nonparent respondents. The parent respondents also perceived the life policy as significantly more fair than did the nonparent respondents. Even though the nonparents did not feel that the life policy was as fair as the parents did, the nonparents did feel that the life policy was significantly

Table 6

Main and Interaction Effects

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>	η^2
Parental Status	1	1914.76	44.65	<.001	5.2%
Policy Type	1	69.14	1.61	ns	—
Supervisor Supportiveness	1	.51	.01	ns	—
Parental Status x Policy	1	321.64	7.50	<.01	1.0%
Parental x Supervisor	1	7.29	.17	ns	—
Policy Type x Supervisor	1	4.17	.10	ns	—
Parental x Policy x Supervisor	1	32.57	.76	ns	—
Residual	814	35,802.67			
Total	821	38,277.14			

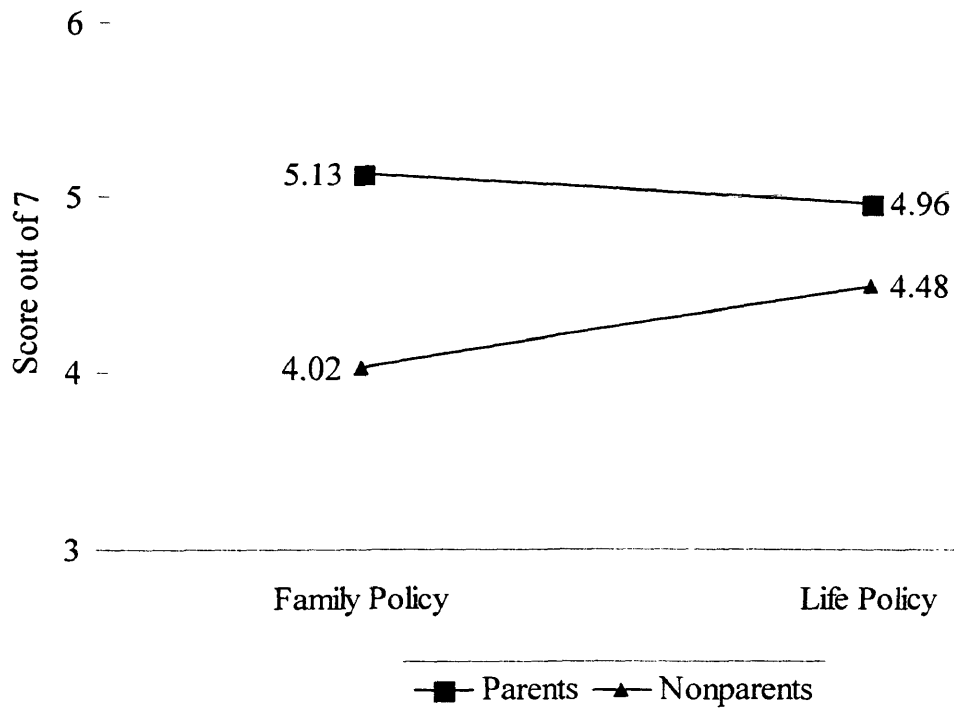
Figure 1: Fairness Rating

Table 7

Simple Effects of Policy Type and Respondent Parental Status Interaction

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Family policy at parental	1	1,894.24	43.46	<.001
Life policy at parental	1	336.97	7.99	<.01
Parent at policy type	1	45.04	1.02	ns
Nonparent at policy type	1	340.60	7.58	<.01
Error	814	35,802.67		

more fair than the family policy. Finally, for the parent respondents, there was no significant difference in fairness perceptions between the family policy and the life policy; hence, both policies appeared equally fair to the parent respondents.

From these results, we can postulate that those who can use the policy will feel that it is more fair than those who can not use it. With a policy that everyone can use, those who are most likely to use the policy will believe that it is more fair than those who are not as likely to use the policy. Even though some respondents will be less likely to use a policy than others, they still feel that it is more fair that they be covered by the policy versus not being covered by the policy.

Hypothesis 2 qualified Hypothesis 1 by predicting a three-way interaction. It was predicted that for parent respondents, policies supported by the supervisor would be perceived as more fair than those without supervisor support. It was predicted that for nonparents, when judging policies that benefit all employees, the policy that is supported by the supervisor would be perceived as more fair than the policy without supervisor support. However, when nonparents judge family policies that benefit parents with young children only, it was predicted that those without supervisor support would be perceived as more fair. The rationale for this explanation is as follows: if employees who did not have a child under the age of twelve were frustrated because they could not use the policy or because they felt they would be required to pick up extra work of co-workers who would use the policy, these frustrated employees would feel better knowing that the supervisor was unsupportive of the policy and would not allow other employees to use it. As revealed in Table 6, this three-way interaction was not significant. This

three-way interaction may have been nonsignificant because the supervisor supportiveness manipulation was not salient enough.

Because the three-way interaction was not significant, the analysis was performed using only those respondents who answered the supervisor supportiveness manipulation check question correctly. This subset of the population included 610 respondents. When the ANOVA was performed with this subset, the three-way interaction was still nonsignificant ($F(7, 603) = .14, ns$). The interaction between respondent parental status and policy type remained significant ($F(7, 603) = 4.59, p < .05$). The simple effects that were significant with the entire data set were also significant when the analysis was performed with this subset.

When the entire sample was used, the main effect of supervisor supportiveness was nonsignificant; however, when the subset was used, the main effect of supervisor supportiveness was significant ($F(7, 603) = 6.82, p < .01$). The mean scale score for respondents who had policies with a supportive supervisor was 4.53 whereas the mean scale score for respondents who had policies with an unsupportive supervisor was 4.35. This significant main effect could suggest that if the policy receives more backing from the supervisor, the policy may be perceived as more fair.

In sum, the hypothesis that employees who cannot use a policy will perceive the policy as more fair if the supervisor does not support it remains unsubstantiated. One possible explanation of why the three-way interaction was not significant is that the respondents were thinking about the fairness of the policy itself and not so much about the implementation of the policy. The fairness scale had two questions regarding implementation of the policy: "How supportive would you be of this policy if your

company actually implemented it?” and “Do you think implementing this policy would be the right thing for a company to do?” Neither one of these questions, however, directly asks how fair the respondent felt the implementation of the policy would be.

Two additional exploratory analyses of the fairness model were performed. These analyses included adding the respondent’s gender as well as his or her supervisory status as factors in the model. Table 8 reveals the means for the 16 conditions when the respondent’s gender was added as a factor in the model. Table 9 presents the ANOVA. The main effect of parental status and the interaction effect between parental status and policy type remained significant. The main effect of gender was also significant. Females perceived the policies as more fair than males. The mean of the fairness scale for females was 4.69. ($SD = 1.75$) while the mean of the fairness scale for males was 4.39 ($SD = 1.61$).

There was an interaction between parental status and gender. The means are shown in Figure 2 and Table 10 presents the simple effects. Female parents perceived the policies as significantly more fair than did male parents whereas there was no difference in fairness perceptions between nonparent males and nonparent females. This interaction does not qualify the main finding that parents perceive the family and life policies as equally fair whereas nonparents perceived the life policy to be significantly more fair than the family policy.

Respondent supervisory status was also added as a factor in the model. Respondents were classified as supervisors if they answered yes to the question “I supervise other people at work.” Table 11 displays the means for the 16 conditions. Table 12 presents the ANOVA. The main effect for parental status as well as the

Table 8

Mean Fairness Rating for the Sixteen Conditions Including Respondent Gender

	Males			Females		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>
Family Policy						
Parents						
Supportive Supervisor	4.82	1.74	34	5.42	1.70	41
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.69	1.55	32	5.40	1.33	45
Nonparents						
Supportive Supervisor	3.96	1.80	48	3.90	1.94	76
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.25	1.52	52	4.06	1.80	78
Life Policy						
Parents						
Supportive Supervisor	4.23	1.86	36	5.47	1.45	45
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.58	1.48	36	5.28	1.52	51
Nonparents						
Supportive Supervisor	4.26	1.45	48	4.67	1.67	71
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.52	1.50	47	4.44	1.57	81

Table 9

Main and Interaction Effects of Model Including Gender as a Factor

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>	η^2
Parental Status (PS)	1	1615.73	37.54	<.001	4.5%
Policy Type (PT)	1	41.07	.95	ns	—
Supervisor Supportiveness (SSU)	1	10.41	.24	ns	—
Gender (G)	1	523.60	12.16	<.001	1.5%
PS x PT	1	287.38	6.68	<.01	1.0%
PS x SSU	1	10.01	.23	ns	—
PS x G	1	472.68	10.98	<.001	1.3%
PT x SSU	1	.35	.01	ns	—
PT x G	1	68.53	1.59	ns	—
SSU x G	1	52.13	1.21	ns	—
PS x PT x SSU	1	24.61	.57	ns	—
PS x PT x G	1	.13	.00	ns	—
PS x SSU x G	1	1.67	.04	ns	—
PT x SSU x G	1	49.53	1.15	ns	—
PS x PT x SSU x G	1	4.24	.10	ns	—
Residual	805	34,479.89			
Total	817	38,265.27			

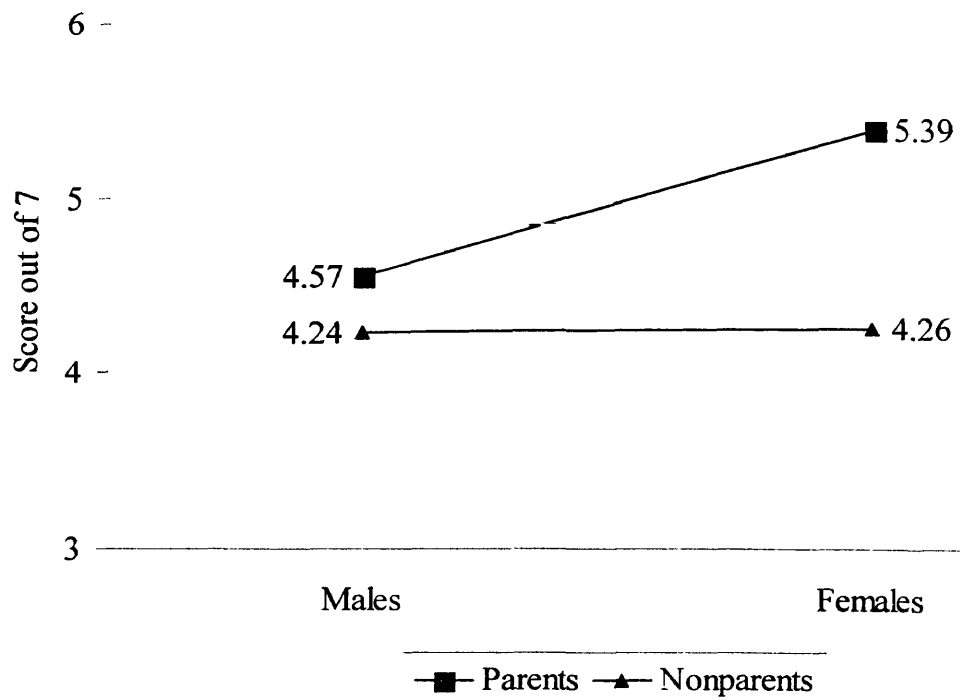
Figure 2: Fairness Rating

Table 10

Simple Effects of Parental Status and Gender Interaction

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Parental status at males	1	167.37	3.94	<.05
Parental status at females	1	1,924.58	45.33	<.001
Gender at parents	1	999.42	23.54	<.001
Gender at nonparents	1	.46	.01	ns
Error	816	34,651.20		

Table 11

Mean Fairness Rating for the 16 Conditions Including Respondent Supervisory Status

	Supervisors			Nonsupervisors		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>
Family Policy						
Parents						
Supportive Supervisor	5.17	1.68	53	5.11	1.87	22
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.91	1.60	44	5.36	1.23	33
Nonparents						
Supportive Supervisor	3.66	1.80	73	4.23	1.98	51
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.15	1.65	83	4.10	1.77	47
Life Policy						
Parents						
Supportive Supervisor	4.64	1.81	49	5.34	1.59	32
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.70	1.47	63	5.80	1.47	23
Nonparents						
Supportive Supervisor	4.00	1.60	66	5.13	1.37	52
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.43	1.54	84	4.55	1.57	43

Table 12

Main and Interaction Effects Including the Respondent Supervisor Status Factor

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>	η^2
Parental Status (PS)	1	2026.73	47.14	<.001	5.6%
Policy Type (PT)	1	158.78	3.69	ns	—
Supervisor Supportiveness (SSU)	1	22.70	.53	ns	—
Supervisor Status (SST)	1	688.27	16.02	<.001	2.0%
PS x PT	1	179.52	4.18	<.05	1.0%
PS x SSU	1	3.88	.09	ns	—
PS x SST	1	8.24	.19	ns	—
PT x SSU	1	.02	.00	ns	—
PT x SST	1	204.24	4.75	<.05	1.0%
SSU x SST	1	23.25	.54	ns	—
PS x PT x SSU	1	46.49	1.08	ns	—
PS x PT x SST	1	20.11	.47	ns	—
PS x SSU x SST	1	279.47	6.50	<.05	1.0%
PT x SSU x SST	1	9.23	.21	ns	—
PS x PT x SSU x SST	1	3.52	.08	ns	—
Residual	805	34,479.89			

interaction between parental status and policy type remained significant. There was a significant main effect for respondent supervisory status. Respondents who were not supervisors ($M = 4.84$, $SD = 1.69$) perceived the policies as more fair than did the respondents who were supervisors ($M = 4.40$, $SD = 1.69$).

There was also an interaction effect for supervisory status and policy type. The means are shown in Figure 3. The simple effects are presented in Table 13. Although supervisors and nonsupervisors perceived the family policy to be equally fair, nonsupervisors perceived the life policy as significantly more fair than did supervisors. It is possible that supervisors look at the policy from a company profitability perspective and believe that the family policy benefits those who truly need it and they may worry that the life policy allows for more abuses from those who don't really need the policy. The nonsupervisors may look at the policy from an employee benefits perspective and want the most possible benefits for all employees and hence, feel the life policy is more fair.

There was also a 3-way interaction between respondent parental status, hypothetical supervisor supportiveness and respondent supervisory status. See Figure 4 for the means. Simple effects tests revealed that parents, regardless of their own supervisory status and the supportiveness of the hypothetical supervisor described in the policy, perceived the policies as more fair than nonparents did, while for nonparents, supervisory status results in different fairness ratings. Nonparent supervisors felt the policy was more fair if the hypothetical supervisor was described as unsupportive of the policy while nonparents who were not supervisors viewed the policies as equally fair, regardless of the hypothetical supervisors supportiveness. It may be that respondent supervisors who are

Figure 3: Fairness Rating

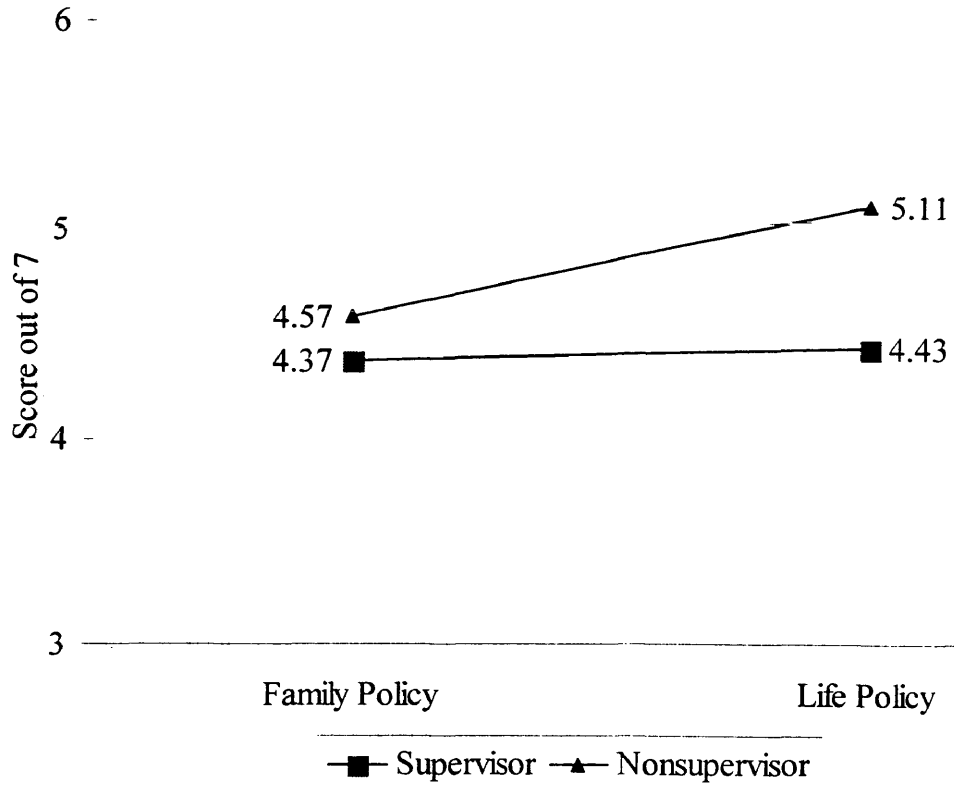
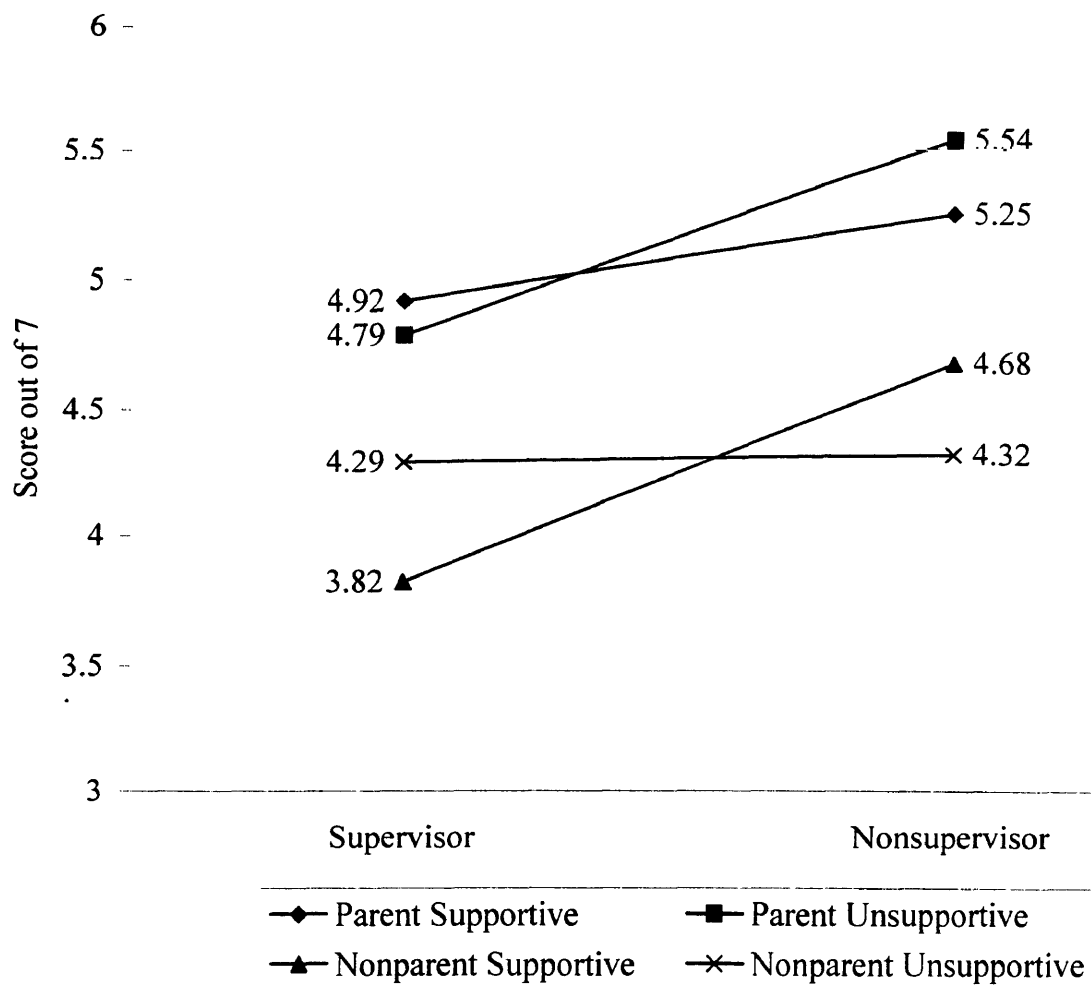


Table 13

Simple Effects of Policy Type and Respondent Supervisor Status

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Supervisor status at family	1	59.59	1.41	ns
Supervisor status at life	1	724.64	17.09	<.001
Policy at supervisor	1	5.18	.12	ns
Policy at non-supervisor	1	461.21	10.88	<.001
Error	813	34,479.89		

Figure 4: Fairness Rating

nonparents perceive the policies as least fair because they are more likely to have the challenge of managing others who use the policy while not being as likely to use or benefit from the policy themselves because they do not have children.

Likelihood of Policy Use

Earlier in the introduction it was noted that unsupportive supervisors can counteract formal family policy use (Geiger, 1989; Kamerman & Kahn, 1987; Raabe & Gessner, 1988). To test this generalization in the present study, the subset of respondents who were covered by the hypothetical policies (i.e., all respondents except those nonparents who received the family policy) was analyzed to examine the effects of supervisor support on the likelihood of policy usage.

Respondents answered the question “Would you use this policy?” on a 7-point scale. An ANOVA was performed with policy usage as the dependent variable and parental status, policy type, supervisor status, and respondent gender as factors. Note that this ANOVA was not fully crossed because nonparents who received a family policy were not allowed to use the policy; hence, these nonparent respondents were not included. The means from this analysis are shown in Table 14. Table 15 presents the ANOVA. There were significant main effects for both respondent parental status and gender. The mean usage score for parents was 4.92 (SD = 1.98) while the mean usage score for nonparents was 4.00 (SD = 2.03). The mean usage score for males was 4.02 (SD = 1.98) while the mean usage score for females was 4.86 (SD = 2.04).

There was an interaction effect between parental status and gender. The means are shown in Figure 5. The simple effects are shown in Table 16. Female parents felt they were significantly more likely to use the policy than were male parents. There was

Table 14

Mean Policy Usage Rating for the 12 Conditions Including Respondent Gender

	Males			Females		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>
Family Policy						
Parents						
Supportive Supervisor	4.53	1.83	34	5.49	2.04	41
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.25	2.13	32	5.46	1.68	46
Nonparents						
Supportive Supervisor	—	—	—	—	—	—
Unsupportive Supervisor	—	—	—	—	—	—
Life Policy						
Parents						
Supportive Supervisor	3.83	2.11	35	5.49	1.59	45
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.03	2.05	36	5.52	1.72	50
Nonparents						
Supportive Supervisor	3.83	1.77	48	4.29	2.19	70
Unsupportive Supervisor	3.80	2.04	46	3.96	2.05	81

Note. For the family policy, nonparents were not included because they were not covered by the policy.

Table 15

Main and Interaction Effects of Policy Usage Including Gender in the Model

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>	η^2
Parental Status (PS)	1	52.89	13.91	<.001	2.5%
Policy Type (PT)	1	3.59	.94	ns	—
Supervisor Supportiveness (SSU)	1	2.49	.66	ns	—
Gender (G)	1	43.78	11.51	<.001	2.0%
PS x PT	—	—	—	—	—
PS x SSU	1	2.02	.53	ns	—
PS x G	1	38.50	10.13	<.01	1.8%
PT x SSU	1	1.43	.37	ns	—
PT x G	1	4.75	1.25	ns	—
SSU x G	1	.01	.00	ns	—
PS x PT x SSU	—	—	—	—	—
PS x PT x G	—	—	—	—	—
PS x SSU x G	1	.09	.02	ns	—
PT x SSU x G	1	.84	.22	ns	—
PS x PT x SSU x G	—	—	—	—	—
Residual	552	2,098.88			
Total	563	2,372.82			

Figure 5: Policy Usage Score

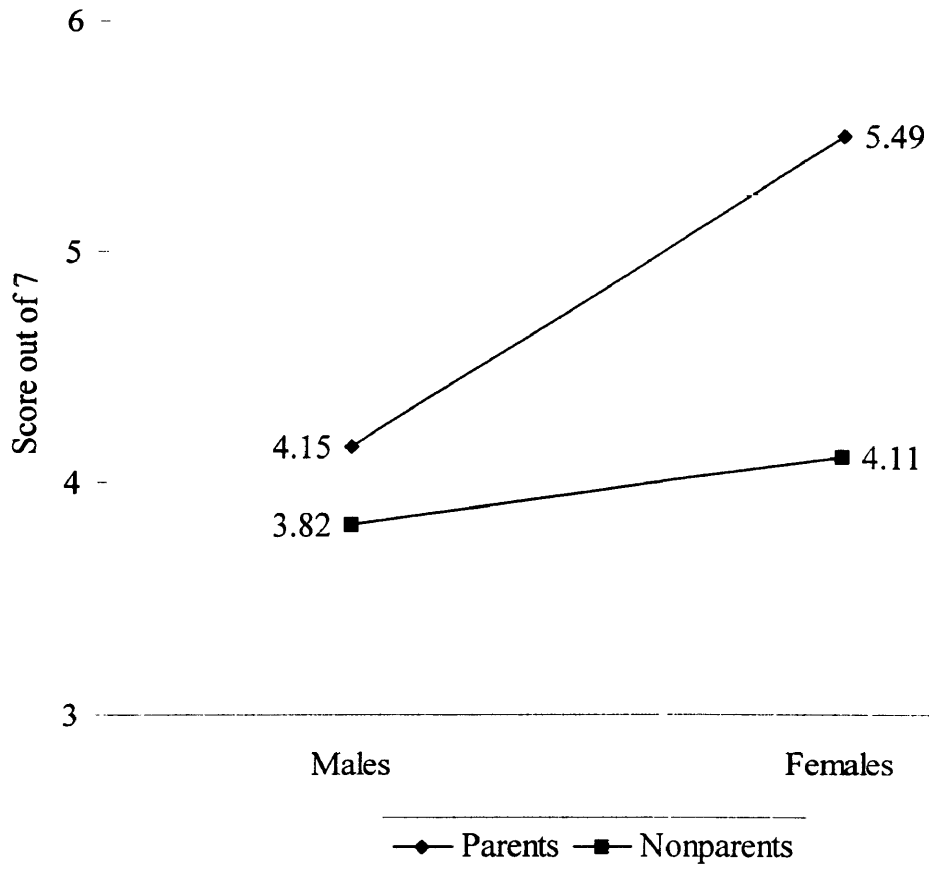


Table 16

Simple Effects of Parental Status and Gender on Policy Usage

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Parental status at males	1	7.25	1.72	ns
Parental status at females	1	126.73	30.10	p<.001
Gender at parents	1	119.49	28.38	p<.001
Gender at nonparents	1	5.60	1.33	ns
Error	563	2,372.82		

no significant difference in the usage likelihood of male and female nonparents. Female parents also felt they were significantly more likely to use the policy than were their nonparent female counterparts. There was no significant difference in the likelihood of use between the male parents and nonparents.

Supervisor supportiveness did not account for any significant differences in perceptions of policy use. This result differs from prior research that purports that unsupportive supervisors can counteract formal policy use (Raabe, 1990; Thompson, Thomas, & Maier, 1992). This difference may be partially attributable to the supervisor manipulation not being salient enough in the present study.

Impact of the Policy

Survey respondents also answered the question “How much impact would this policy have on your life?” on a 7-point scale. This question may not have been specific enough. Several respondents marked on their survey “personally” and “as a manager” and circled two responses to this single question. It is suspected that a majority of the respondents answered this question keeping in mind how the policy affected them as a whole instead how it impacted them in their specific roles as supervisor, employee or parent. An additional shortcoming of this question is that it does not reveal whether or not the respondent believes that the policy impacts him or her positively or negatively. Because the policy impact question may not be precise enough, the responses to this question should be viewed with caution.

To explore the impact of the policies, an ANOVA was performed with policy impact as the dependent variable while parental status, policy type, supervisor supportiveness, and gender were independent variables. Gender was added to the original model because descriptive statistics pointed to possible differences in perceived impact due to gender. Table 17 displays the means for the 16 conditions. Table 18 presents the ANOVA.

There were three significant main effects of policy impact. See Table 19 for these mean differences. Parents felt the policies would have more impact on them than did nonparents. Second, respondents felt that the life policy would have more impact on them than would the family policy. Third, females felt that the policies would have more impact on them than did males.

There were two two-way interaction effects. Figure 6 shows the means of the four conditions in the parental status by policy type interaction. Table 20 presents the simple effects of the interaction between parental status and policy type. Parents felt that both the family and the life policies would have a greater impact on them than did nonparents. Nonparents felt the life policy would have a greater impact on them than would the family policy. There was no significant difference between the impact of the family and life policies on parent respondents. These results are consistent with the idea that a policy that one can use will have more impact than will a policy that one cannot use.

The second policy impact interaction was between parental status and gender. The means are shown in Figure 7. The simple effects are shown in Table 21. Female parents

Table 17

Mean Impact Rating for the Sixteen Conditions Including Respondent Gender

	Males			Females		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>
Family Policy						
Parents						
Supportive Supervisor	4.32	1.90	34	5.59	1.79	41
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.06	1.88	32	5.46	1.62	46
Nonparents						
Supportive Supervisor	3.20	1.88	49	3.65	2.23	79
Unsupportive Supervisor	2.51	1.65	53	3.27	2.11	75
Life Policy						
Parents						
Supportive Supervisor	4.20	2.15	35	5.69	1.38	45
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.39	1.86	36	5.71	1.44	49
Nonparents						
Supportive Supervisor	3.98	1.74	48	4.82	1.88	71
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.56	1.89	47	4.56	1.89	80

Table 18

Main and Interaction Effects of Impact Including Gender in the Model

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>	η^2
Parental Status (PS)	1	275.23	78.41	<.001	8.9%
Policy Type (PT)	1	75.45	21.50	<.001	2.6%
Supervisor Supportiveness (SSU)	1	8.68	2.47	ns	--
Gender (G)	1	202.93	57.81	<.001	6.7%
PS x PT	1	45.57	12.98	<.001	1.6%
PS x SSU	1	5.49	1.56	ns	--
PS x G	1	20.47	5.83	<.05	1.0%
PT x SSU	1	4.31	1.23	ns	--
PT x G	1	1.04	.30	ns	--
SSU x G	1	.17	.05	ns	--
PS x PT x SSU	1	.00	.00	ns	--
PS x PT x G	1	.23	.06	ns	--
PS x SSU x G	1	.28	.08	ns	--
PT x SSU x G	1	1.25	.36	ns	--
PS x PT x SSU x G	1	.01	.00	ns	--
Residual	804	2,822.14			
Total	819	3,523.10			

Table 19

Mean Impact Rating for the Three Main Effects

	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>
Parental Status			
Parents	5.03	1.85	318
Nonparents	3.78	2.07	503
Policy Type			
Family Policy	3.84	2.16	416
Life Policy	4.62	1.92	423
Gender			
Males	3.68	1.96	342
Females	4.62	2.07	494

Figure 6: Impact Rating

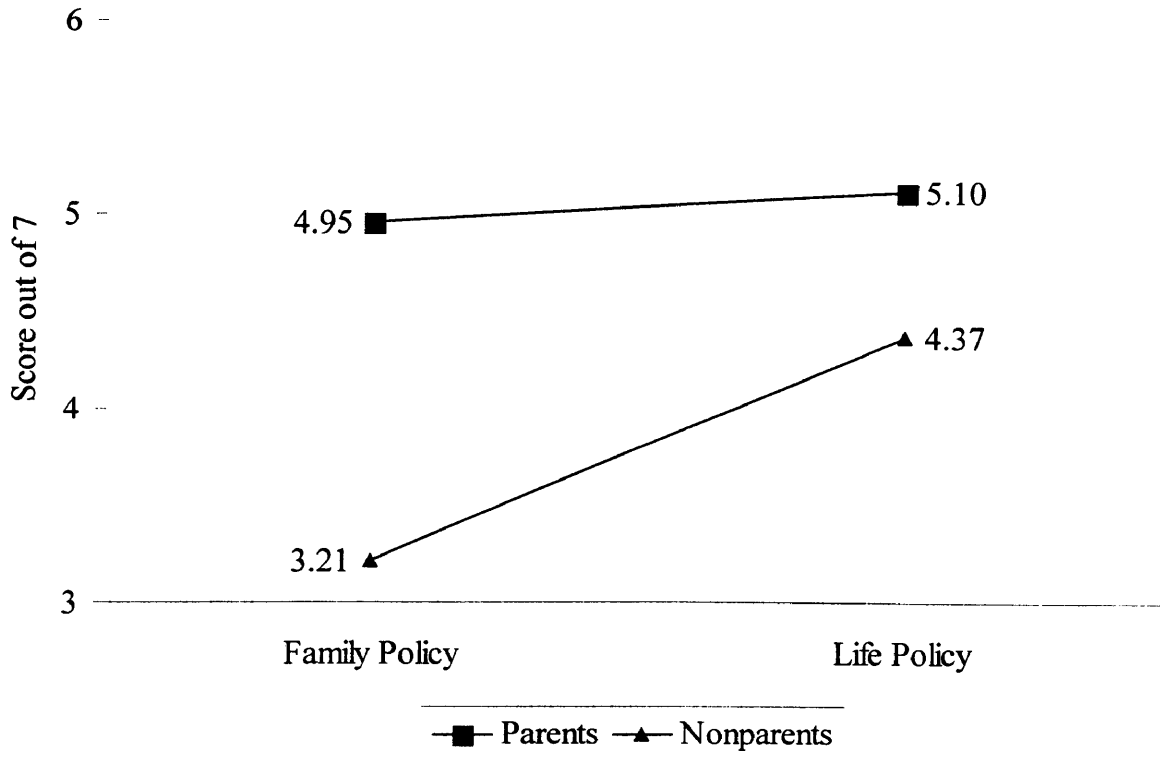


Table 20

Simple Effects of Policy Type and Parental Status on Impact

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Parental status at family	1	294.62	82.30	<.001
Parental status at life	1	51.86	14.49	<.001
Policy at parents	1	2.19	.61	ns
Policy at nonparents	1	130.94	36.58	<.001
Error	804	2,882.14		

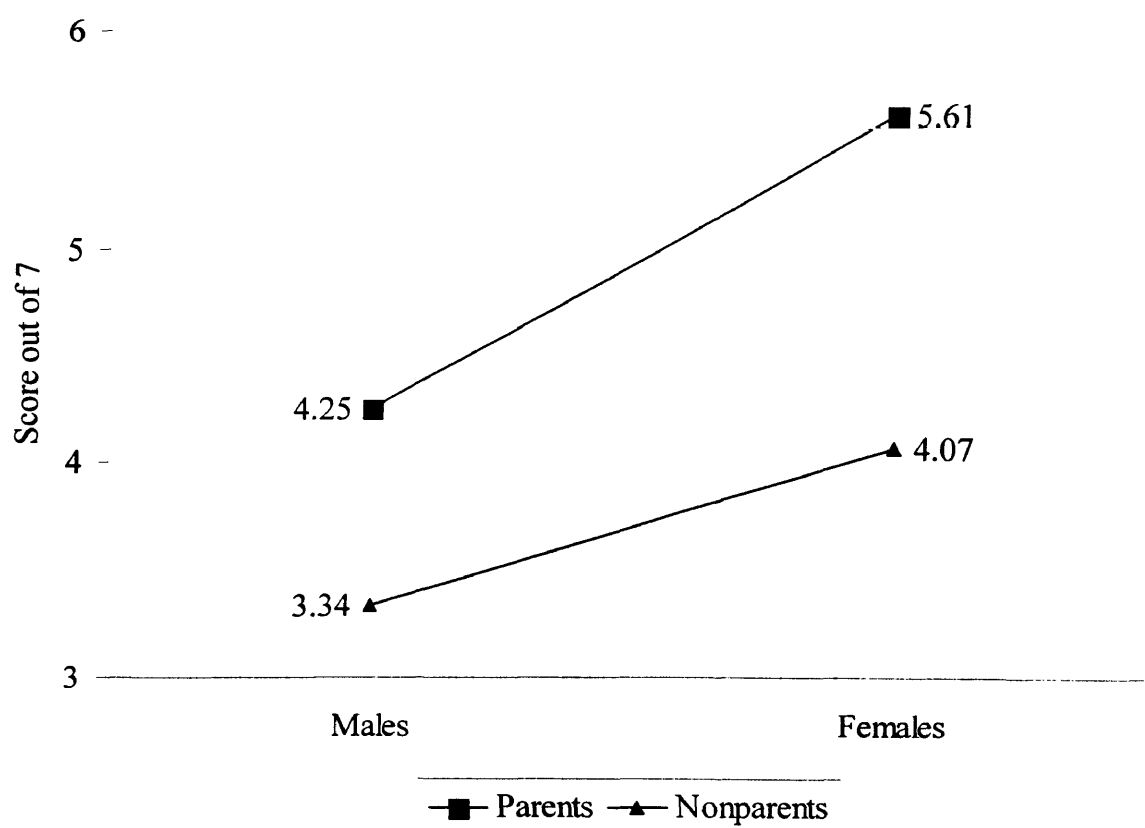
Figure 7: Impact Rating

Table 21

Simple Effects of Parental Status and Gender on Impact

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Parental status at males	1	78.30	21.84	<.001
Parental status at females	1	223.96	62.56	<.001
Gender at parents	1	174.67	48.79	<.001
Gender at nonparents	1	50.32	14.06	<.001
Error	804	2,882.14		

felt the policy would have a greater impact on them than did male parents, whereas the difference in impact ratings between the male and female nonparents was not as great.

Additional Analyses

Two additional analyses were performed. In the first, respondents were also asked which part of the hypothetical policy was most appealing to them: reduced work schedule, full-time flexible scheduling, or neither. Twenty-three respondents did not answer this question. Of the remaining respondents, 545 (66.0%) reported that they preferred full-time flexible scheduling, 86 (10.4%) reported that they preferred a reduced work schedule and 195 (23.6%) reported that they preferred neither. This difference was significant ($\chi^2(2) = 417.75, p < .001$). These results are consistent with those of Glass and Estes (1997) that employees preferred full-time flexible scheduling to a reduced work schedule.

The second additional analysis examined fairness perceptions of respondents who had never had children, but could have children in the future. This analysis was performed to determine whether or not planning to have a child in the future will influence fairness perceptions. Respondents were asked if they did not have a child, how likely would it be that they would have one in the future and respond with either “Not at all likely,” “I am not sure” or “Very likely.” Using the fairness scale as the dependent variable, an ANOVA was performed. In this analysis, parental status was removed as an independent variable and replaced with future parental status; hence the independent variables were future parental status, policy type, and supervisor supportiveness. Table 22 presents the means of the 12 conditions. Table 23 presents the ANOVA. The main

Table 22

Mean Impact Rating for Twelve Conditions Including Respondent Future Parental Status

	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>
Family Policy			
Not at all likely.			
Supportive Supervisor	3.91	2.05	59
Unsupportive Supervisor	3.63	1.73	52
I am not sure.			
Supportive Supervisor	4.25	1.51	24
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.87	1.30	17
Very likely.			
Supportive Supervisor	4.50	1.69	24
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.70	1.58	33
Life Policy			
Not at all likely			
Supportive Supervisor	4.27	1.81	23
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.47	1.32	22
I am not sure			
Supportive Supervisor	5.38	1.38	20
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.26	1.75	19
Very likely			
Supportive Supervisor	4.72	1.68	26
Unsupportive Supervisor	4.74	1.70	28

Table 23

ANOVA of the Effect of Future Parental Status on Perceived Fairness

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	p	η^2
Future Parental Status	2	446.61	4.83	<.01	2.8%
Policy Type	1	130.92	2.83	ns	—
Supervisor Support	1	4.18	.09	ns	—
Future Parent x Policy	2	54.92	.59	ns	—
Future Parent x Manager	2	23.66	.26	ns	—
Policy Type x Manager	1	70.28	1.52	ns	—
Future x Policy x Manager	2	238.35	2.58	ns	—
Residual	335	15,487.58			
Total	346	16,718.25			

effect of parental status was significant. The means for the three groups were as follows: not at all likely to have children $M = 3.95$ ($SD = 1.83$), those not sure about having children $M = 4.67$ ($SD = 1.55$), and those who are very likely to have children $M = 4.67$, ($SD = 1.64$). The Scheffe post-hoc comparison found that those who believe that they are not at all likely to have children feel that the policies are significantly less fair than do those respondents who are not sure or are very likely to have children in the future ($p < .05$).

Chapter 4

Discussion

The present study had several strengths relating to the sample and methodology.

Regarding the sample, the present study used an existing organization so that study respondents would have a more realistic context from which to judge the hypothetical policies than would undergraduate psychology students who have less experience in the work world. Using employees of an existing organization render the study results more generalizable to other real world work settings. Second, the population was large (1,300 employees) and the response rate was high (65 percent). The present study was sanctioned and supported by top management within the company, which may be one reason why the response rate was high. The high response rate provided a large sample, which increased the statistical power and the likelihood of detecting significant effects if they did indeed exist. Third, study respondents were evenly proportioned on a number of key factors including parental status and gender (i.e., similar numbers of parents and nonparents, males and females). All of these reasons regarding the sample add to the credibility of the study.

There were also several strengths regarding the methodology of the present study.

First, the present study was empirical in nature and used manipulated variables. The majority of prior studies, however, did not use manipulated variables. The empirical nature of this study strengthens the case for drawing cause and effect conclusions.

Second, the manipulation checks, for the most part, signified that the manipulations worked. A majority of the respondents understood whether or not they were allowed to

use the described policy and that policy usage was left to the discretion of the hypothetical supervisor. The supervisor supportiveness manipulation worked well for those in the supportive supervisor condition. Third, the reliability of the fairness scale was high (.94). Procedurally, completed surveys were mailed directly to UNO, which should have allowed respondents to answer questions honestly since confidentiality and anonymity were assured. These methodological reasons increase the present study's credibility.

Next, the main hypotheses, additional analyses, study limitations and future research will each be discussed in turn. The main hypothesis of this study predicted a two-way interaction for respondent status and policy target. It was predicted that nonparents and parents with older children would perceive the family policy as less fair than would respondents with young children, but that there would be no difference between the two respondent groups regarding the perceived fairness of the life policy. This first part of this hypothesis was supported. As predicted, nonparents did perceive the family policy as less fair than did parents. Although no difference in respondents' perceptions of the life policy was predicted, a difference occurred. The parent respondents perceived the life policy as significantly more fair than did the nonparent respondents. Although nonparents did not feel that the life policy was as fair as the parents did, nonparents did feel that the life policy was significantly more fair than the family policy. Parent respondents, on the other hand, viewed both policies as equally fair.

This interaction is interesting in light of the justice literature. First of all, from the results of the present study, we can postulate that those who can use the policy will feel that it is more fair than those who cannot use it. This supports the distributive justice literature as the inputs of both parents and nonparents are equal (i.e., both work for the company), but the outcomes are unequal because parents are allowed to use the policy whereas nonparents are not allowed to use the policy. Next, according to the present study, with a policy that everyone can use (e.g., the life policy) those who are most likely to use the policy (i.e., parents) will believe that it is more fair than those who are not as likely to use the policy (i.e., nonparents). On the surface, this result may appear to contradict the justice literature because all employees are giving equal inputs, and the outcome, being allowed to use the policy, is the same for everyone. Hence, according to the justice literature, all employees should view the life policy as equally fair. The outcome, however, is not truly the same for everyone because some employees are much more likely to use and benefit from the policy than other employees are. Finally, the present study suggests that even though some respondents (e.g., nonparents) will be less likely to use a policy than others (e.g. parents), respondents with less likelihood of use will still feel that it is more fair that they be covered by the policy versus not being covered by the policy. This result would also appear to follow the justice literature in that if one has inputs equal to another, he or she would expect to have equal outcomes.

At the present time there is little research that examines fairness perceptions of work and family policies. Results of the present study differ from those of a similar research study. Galinsky et al. (1996) did not find differences between parents and

nonparents when asking if they would be resentful of a policy that did not benefit them. Policy outcomes in the two studies are very different. In Galinsky et al.'s study, flexibility was allowed only for emergency family situations, which is a relatively small benefit because emergency situations only occur occasionally. It is expected that results in the present study differ because allowing for greater schedule flexibility is a benefit that could affect employees daily rather than occasionally. It is also likely that greater schedule flexibility is a benefit that all employees, not just parents, would want. Hence, it is not surprising that the results of these two studies differ.

For practitioners, the results of the present study suggest that if a policy aimed at reducing work and family conflict is implemented, a policy that benefits all employees will be perceived as more fair by the entire organizational workforce than one that benefits only parent employees. It should be noted that those who are most likely to use the policy (parents) will still feel the policy is more fair than those who are less likely to use the policy (nonparents). Although nonparents feel that the policy is less fair than do the parents, they do not necessarily feel that it is unfair. The average nonparent gave a fairness scale score of 4.43 as a response on a 7-point scale; hence, the average nonparent perceived the policy either neutrally or a little bit favorably. It is important to remember, though, that the average score is a composite of a range of scores, some of which are very negative. An employer may fear that although the majority of employees support the policy, a minority group of employees may complain vehemently about the policy. For the employer, implementing the policy may be more effort than what it is worth if he or

she has to continually deal with a minority of employees who complain that the policy is unfair. No matter how fair a policy is, some employees will feel it is unfair.

Hypothesis 2 qualified Hypothesis 1 by predicting a three-way interaction.

Parents were predicted to perceive policies supported by the supervisor as more fair than those without supervisor support. Nonparents, when judging policies that benefit all employees, were predicted to perceive the policy that is supported by the supervisor as more fair than the policy without supervisor support. However, when nonparents judge policies that benefit only parents with young children, those without supervisor support are predicted to be perceived as more fair. It was expected that nonparents would feel that it was unfair that they wouldn't benefit from a work/family policy and would be resentful of the possibility of assuming part of their co-workers' workload. They may also simply resent the fact that co-workers are not around when they are needed. However, if the supervisor does not support the policy and won't allow co-workers to actually use it, the policy is no threat to nonparents and will probably be perceived as more fair than if it was supported by the supervisor and therefore used frequently by co-workers.

Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Neither interaction nor the main effect regarding the supervisor supportiveness variable was significant. It appears that the supervisor supportiveness manipulation was not salient enough as many respondents answered the supervisor supportiveness manipulation check question incorrectly. When the analysis was performed with a subset of respondents who answered the supervisor supportiveness manipulation check correctly, the three-way interaction was still not supported, although

there was a significant main effect for supervisor supportiveness. Policies with a supportive supervisor were perceived as more fair than those without supervisor support, although this difference appeared fairly thin (4.53 versus 4.35 on a 7-point scale).

In light of prior evidence that the lack of supervisor support can negatively impact policy use and that being fair is one characteristic of being a supportive supervisor (Galinsky 1998b), this result was unexpected. It may be that although unsupportive supervisors can counteract formal work/family policies and a lack of supervisor support can increase the incidence of work family conflict, the supportiveness level does not affect the fairness perceptions of the policy itself to as large of a degree as was expected. It is possible that the lack of significant effects regarding the supervisor supportiveness manipulation is due to respondents thinking about the fairness of the policy itself and not so much about the implementation of the policy. None of the questions in the scale asked directly about the fairness of the implementation of the policy, which is where the supportiveness of the supervisor would gain importance. Further research with a more salient supervisor manipulation and field studies should be performed.

In further analyses, respondent gender was added to the model. There was an interaction between parental status and gender. Female parents perceived the policies as significantly more fair than did male parents. There was no difference in the perceived fairness of the policies between the nonparent males and females. Female parents perceived the policies as significantly more fair than did female nonparents. To a lesser degree, male parents also perceived the policies as significantly more fair than did the male nonparents. Because in many households women still have a majority of the

childcare and domestic responsibilities, women would be most likely to benefit from such a policy and therefore perceive the policy as fair. Testing differences between males and females via the ANOVA model is important because, unlike previous research that describes percentage differences to responses (e.g., 30% of males and 40% of females reported, etc.), the present study tested for statistically significant differences between males and females.

Several additional analyses provide a richer picture of issues surrounding work/family and work/life policies. These analyses included the likelihood of policy use, impact of the policy, preferences for different aspects of the policy and the impact of future parental status on policy fairness perceptions. Each of these analyses will be discussed in turn.

Earlier in the introduction it was noted that unsupportive supervisors could counteract formal family policy use (Geiger, 1989; Kamerman & Kahn, 1987; Raabe & Gessner, 1988). To test this generalization in the present study, the subset of respondents who were covered by the hypothetical policies (i.e., all respondents except those nonparents who received the family policy) was analyzed to examine the effects of supervisor support on the likelihood of policy usage.

Supervisor supportiveness was not responsible for any significant differences in perceptions of policy use. The present study fails to support previous research that finds that unsupportive supervisors can counteract formal policy use (Raabe, 1990; Thompson, Thomas, & Maier, 1992). This difference may be partially attributable to the supervisor manipulation not being salient enough in the present study. Research with a more salient

supervisor supportiveness manipulation as well as field research should be performed in the future.

Although supervisor supportiveness did not affect perceptions of policy use, there was an interaction effect between parental status and gender. Female parents felt they were significantly more likely to use the policy than were male parents while there was no difference in likelihood of policy usage between male and female nonparents. Female parents also felt they were significantly more likely to use the policy than were their nonparent female counterparts while there was no significant difference in the likelihood of use between the parents and nonparent males. This is not entirely surprising because in many households women continue to have greater responsibility for child-care than do men.

Respondents were also asked to respond on a 7-point scale how much impact they felt the policy would have on their life. Regarding the impact of the policy, there were two two-way interaction effects. The first interaction was between parental status and policy type. Parents felt that both the family and the life policies would have an equal impact on them while nonparents felt the life policy would have a greater impact on them than would the family policy. These results are consistent with the idea that a policy that one can use will have more impact than will a policy that one cannot use.

The second policy impact interaction was between parental status and gender. Female parents felt the policy would have a greater impact on them than did male parents, whereas the difference in impact ratings between the male and female nonparents was not as great. Because in many households women still have a majority of the

childcare and domestic responsibilities, women would be impacted by such as policy to a greater degree than men. It should be noted that male parents felt the policy would impact them, even if it was to a lesser degree than that of female parents.

Many of the results of this study differed along gender lines; hence, a summation of results regarding gender is appropriate. Female employees perceived the policies as significantly more fair, believed that they would be more likely to use such policies and felt the policies would have a greater impact on them than did male employees. This relationship was modified by parental status as male parents perceived the policies as more fair than did male nonparents and also felt the policies would have more impact on them than male nonparents did. It is interesting to note, however, that male parents believed that they were no more likely to actually use the policy than were male nonparents. Taken together, these results may signify that even though male parents may feel that these policies would impact them, they would still not feel as though it was socially acceptable or economically feasible for them to actually use the policy extensively.

Respondents were also asked which part of the policy they preferred: a reduced work schedule, full-time flexible scheduling or neither. There was a significant difference as to what part of the policies that employees preferred. Full-time flexible scheduling was preferred to a significantly greater degree than reduced work schedules or neither option. This result is consistent with that of Glass and Estes (1997) that employees preferred full-time flexible scheduling to a reduced work schedule. As was mentioned in the introduction, employees don't want to and often times can't afford to

have a reduced work schedule and work less, they would rather have more flexibility and autonomy with the hours that they are already working. Nearly one-fourth of those surveyed preferred neither option. It is expected that this fourth of the respondents was composed of a majority of nonparent males and females who did not see the need for such flexible arrangements.

An additional analysis examines fairness perceptions of respondents who have never had children, but could have children in the future. This analysis was performed to determine whether or not planning to have a child in the future would influence fairness perceptions. Respondents who were either not sure or very sure about having children in the future perceived the policies are significantly more fair than did those respondents who felt they were very unlikely to have children in the future. This result is consistent with the notion that those who will be able to use a policy will perceive it to be more fair. This result expands upon previous research in that those who would have a need for a policy sometime in the future perceive the policy as more fair than those who do not foresee themselves having a need for the policy in the future.

Study Limitations and Future Research

Study limitations include limited study generalizability from a scenario to real life, limited generalizability from exempt to non-exempt employees as well as statistical considerations.

First, there is limited study generalizability of the scenario in the present study to real life. The present study used self-report responses to a hypothetical scenario, so respondents may not have reacted as strongly or realistically to the scenario as they

would have reacted to a work/family policy that had actually been implemented in their organization. Once a policy is enacted, there may be various positive and negative consequences that the employee does not have the ability to foresee. An employee who rated the policy as quite fair may not do so if the policy affects him or her more adversely in real life than expected. Similarly, there may be some employees who are very resistant to change who dislike the policy for this reason; however, once it was in place and they became accustomed to it, they would perceive the policy as more fair.

Second, hourly employees were excluded from the population, so caution must be taken when generalizing results of the present study to non-exempt employees. In the present study all survey respondents were salaried employees and nearly two-thirds supervised other people. Generally, hourly workers are most likely to be required to physically be at their work location to perform their work and have less control over their work schedules compared to salaried workers who are more likely to be supervisors and are also likely to have more autonomy. The study site specifically requested that the survey not be sent to hourly employees, such as tellers and loan officers, because of the complications of helping those employees to use full-time flexible scheduling that was included in the hypothetical policies. Flexible work arrangements do work more easily for employees with certain types of jobs, such as a computer programmer, than others where a physical presence at the work place is required, such as a bank teller. Currently employers are grappling with how to write policies that include non-exempt employees who need to physically be present at their workplace to do their jobs.

In addition, the present study found that respondents who were supervisors perceived the policies as less fair than did nonsupervisors. Non-exempt personnel would be less likely to have supervisory status; hence, if these non-exempt employees were included in the study, the grand mean of the fairness scale would most likely have been higher, providing that the non-exempt employees felt that they too would be allowed to use the policies. In the future, non-exempt employees should also be included in this type of study in order to determine what their fairness perceptions would be.

Two statistical limitations should be mentioned. First, the largest effect size in the entire study was five percent. This effect size serves as a reminder that factors other than those in the present study could also affect fairness perceptions. Another statistical consideration is that many different tests were performed. With an increasing number of tests that are performed, there is also an increasing possibility of a Type I error occurring. However, of the statistically significant results presented, 60% were at the .001 alpha level, 20% were at the .01 alpha level, and 20% were at the .05 alpha level. Had a more stringent alpha such as .01 been used, the main findings of this study would remain unchanged.

Regarding further research, three areas merit attention: fairness of the written policy versus policy implementation, research with different ratios of males and females, and correlating different productivity factors with policy usage. Each of these will be discussed in turn.

As was mentioned earlier, the supervisor supportiveness manipulation in this study could have been more salient. When the scenario stated that the supervisor would

either be supportive or unsupportive of the hypothetical policy, the respondent was given a clue as to how the policy might be implemented (i.e., either the supervisor would let employee use or not let employees use the policy in the scenario). Because the supervisor supportiveness manipulation did not work as well as was expected, respondents were truly judging the fairness of the policies, not the fairness of the policy implementation. Future research should focus on the fairness of policy implementation in order to study the supervisor supportiveness variable. Using a different methodology in the future may yield different results. For example, an experimental study in which a confederate supervisor was unsupportive of participants who wanted to use such policy may yield different results. The next step to further the body of research literature in this area would be to do a real intervention to test the fairness of the implementation of the policy rather than solely the fairness of the written policy itself.

Noting the differences in fairness perceptions, perceived future impact and likelihood of policy use that occur along gender lines, the percentage of male and female respondents in the present study also poses a generalizability issue. In the present study approximately 40% of the respondents were males and 60% were females, so results of this study generalize well to work settings that have equal numbers of male and female employees. In the future, it would be beneficial to do a study similar to the present study in a company in which there were different proportions of males and females. In the literature it is noted that work/family policies often are implemented in companies that have a majority of female employees because employees in those companies have the greatest need for work/family policies. In many industries today (e.g. law firms,

engineering firms, heavy manufacturing environments) females are far outnumbered by males. It would be beneficial to study fairness perceptions in organizations that are composed of different ratios of males and females because the culture in a highly male organization may be different than that of a highly female organization or one that has equal numbers of males and females. These cultural differences among organizations may result in different fairness perceptions among employees.

A third category of future research would deal with correlating different factors with work-family/work-life policy usage. Employers want to know the degree to which these policies increase productivity and job satisfaction as well as decrease absenteeism and turnover. It may be the case that policy usage would lead to job satisfaction and those satisfied employees would treat customers better which would eventually lead to increased customer satisfaction. If job satisfaction, productivity, absenteeism or turnover could be quantified in dollar amounts, organizations will be better able to determine what effects such policies would have on their bottom line. Employees would most likely desire to see a study that relates to policy usage and career progression to determine what effect such policies would have on their careers. As is evident, there are many factors that employers and employees are concerned about that could be correlated with policy usage. Now that more and more companies are implementing these policies, these types of correlational studies should be performed.

In conclusion the main hypothesis of the present study was supported. Parent respondents perceived both policies as equally fair while the nonparents perceived the life policy to be significantly more fair than the family policy. This study improved upon

prior research by comparing policies of different stages (i.e., Stage Two Family Policies and Stage Three Life Policies) and was one of the first studies to examine the impact of supervisor supportiveness in fairness perceptions of policies. The present study was also empirical in nature and used manipulated variables which had not been done in prior research. All of these improvements on prior research help to move the body of literature forward and provide information to employers and employees concerned with work/life issues.

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Appendix A

Adult Informed Consent Form

Attitudes about a Benefit Policy

You are invited to participate in this research study. The following information is provided in order to help you to make an informed decision whether or not to participate. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask. All Commercial Federal employees will be given this survey and are invited to participate in this study.

This study is designed to determine how fair people feel a benefit policy is. This survey will ask you to read a one-page hypothetical policy. The second page contains questions about how fair you feel that this hypothetical policy is. Reading the policy and answering the questions will take approximately 15 minutes. Please try to complete the survey and return it within two weeks to the University of Nebraska at Omaha in the stamped envelope that is provided.

This research will help advance knowledge about how people feel about benefit policies. It may also help people to design better policies in the future, although Commercial Federal is under no obligation to enact a policy similar to the one you are about to read.

Any information obtained during this study which could identify you will be kept strictly confidential. The information obtained in this study may be published in a scientific journal or presented at scientific meetings, but your identity will be kept strictly confidential. Commercial Federal will not have access to individual survey responses, but will be provided a summary of the information.

You are free to decide not to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time without adversely affecting your relationship with the investigators, the University of Nebraska at Omaha, or Commercial Federal. Your decision will not result in any loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

Thank you for your cooperation in filling out this survey.

Emily Drozd, B.A. principal investigator, 554-4811
Wayne Harrison, Ph.D., secondary investigator, 554-2452

Appendix B

Manipulations

Note to thesis committee: The policy target is parent employees and the supervisor is nonsupportive. Underlined items represent manipulations.

Please read the following paragraphs and answer the questions on the following pages.

Your company will be implementing a new policy to better help employees meet their family needs outside of work. Your job is to determine how fair the enactment of this new policy will be. The degree to which an employee can take advantage of or use the policy is up to the discretion of his or her supervisor. Imagine that your current supervisor was transferred to a different part of the company and that when this policy is implemented, you will have a new supervisor. The new supervisor has a reputation for being insensitive to the needs of working parents. You expect that your new supervisor will not be very willing to let employees use this policy.

Families with Young Children Policy

In an attempt to help employees meet their work and family needs, employees with children 12 years of age and younger will be able to use SelectTime. SelectTime has two components. The first goal of SelectTime is to allow for full-time flexible scheduling. This policy will allow employees with young children to have more control over when and where they work. Employees may take time off during the week and make it up either at work or at home at a different time. For example, if a parent has to take a sick child to the doctor and misses four hours of work, the employee will be allowed make up those hours over the course of the week at the office or at home. As another example, a parent could work at home every day from 3:30 til 5:00 to be home when a young child returns home from school. This arrangement encompasses flextime. Flextime is defined as employees being allowed to determine their starting and stopping time for work. Employees with children 12 years of age and younger will be allowed to suggest to their supervisor what type of schedule would work best for them. An employee will be allowed to take off and make up the time when and where he or she chooses so long as the employee has permission from the supervisor.

The second goal of SelectTime is to allow for a reduced work schedule. Employees with children 12 years of age and younger will be allowed to use SelectTime to reduce their work hours to no less than 25 hours per week. For example, a parent with an infant will be allowed to work from 8:00 til 2:00 pm every day for the first few months after the infant's birth in order to phase back into the job. As another example, a parent will be allowed to work 32 hours per week (8:00 to 5:00 Monday through Thursday) and not work on Friday if that schedule would better allow him or her to meet family needs.

If an employee chooses to use SelectTime to reduce his or her work schedule, pay will be prorated according to how much time is taken off. Benefits will remain at the full-time rate. Employees will be allowed to reduce their work hours so long as they receive permission from their supervisor. The individual employee's reduced work schedule will be reviewed by the employee and the supervisor on a month to month basis to ensure that it is the best possible arrangement for both the employee and supervisor.

Note to thesis committee: The policy target is parent employees and the supervisor is supportive. Underlined items represent manipulations.

Please read the following paragraphs and answer the questions on the following pages.

Your company will be implementing a new policy to better help employees meet their family needs outside of work. Your job is to determine how fair the enactment of this new policy will be. To what degree an employee will take advantage of or use the policy is up to the discretion of their supervisor. Imagine that your current supervisor was transferred to a different part of the company and that when this policy is implemented, you will have a new supervisor. The new supervisor has a reputation for being sensitive to the needs of working parents. You expect that your new supervisor will be very willing to let employees use this policy.

Families with Young Children Policy

In an attempt to help employees meet their work and family needs, employees with children 12 years of age and younger will be able to use SelectTime. SelectTime has two components. The first goal of SelectTime is to allow for full-time flexible scheduling. This policy will allow employees with young children to have more control over when and where they work. Employees may take time off during the week and make it up either at work or at home at a different time. For example, if a parent has to take a sick child to the doctor and misses four hours of work, the employee will be allowed make up those hours over the course of the week at the office or at home. As another example, a parent could work at home every day from 3:30 til 5:00 to be home when a young child returns home from school. This arrangement encompasses flextime. Flextime is defined as employees being allowed to determine their starting and stopping time for work. Employees with children 12 years of age and younger will be allowed to suggest to their supervisor what type of schedule would work best for them. An employee will be allowed to take off and make up the time when and where he or she chooses so long as the employee has permission from the supervisor.

The second goal of SelectTime is to allow for a reduced work schedule. Employees with children 12 years of age and younger will be allowed to use SelectTime to reduce their work hours to no less than 25 hours per week. For example, a parent with an infant will be allowed to work from 8:00 til 2:00 pm every day for the first few months after the infant's birth in order to phase back into the job. As another example, a parent will be allowed to work 32 hours per week (8:00 to 5:00 Monday through Thursday) and not work on Friday if that schedule would better allow him or her to meet family needs.

If an employee chooses to use SelectTime to reduce his or her work schedule, pay will be prorated according to how much time is taken off. Benefits will remain at the full-time rate. Employees will be allowed to reduce their work hours so long as they receive permission from their supervisor. The individual employee's reduced work schedule will be reviewed by the employee and the supervisor on a month to month basis to ensure that it is the best possible arrangement for both the employee and supervisor.

Note to thesis committee: The policy target is all employees and the supervisor is nonsupportive. Underlined items represent manipulations.

Please read the following paragraphs and answer the questions on the following pages.

Your company will be implementing a new policy to better help employees meet their personal needs outside of work. Your job is to determine how fair the enactment of this new policy will be. To what degree an employee will take advantage of or use the policy is up to the discretion of their supervisor. Imagine that your current supervisor was transferred to a different part of the company and that when this policy is implemented, you will have a new supervisor. The new supervisor has a reputation for being insensitive to employees' personal needs. You expect that your new supervisor will not be very willing to let employees use this policy.

Work/Life Balance Policy

In an attempt to help employees meet their work and personal needs, all employees will be able to use SelectTime. SelectTime has two components. The first goal of SelectTime is to allow for full-time flexible scheduling. This policy will allow all employees to have more control over when and where they work. Employees may take time off during the week and make it up either at work or at home at a different time. For example, if a parent has to take a sick child to the doctor and misses four hours of work, the employee will be allowed make up those hours over the course of the week at the office or at home. As another example, a parent could work at home every day from 3:30 til 5:00 to be home when a young child returns home from school. This arrangement encompasses flextime. Flextime is defined as employees being allowed to determine their starting and stopping time for work. All employees will be allowed to suggest to their supervisor what type of schedule would work best for them. An employee will be allowed to take off and make up the time when and where he or she chooses so long as the employee has permission from the supervisor.

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Note to thesis committee: The policy target is all employees and the supervisor is supportive. Underlined items represent manipulations.

Please read the following paragraphs and answer the questions on the following pages.

Your company will be implementing a new policy to better help employees meet their personal needs outside of work. Your job is to determine how fair the enactment of this new policy will be. To what degree an employee will take advantage of or use the policy is up to the discretion of their supervisor. Imagine that your current supervisor was transferred to a different part of the company and that when this policy is implemented, you will have a new supervisor. The new supervisor has a reputation for being sensitive to employees' personal needs. You expect that your new supervisor will be very willing to let employees use this policy.

Work/Life Balance Policy

In an attempt to help employees meet their work and personal needs, all employees will be able to use SelectTime. SelectTime has two components. The first goal of SelectTime is to allow for full-time flexible scheduling. This policy will allow all employees to have more control over when and where they work. Employees may take time off during the week and make it up either at work or at home at a different time. For example, if a parent has to take a sick child to the doctor and misses four hours of work, the employee will be allowed make up those hours over the course of the week at the office or at home. As another example, a parent could work at home every day from 3:30 til 5:00 to be home when a young child returns home from school. This arrangement encompasses flextime. Flextime is defined as employees being allowed to determine their starting and stopping time for work. All employees will be allowed to suggest to their supervisor what type of schedule would work best for them. An employee will be allowed to take off and make up the time when and where he or she chooses so long as the employee has permission from the supervisor.

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Appendix CQuestionnaire

Please circle the number that best describes your opinion.

1. How fair would this policy be?

Not at all fair

Extremely fair

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. How acceptable do you find this policy?

Not at all acceptable

Extremely acceptable

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. How supportive would you be of this policy if your company actually implemented it?

Not at all supportive

Extremely supportive

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Do you think implementing this policy would be the right thing for a company to do?

Not at all the right thing

Definitely the right thing

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. Please comment on your reasons for your responses to the previous four questions. _____

6. Would you use this policy?

Not at all likely

Extremely likely

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. Why or why not? _____

8. How much impact would this policy have on your life?

None

Very large impact

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

9. Why would it have that impact on your life? _____

10. Which part of this policy is most appealing to you? Circle one.

a. reduced work schedule
(working fewer hours)

b. full-time flexible scheduling
(having more control over
where and when you work)

c. flextime

d. none

11. Why? _____

Please circle one of the underlined options for each question.

12. If implemented, this policy would would not be applicable to me.

13. The new supervisor was described as supportive unsupportive of this policy.

14. An employee can use this policy only if his or her supervisor approves it. True False

Demographic Information. Please circle one of the underlined options for each question.

15. Sex Male Female

16. Please circle your age category:

20-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60+

17. I have children the following ages (circle a number in each age group).

Age 0-5 0 1 2 3 4+

Age 6-12 0 1 2 3 4+

Age 13+ 0 1 2 3 4+

18. Parental Status

I have a child twelve years of age
or younger living with me.

I do not have a child twelve years
of age or younger living with me.

19. If you **do not** have a child twelve years of age or younger living with you, how likely is it that you **will** be at some point in the future?

Not at all likely.

I am not sure.

Very likely.

20. I supervise other people at work.

Yes

No