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ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE AND THE PERCEIVED FAIRNESS OF WORK-FAMILY PROGRAMS AND POLICY

by

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Abstract

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This study examined the relationship between two major constructs, organizational justice (distributive and procedural justice) and affectivity. Organizational justice was investigated empirically in a new context: employees' perceptions of work-family programs. Although organizational justice typically has been studied in negative contexts, the findings demonstrate that the theory can be applied successfully to a situation that is inherently positive. In addition, findings show that integrating distributive and procedural justice items is more effective than including only one construct in the measurement of organizational justice. Finally, this study is believed to be the first organizational justice research that included a valid measure of both negative and positive affect. The findings demonstrate that affect is an important consideration when examining fairness. Studying perceptions of fairness of work-family programs also provides information about an initiative that is considered very important by many organizations.

One hundred and eighty-nine survey responses from individuals who work in varied organizations were analyzed. The survey included demographic questions and scales used in assessing affectivity, distributive and procedural perceptions of fairness of work-family programs, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, and turnover intention. Results suggest that positive and negative affectivity, but not demographics such as sex, marital and parental status, predicted perceptions of fairness. Perceptions of fairness served as a mediator, significantly predicting job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention. The variance in these three outcome variables was best explained when items measuring both distributive and procedural justice questions were included in the analyses. Theoretical and applied implications of these findings and study limitations are discussed and suggestions for future research are given.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

For over four decades psychologists have studied perceived justice and fairness in a variety of social interactions (Brockner, Tyler & Cooper-Schneider, 1992; Greenberg, 1986; Homans, 1961; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). The importance of applying these concepts to organizational situations is recognized widely and related topics, such as fair employment testing, equitable pay, and the just resolution of employee grievances, have received a great deal of scholarly attention (Bies & Shapiro, 1987; Bretz & Thomas, 1992; Jacques, 1961). A variety of specific work behaviors and attitudes such as amount of effort expended, intention to leave (Sweeney, 1990); employee citizenship (Moorman, 1991); and satisfaction with leaders (Tyler & Caine, 1981) have been linked to perceptions of fairness. Justice is accepted as a basic requirement for both the effective functioning of organizations and overall employee satisfaction (Moore, 1978; Okun, 1975, as cited in Greenberg, 1990). These and various other attempts to describe and explain the role of fairness in the workplace have been termed organizational justice.

Organizational justice theory has been developed and tested broadly over the past forty years. The constructs most widely recognized and commonly applied adhere to one of two main principles: distributive justice or procedural justice. The distributive justice approach was generated first and focuses on the content and perceived fairness of outcomes (Adams 1963; Jacques, 1961; Homans, 1961). The basic premise of distributive justice is that when employees feel adequately compensated by the organization they consider the relationship fair. As the field matured and the limitations of distributive justice were discovered a second construct, procedural justice, was developed (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). The focus of procedural justice approaches is on the decision making process and perceived fairness of the means used in achieving outcomes. According to procedural justice, employees will feel justly treated if the way in which important decisions are made is considered fair. Procedural justice currently receives the most attention in the literature because it was developed more recently and is still being refined. However, distributive justice remains a crucial portion of the complete comprehension of justice in organizations. The constructs should be seen as two complimentary pieces, each adding to our understanding of justice.

A review of the distributive and procedural justice literature showed that researchers have utilized both justice constructs frequently. Early researchers focused mainly on construct development, while most contemporary researchers center on developing new methods and applications for the theories. This appears merited in the case of distributive justice because a great deal of early research demonstrated that its most common conceptualization (equity theory) accurately reflects underlying cognitive processes (Homans, 1961; Middlemist & Peterson, 1976; Patchen, 1961; Ronen, 1986). Being the newer conceptualization, all the components of procedural justice have not been studied comprehensively. The exact nature of the construct is still being examined but some thoughtful research has been conducted (Barrett-Howard & Tyler, 1986; Greenberg, 1986a; Sheppard & Lewicki, 1987). Psychologists have built supportive evidence for both major constructs, and this study, which expands upon these developments, is another step toward comprehending the influence of justice in organizations. This study increased the comprehension of justice because it examined the role of affectivity on perceptions of fairness, the interaction of both constructs of organizational justice, and the application of fairness in a new domain: work-family programs. These contributions are discussed below and in greater detail in the discussion section.

Researchers have expressed concern over the methods used in of some organizational justice studies because of a lack of concern for participants' negative affect. Two issues related to affect have emerged in the literature. First, in some studies, experimental manipulations such as telling an individual that he or she is not qualified for a simple job, may have resulted in diminished self-esteem or self-efficacy, which could possibly cause a state of negative affect, or some other mood disturbance. However, manipulation checks regarding state affect or efficacy were not included in the studies (Pinder, 1984). Second, researchers such as Adams and Rosenbaum (1962) and Watson, Pennebaker and Folger (1987) have expressed general concern that the trait of negative affectivity may operate as a nuisance factor in areas of organizational research such as organizational justice. In other words, if left unmeasured or ignored, the trait or state of negative affect may act as a moderator that obscures the true relationship between predictors and criterion.

In this study, trait measures of both negative and positive affect were included. A trait measure was used because the context of the current study was not inherently negative, and there was no manipulation of the situation that may have caused participants to experience a particularly negative affective state. Both negative and positive affect were included in the study because it seemed probable that positive affect would be just as likely as negative affect to skew a person's perceptions of fairness, only in the opposite direction. Hypotheses including affectivity as a main effect and a control variable were investigated. It was possible that individuals' negative or positive affect, their predisposition to view situations with anxiety or enthusiasm, respectively, could in and of itself, have a strong affect on perceptions of fairness. It was also possible that affect could mask the effects of the other independent variables. The current study is believed to be the first organizational justice research that includes valid measures of both positive and negative affectivity. Results show that both affective traits, but not sex, race, job level, family status, belief in the value of the programs or the need for them, predict a significant amount of variance in perceptions of fairness.

Many researchers have also suggested strongly that the two conceptualizations of organizational justice no longer be considered in isolation (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Barrett-Howard & Tyler, 1986; Folger, 1987; Greenberg, 1990). It has been postulated that both distributive and procedural justice are crucial for the complete understanding of fairness and that integrating the approaches would add to the comprehension and prediction of perceptions of organizational justice. Because there is some evidence (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Lind and Tyler; 1988) that the two constructs affect various outcomes differently, one important step in the integration process is the continued examination of the predictive power of each component. This study helped determine ways in which both constructs affect specific behavioral and attitudinal outcomes. It demonstrated that procedural justice was a better predictor of organizational commitment and job satisfaction, but that the addition of a distributive justice measure increased the power to predict both of these attitudinal outcomes. Intention to leave was also significantly predicted by perceptions of fairness with both constructs adding about an equal amount of predictive power.

This study also contributes to the understanding of organizational justice by broadening the scope of situations to which justice theories are applied. In the past, researchers typically studied situations that are obviously unjust, such as blatant pay inequity. However, some work circumstances are not flagrantly unfair. As Greenberg (1990) points out, many everyday organizational situations, such as who covers the phones during lunch, are seemingly benign but actually could be problematic if they result in perceptions of unfair treatment. This study has expanded the application of organizational justice theory by examining one such situation: the implementation of work-family programs. Work-family programs are ideally suited for this purpose because the programs are not inherently undesirable nor unfair; they are usually regarded as an employee benefit and a positive addition to the organization. However, work-family programs provide a context in which benefits cannot apply equally to all employees and could lead to decisions based upon an employee's family needs. The results of this study indicate that perceptions of fairness vary within this type of context.

Work-family programs are obviously needed in the challenging lives of employees with family responsibilities. The programs were developed in response to the negative effects of work-family conflict and, in the 1980's, many organizations reevaluated and restructured their HR practices accordingly (Friedman and Galinsky, 1991; Galen, Palmer & Maremont, 1993; Hammonds, 1996). As organizations continue struggling with attracting and retaining good employees, some of whom are working parents, work-family programs continue growing in scope and complexity (Jackson, 1992; Morrison, 1992). Work-family balance has become a major diversity initiative in many organizations and formal programs such as the provision child care facilities or subsidies, elder care assistance and alternative work schedules are now commonplace in many companies. By 1992 for example, 55% of the largest companies in thirty different industries provided child care assistance and 77% offered flextime as a work-family initiative (Galinsky, 1992). In an effort to remain competitive in industry and aligned with internal strategies, managers have become more aware of and sensitive to employees with family needs.

It seems probable that a great number of employees and organizations have benefited from work-family programs. Researchers have reported a considerable number of positive findings regarding the effects of family-friendly programs on participants' attitudes and behaviors (Hartman, Stoner & Arora, 1991; Hammonds, 1996; Olson & Primps, 1984). For example, child care provisions have been linked to reduced turnover and increased productivity, organizational commitment, and morale for employees who use the services (Friedman, 1991; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Compressed work weeks (working 3-4 longer days per week) also have a positive effect on employees with families. This type of schedule is believed to significantly reduce work-family conflict, turnover and absenteeism while increasing job satisfaction, productivity, efficiency, morale and the general reputation of the organization with prospective employees (Dunham, Pierce & Castaneda, 1987, Galen, Palmer & Maremont, 1993).

These and other similar findings are very encouraging and there is little doubt that work-family programs have a positive organizational impact. However, potentially negative consequences have been ignored because it was assumed that the employees who do not need work-family programs would remain unaffected by their existence. Yet, the general emphasis on families in many organizations may have made these employees feel that their personal life choices were not recognized. Individuals who do not need them may have perceived the programs as unfair. The basic tenets of organizational justice theory state that benefits should be distributed equitably and through decision making processes that are fair to all employees. Family-friendly policies may sometimes have been developed without consideration for the these tenets. Some policies (e.g., child and elder care) benefit only certain employees while others (e.g., flextime) can be implemented on the basis of demonstrated family needs. Because only about 38% of employees have children under 18 at home and by the year 2010 it is estimated that nearly 31 million couples will choose to be childless (Lafayette, 1994) many employees may not now or ever benefit from some of these programs.

Recent articles in newspapers and the popular press have demonstrated that these concerns could be more than speculation. A growing number of employees without family needs have expressed that they feel slighted by the amount of attention and resources organizations devote specifically to families (Flynn, 1996; Jones, 1995; Lafayette, 1994). It is understandable that this problem may seem trivial to workers who benefit from work-family programs or irrelevant to individuals who are not easily influenced by fairness issues. In all likelihood, employees without care-giving responsibilities have fewer problems balancing work and non-work roles and have no use for certain work-family programs. It seems that the programs would be benign to the employees who do not use them, but according to organizational justice theory there could be valid points of contention. A great deal of money is spent on workers with families. For example, the IBM company created a $22 million fund to improve child care facilities and another $3 million to expand elder care services near organizational sites, and AT&T provided a $10 million fund for similar projects (Friedman & Galinsky, 1991). It is extremely doubtful that organizations are making equivalent expenditures (such as athletic facilities or cash subsidies) for benefits for other employees (Jones, 1995). In terms of equity theory the entire employment package (pay plus all other benefits or perquisites) is an important part of compensation, but expenditures made for the sole benefit of employees with families are often greater than those made for employees without family needs. Additionally, some employees without family responsibilities have stated that they are required to work longer or harder without additional compensation because their managers think there will be no detrimental effects to their personal lives (Galen, Palmer & Maremont, 1993; Jones, 1995; Rapoport & Bailyn, 1996). These employees have protested that because they have fewer or less obvious family responsibilities their personal lives have been given less credence (Jones, 1995). Finally, some programs which may have been developed initially for employees with family needs (e.g., telecommuting or compressed work weeks) could also benefit other employees, but may be restricted to those with families because of organizational policy or culture (Rapoport & Bailyn, 1996).

There is no evidence that employees who are single, childless and without elder care responsibilities would like to see work-family benefits revoked nor that they think that work-family programs are intrinsically wrong. Almost anyone can appreciate that parents need assistance in balancing their lives and can recognize the social and psychological benefits of parents who have the time to properly guide and supervise their children. However, there is growing anecdotal testimony that a potentially large group of employees feel left out, overworked and slighted by their employers' focus on workers with families.

Some of these employees have publicly stated that they want equal treatment and benefits regardless of lifestyle choices or circumstances.

The flaws inherent in focusing solely on family are slowly becoming clearer to a few organizations. A small number of progressive companies (e.g., Eastman-Kodak, Marriott and Quaker Oats) have broadened their programs and now focus on work-life initiatives which include a wider range of activities and benefits. True work-life programs aid a diverse workforce, offering a wide set of options that assist people with varied lifestyles and needs. Work-life programs are more broad and include options such as domestic partner benefits and a resource line helping employees with practical matters such as buying a car or home remodeling (Flynn, 1996). Others allow employees to choose their benefits from a menu including a wide range of extras such as funding for education, paid vacation days or health insurance for children (Lafayette, 1994). However, these broad work-life balance programs are an infrequent exception to the work-family rule. It is more likely that most companies have simply changed the name of their work-family initiatives to work-life, making their policies appear more inclusive. Consider for example, a recent article in HR Magazine entitled "Work-Life programs reap business benefits" (Neely-Martinez, 1997). Using the term "work-life" in the title strongly implies that programs benefiting a wide range of employees will be discussed, yet nearly the entire article is about the benefits of allowing women to bring babies to the office.

Other employees may perceive work-family programs as unfair because of the dissimilar application of work-family policies within subgroups of workers with families.

There is evidence that some employees perceive that they can utilize the programs more easily than others. Empirical studies conducted by the Families and Work Institute revealed that managers and professionals, non-minority employees and women often perceive that they have a greater right or permission to use various work-family policies than non-professionals, minority employees, and men (Schwartz, 1994). In addition, there is anecdotal and survey evidence that work-family benefits are not imparted fairly to all employees with families. In 1996, Business Week conducted their first work-family survey of 500 employees in 37 different companies of varying sizes and industries and found that men were more likely than women to say that their employers expected long hours no matter how it affected their families. Findings also indicated that lower level employees felt that most family-friendly benefits were offered mainly to managers (Hammonds, 1996). When Business Week conducted a similar study of 12,000 employees from 55 companies the following year they found similar results. Beyond the top tier, employees with family needs did not feel the benefits of work-family programs and men expressed greater frustration in gaining work-family benefits than did women. The results of the survey also showed that large differences occur among work areas: many employees complained that while official policies were very pro-family, their individual departments were clearly not in line with the corporate strategy (Hammonds, Furchgott, Hamm & Judge, 1997).

As evidenced by the growing number of popular press articles written on these topics (Flynn, 1996; Hammonds, 1996; Hammonds, Furchgott, Hamm & Judge, 1997; Lafayette, 1994; Jones, 1995), employees who are disgruntled by work-family policy and practice are becoming more vocal and increasingly adamant about their claims. Therefore, a logical step in the progression of work-family research was the study of unexpected outcomes related to perceptions of fairness of work-family programs. A great number of organizations spend significant amounts of money and time developing and sustaining work-family programs; knowing how those efforts affect all their employees is important. The current study examined each of these issues further and found that many of the attributes discussed in the aforementioned articles: sex, marital status, number of dependents, job level, race, and need for work-family programs, were not significantly related to perceptions of fairness of work-family programs. Positive and negative affect were the only significant predictors of perceptions of fairness.

The major justice theories are reviewed in the following chapter, and the need to integrate and expand the theories is discussed. Subsequently, a more detailed description of work-family programs and findings are presented. Finally, the current study and findings are discussed in greater detail.

Chapter 2

Organizational Justice

Organizational justice theorists seek to explain and predict employees' perceptions of fairness in the workplace and the effects of those perceptions on work behaviors. The importance of justice became recognized widely when Adams (1963) stated that fairness was a pervasive concern in industry and was not simply a matter of getting "a fair day's pay for a fair day's work." Since then the field has grown considerably and its evolution is outlined in this chapter. The major theoretical concepts are reviewed and research studies are critiqued; this discussion furnishes knowledge of the different constructs and clarifies the ways in which continued research is needed. Because there are literally hundreds of studies involving organizational justice, only particularly important studies or those that demonstrate key principles are discussed in detail.

Distributive Justice

Equity theory. The earliest conceptualization and the only consistently recognized theory of distributive justice is Adams' (1963) equity theory. Based on the notion of social exchange and conceptualized as a special case of cognitive dissonance, equity theory is an evaluation of social relationships in which individuals make investments and expect certain returns. More specifically, Adams explained the processes by which individuals evaluate events that occur in the workplace: relationships between the employee and the organization.

The basic premise of equity theory is that individuals actively contemplate what they bring into a situation; these are perceived inputs such as experience or education. They also consider what they gain in exchange which are outcomes such as pay or job title. The key in understanding inputs and outcomes is the realization that only those that are perceived by an individual as existent and valuable are relevant. When evaluating their work situations, employees cognitively construct ratios of inputs to outcomes for themselves and for another person (or group) who is perceived as similar; this person is called a "referent other." Adams stated that the referent other is most likely a coworker; however, if there is no coworker with whom the individual can realistically compare oneself (he/she works alone or there is no other person with a similar position in the organization), the person will look elsewhere. In these situations, the referent other even can be oneself at a previous job or a person in another organization with a similar job. The employee then compares the two ratios and if they are perceived as equal, the work situation is considered fair. However, if the ratios are perceived as unequal, the individual will feel either over- or under-compensated.

Adams posits that the perception of inequity will cause cognitive dissonance and create tension within the individual, who will then seek the restoration of equity. The amount of tension created is dependent upon individual differences in tolerance of inequity; and the strength of the motivation to restore equity is proportional to the amount of tension experienced. Equity restoration may occur in several ways, the individual may raise or lower his/her own inputs (e.g., increase education or work less time), outcomes (e.g., ask for a raise), leave the organization or field, cognitively distort his/her own inputs, cognitively distort the inputs or outcomes of the referent other, or change the referent other. Adams stated that the nature of the input and outcome discrepancies, individual personalities and aspects of the situation will influence which option is chosen, but that most people will find distorting perceptions cognitively difficult and leaving one's job a very extreme outcome.

Research findings and critique. Since it was first proposed, organizational psychologists have utilized equity theory quite extensively. It quickly gained wide acceptance because it has a basic intuitive appeal. In addition to inherent face validity, a substantial body of literature has supported equity theory. Although there is a great deal of support for it, equity theory is not without detractors. The following discussion of the key components, major findings and criticisms of equity theory will begin the chronicle of the evolution of organizational justice.

The referent other is one of the key components of Adams' theory. There are several studies providing evidence that the existence of a referent other is a valid assumption. Early evidence was provided by studies outlined by Pritchard (1969). Adams cited these first studies, some of which are unpublished, in support of equity theory. For example: Homans (1953, as cited in Pritchard, 1969) conducted open-ended interviews with two groups of female clerical workers who differed with respect to level of job responsibility, but not salary. When the nineteen workers with the higher responsibility jobs were asked "How do you like your job?" eleven spontaneously said that they should get more money than the women in the lower positions. This and several other early findings reported by Pritchard clearly imply that a comparison had taken place without any prompting. More direct evidence is provided by Goodman (1974) who examined how and with whom comparisons were made by gathering survey and interview data from 214 managers in one organization. As directed, the managers created input/outcome ratios by comparing themselves with three different referents: former self, other (coworkers, friends, neighbors, etc.) and system (the implied contract between the individual and the employer). Goodman found that an imbalance in the input/outcome ratio for each type of referent comparison was significantly associated with pay dissatisfaction. Summers and DeNisi (1990) improved the Goodman (1974) study by including a measure of perceived pay fairness in addition to pay satisfaction and by utilizing a broader, national sample. Their survey included eight items measuring different types of comparisons (e.g. "How does your pay compare to...others working in your company...your pay for previous jobs?"). The findings support the Goodman (1974) study and also significantly link the three key comparisons of self, other and system to perceived fairness.

While these and other findings support Adams' conceptualization of the referent other, some researchers have criticized the many studies utilizing equity theory in which the issue of the referent other has not been addressed (Austin, McGinn & Susmilch, 1980; Ronen, 1986). For example, Bretz and Thomas (1992) examined the performance of major league baseball players before and after salary arbitration and concluded that their findings supported equity theory because the players who lost in arbitration exhibited a decline in performance. However, Bretz and Thomas never gathered information regarding with whom each player compared himself. Although the implicit other in this study is the previous self (the player in pre-arbitration play), it also could be a player with the same position on a different team, or a player on the same team who makes similar batting and defensive contributions. Without specifying the comparison other the other's input/outcome ratio cannot be specified; therefore the equity hypothesis cannot be investigated.

Also, it is possible that some referents have been left out. As preliminary work for the current study I collected data on referents by conducting thirty minute loosely structured interviews with five individuals and by distributing surveys including either open-ended or forced-choice questions on referents to 52 additional people (see Appendix A for question format). These people worked in a wide variety of industries and jobs. When answering open-ended or interview questions some individuals mentioned different referents than those typically discussed in the equity literature. Several people talked about an internal standard related to a personal belief system that they use when making judgments of outcomes. For example, when asked why he thought his work situation was unfair one interview participant said that his boss treats him in a way that he would not personally treat another person. Several others compared themselves to a manager or subordinate. One woman stated that she felt unfairly treated because she "does all the work" and her "boss gets all the credit," while another said that she was paid less than a new employee who was her subordinate. These examples illustrate one of the difficulties in working with equity theory; the identification of a specific comparison other. The referent could be any of several plausible options who may or may not be physically present, and who could be internal or external.

Another crucial aspect of equity theory involves the input to outcome ratio. Again, several researchers have conducted studies that support Adams' original conceptualizations. In an early study, Patchen (1961) had skilled and unskilled workers describe two people whose earnings were different than their own and report their degree of satisfaction with their own pay as compared to the pay the others received. When asked in an open-ended question why they were satisfied or not with their pay the participants gave reasons very similar to the types of inputs and outcomes Adams discussed such as seniority, age, experience and job requirements. Other researchers have measured the importance of particular inputs or outcomes. For example, Flinder and Hauenstein (1995) specifically had participants rate the importance of a monetary bonus (received as an outcome in a laboratory experiment). This methodology is useful in understanding how much individuals value any particular input or outcome.

Although the results from these and other studies have demonstrated that people consider and differentially value various inputs and outcomes, it has been argued that the complexity of the relationship between inputs and outcomes make application of the theory difficult (Alessio, 1980; Anderson, 1976). In reality, individual differences in the identification and salience of inputs and outcomes have made detailed interpersonal comparisons methodologically challenging. Knowing which dimensions are being considered by each individual or understanding how those dimensions are weighted in terms of personal importance is very difficult. For example, one employee may consider the inputs of education and intelligence most important, while for another, the most salient inputs may be age and experience. In addition, knowing whether a person will consider a variable an input or an outcome is not always possible (Pritchard, 1969). Job responsibility, for instance, is an input for some employees while others consider it a reward or outcome. Adams (1963) offered a basic framework for understanding by stating that an input or outcome is notable "If the recipient considers it relevant to the exchange and it has some marginal utility. It has to be meaningful to that person" (p.9). This however, does not really guide the researcher interested in understanding the specifics of how the ratios are constructed or whether such ratios accurately represent people's actual cognitive processes.

The final key piece of the theory deals with behavioral changes in response to perceived inequity. There is a great deal of empirical evidence that people make specific behavioral changes when they perceive that a situation is unfair. For example, Goodman and Friedman (1971) reported that in a laboratory piece-rate situation overpaid individuals increased their inputs by producing higher quality output, but in smaller quantities. In another laboratory piece-rate study, underpaid individuals decreased the quality of their work while increasing the quantity (Pritchard, Dunette & Jorgenson, 1972).

Although under- and over-payment have been by far the most frequently studied scenarios, status symbols have also been studied as an outcome. Greenberg (1988) noted that workers temporarily reassigned to higher status offices demonstrated increased performance while those temporarily reassigned to lower status offices decreased their performance. The size of the performance changes were significantly related to the magnitude of the status inconsistencies imposed: those employees who were moved into offices intended for individuals two levels above/below them changed their performance more than those moved just one level. The author reported that this finding is evidence that, as Adams theorized, the magnitude of equity resolution effort is proportional to the magnitude of the inequity. Greenberg & Ornstein (1983) had previously reported similar findings related to job title: individuals who were given inappropriately high job titles increased their job performance. There is also some supporting evidence that individuals make cognitive changes in an attempt to restore equity. For instance, pay can alter participants' cognitive perceptions of a task; those who are over compensated rate the task as more difficult than those fairly compensated, thus increasing their perceived inputs (Gergen, Morse & Bode, 1974).

These studies demonstrate how people react in various organizational situations, but because most research has focused on reactions to under or over-payment, many of the outcomes Adams discussed (e.g., benefits and supervisory treatment) have not received much attention. When Grover (1991) studied the perceived fairness of legislated parental leave policy he conducted one of the few studies not related to pay or performance appraisal. However as Grover illustrated, fairness is a concern that could potentially be an issue in a much wider array of organizational situations. We do not know how important distributive justice is in seemingly innocuous situations or, as in the proposed study, situations that are typically viewed positively.

Other researchers have expressed concern over issues not related directly to the various components of the theory per se, but to the methods of studies and the narrow focus of the equity concept in general. For instance, there are situations in which the state or trait of negative affect may have obscured findings. In some studies, a state of negative affect could have been unintentionally created because of the way perceptions of inputs were manipulated. For example, in a number of studies people were told that they did not possess the necessary qualifications for the job. It was assumed that this would result in feelings of inequity by lowering the individual's perceived inputs. Yet it is very easy to imagine that instead of lowering perceived inputs, this manipulation caused diminished self-esteem or self-efficacy for participants (Pinder, 1984). Similar issues can be seen in the previously discussed Greenberg (1988) and Greenberg and Ornstein (1985) studies regarding the reassignment of office space and assignment of job titles, respectively. It is possible that the individuals who were reassigned to the lower level offices or who were given lower than deserved job titles experienced feelings of demoralization which instead of (or in addition to) inequity, caused diminished performance. Any of these inadvertent outcomes, such as lowered self-efficacy or demoralization may have created a state of negative affect, but no manipulation checks of this type were included.

Other concerns about the trait of negative affect surfaced as a concern of Adams and Rosenbaum as early as 1962. However there is no evidence until 1989 that researchers attempted to address the possible confound of affective variables. At that time Folger and Konovsky (1989) conducted a study on pay raise decisions that included a measure gauging individuals' inclination to respond negatively, regardless of the situation. The scale was used as a means of controlling the effect of negative affect on the true relationship between fairness and pay satisfaction. The researchers included the scale in response to a Watson, Pennebaker and Folger (1987) warning that negative affectivity may operate as a nuisance factor in many areas of organizational research. There were no significant findings related to negative affect in the Folger and Konovsky (1989) study. However, this may have happened because they included only the negative items from the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) which is a measure of both negative and positive affectivity. Although there is convergent, discriminant and factorial evidence that positive and negative affect are separate constructs (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988), using only the negative questions from the PANAS could have produced some type of response bias that may have rendered the scale invalid. David Watson (one of the authors of the PANAS) agrees with the relevance of this suspicion (D. Watson, personal correspondence, April 6, 1998). Considering this problem and other research evidence that negative affectivity can obscure the relationship between predictors and criteria in areas such as organizational goal setting, performance appraisal, and compensation systems (Brief, Burke, Atieh, Robinson & Watson, 1988) the trait should be studied further in relation to organizational justice.

When studying affect related to perceptions of fairness, it seems probable that two additional issues should be addressed. First, the trait of positive affectivity could also be an influencing factor. It is probable that individuals with high negative affect, who tend to view situations with a general sense of anxiety and distress, are likely to perceive a situation as unfair. Then it is also possible that people with high positive affect, who tend to experience situations with a sense of enthusiasm and pleasurable engagement, may be more likely to perceive that a situation is fair. Second, because both of these traits have been linked to sensitivity to signals of reward and punishment (Tellegen, 1985, as cited in Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988) it also seems reasonable that they may be more than a nuisance factor in the study of organizational justice. Considering negative and positive affect as personality traits that may independently predict perceptions of fairness is also reasonable.

A final concern that has been expressed about equity theory has to do with Adams' narrow conceptualization of fairness. The theory is based on the assumption that individuals' perceptions are solely and universally affected by one model of fairness, the equity model. Deutsch (1975) argued that the distribution of valued resources can occur in accordance with any of three distribution rules: equity, need, or equality. Equity theory is based on the equity distribution rule which states that the greater a person's contribution, the greater outcomes he/she should receive. However, research indicates that judgments of fairness can also be based on the need rule, where the people who demonstrate the greatest lack of some valued commodity receive the greatest outcomes, or the equality rule where everyone is given exactly the same outcome (Leventhal, Karuza & Fry, 1980).

This relatively long list of criticisms (lack of attention paid to the referent other and affect, difficulty measuring inputs and outcomes, untested outcomes, and the theory's exclusive focus on the equity distribution rule) illustrates a number of problems psychologists have encountered applying equity theory. However, the majority of criticisms are methodological in nature and are, therefore, correctable. Researchers have successfully studied the key components described by Adams and can continue to examine cognitive processes if it is crucial to their research. For example, they can include questions that inquire specifically about with whom individuals compare themselves. Also, because there is evidence that people consider and place differential value upon inputs and outcomes (Flinder & Hauenstein, 1995; Patchen, 1961) a researcher can ask participants to list and rank order what they believe they bring to the job and what they expect to get in return, thus more clearly defining inputs and outcomes. These things are not done easily, but are certainly possible if a researcher is interested in the process of deciding fairness as well as the fairness perception. Additionally, the inclusion of manipulation checks such as measures of various emotions or measures of trait affectivity will help us better understand the relationship between affectivity and perceptions of fairness.

Furthermore, the conceptual criticism of equity theory regarding the different distribution rules is debatable. While the need and equality based rules are applicable in some cases, the method by which valued goods are distributed is closely linked to the situation being studied as well as cultural context. A theory used to explain judgments of fairness being made in the workplace by Americans (or people in other Western capitalist countries) is very reasonably based on the equity distribution criterion. No theory is applicable in all situations or necessarily in all cultures, and this theory was devised as an explanation of judgments made by individuals in organizations in an extremely individualistic society. While many Americans believe in need distribution rules or the equality distribution criterion in other social situations (e.g., welfare and public education), there is no evidence that those ideals pertain to beliefs about the distribution of pay, status, or resources in the workplace.

One should recognize also that some of the criticisms do not affect validity or negate the research findings. As it stands equity theory is useful in many pragmatic ways in organizations. Miner (1980) described equity as one of the more valid frameworks available for understanding human motivation. Because of the studies previously conducted we understand many of the circumstances leading individuals to perceive inequity and some of the ways those perceptions will affect behavior. Through the existing literature we also recognize the basic process people go through before they perceive inequity, which is useful in preventing it. This is not to say that studying the theory as it was originally asserted is unimportant; one must examine all components of a theory to know if it describes behaviors and thought processes correctly. The point is that although past studies have not always aptly tested each of the finer points of the original assumptions, there is a great deal of evidence showing that equity theory is useful. Although there have been many criticisms, major reviewers of this theory such as Cohen (1987), Greenberg (1990) and Pritchard (1969), have suggested that there is sufficient empirical evidence which infers that the basic cognitive processes Adams (1963) discussed are valid.

Even if all the methodological and conceptual concerns were rectified, equity theory alone still does not provide the framework needed for a full understanding of fairness. The strongest evidence of the theory's limitations occurred when it became apparent that the outcome of a situation was not the only factor that individuals considered important in judgments of fairness (Greenberg & Folger, 1983). Lind and Tyler (1988) illustrated this problem with the following example: A woman experienced a favorable outcome in a court hearing regarding a traffic violation. She won her case yet she was angry and dissatisfied with the judge and the court in general. She felt unfairly treated because after taking time off from her job and preparing for the hearing, the judge dismissed the case without a hearing. Theories based upon distributive justice are outcome-based and offer no means by which this reaction can be explained. Furthermore, in an organizational setting, Bies (1987) found that interpersonal treatment was more important than the hiring decision in fairness evaluations of job interviews. Apparently, there are occasions when individuals pay attention to the way decisions are made instead of or in addition to concentrating on the outcome of the decision; procedures are more than a means to an end. These examples demonstrate a need to expand the investigation of organizational justice by including procedural justice theories that are based upon process considerations.

Procedural Justice

Basic tenets. In recent years, the focus of organizational justice researchers has turned to procedural justice, which is defined as the perceived fairness of the means used to make a decision (Greenberg & Tyler, 1987). This theoretical approach differs from distributive justice in that attention is centered on the fairness of the policies and procedures used to make decisions, rather than on outcomes. The information considered by the decision-maker is critical, and fairness is assessed by taking into account the events that lead up to and accompany the outcome.

Thibaut and Walker. Insight into the significance of procedures and processes began when Thibaut and Walker (1975) theorized that perceptions of fairness would differ according to the amount of control individuals had over procedures (process control) versus over outcomes (decision control). The researchers studied this issue by examining disputants' reactions to simulated courtroom dispute resolution mechanisms (arbitration). During a series of these studies, they consistently found that verdicts (outcomes) resulting from procedures that allowed process control were perceived as more fair than those that denied process control, regardless of the verdict. Process control has since been found to be important in other varied situations such as: citizens' encounters with police (Tyler & Folger, 1980), students' reactions to teachers (Tyler & Caine, 1984) and voters' evaluations of elected officials (Tyler, Rasinski & McGraw, 1985, as cited in Greenberg, 1990).

The majority of process control research has been conducted in the legal area, but a few studies have been done in organizations examining performance appraisals. Lawler (1967; as cited in Landy, Barnes & Murphy, 1987) proposed that one of the key variables affecting the ultimate success of an evaluation system is employees' attitudes toward the fairness of performance assessments. When Landy, Barnes and Murphy (1978) conducted a study investigating Lawler's proposition they found that perceptions of fairness regarding evaluations were correlated with process variables. Issues such as voice (the ability to express feelings during the appraisal) and the supervisor's level of knowledge about the employee's performance were significantly related to employees' perceptions of fairness. The researchers later concluded that the caliber of the appraisal may have influenced employees' perceptions and the findings were replicated in a second study in which there was control for outcomes (Landy, Barnes-Farrell & Cleveland, 1980).

The importance of voice in performance appraisals was further established in a study by Dipboye and de Pontbraind (1981). Participants gave their opinions about the appraisal process by answering 12 descriptive questions regarding their last performance appraisal. Employees' opinions about the appraisal system were most positive when they had the opportunity to state their own side of the issues. This study is commonly cited as evidence for Thibaut and Walker's theory (Barrett-Howard & Tyler, 1986; Gilliland, 1993; Greenberg, 1990) yet it seems questionable whether it is actually about fairness. The dependent measure used was favorability of opinion regarding the appraisal, measured using questions such as "How favorable was the appraisal relative to your expectations?" This is not the same construct as fairness. If something is favorable it is pleasing or advantageous, whereas fairness refers to something being just, honest, or impartial. In addition, merely voicing one's opinion may not always be the same as process control. If your opinion is stated but not considered or acted upon there is no real control.

Thibaut and Walker helped expand the concept of fairness by including process control. Their theory prescribes broad circumstances (i.e., when a person has some say or control) in which procedures will produce outcomes that are judged as fair. However, it is of limited use for two reasons. First, there are no specific definitions of which (if any) distinct facets of process control are key in the evaluation of fairness. Process control is a very broad concept, which may encompass several factors or apply to different situations (such as the seven structural components offered by Leventhal, 1980; which are discussed in the next section). Second, the theory is still embedded in outcomes. Process control describes procedures by looking at them as a path leading to a final decision. A model evaluating process alone would completely disregard the outcome, allowing the procedures to become the lone focus. That way a judgment of fairness would be made considering only the process, with the outcome remaining irrelevant. This is important because knowledge of the outcome could bias the entire evaluation process. Only if you do not know the outcome is it likely that an independent unbiased evaluation of the process can occur. This is not to say that Thibaut and Walker's theory is without value. Their work prompted organizational psychologists to begin studying process separately and in addition to outcomes, leading to new theories of procedural justice.

Leventhal's model of procedural justice. Leventhal (1980) added to the organizational justice literature by developing a more structural and detailed approach to process control. His model can be applied to various situations, and describes how people make evaluations of fairness without considering outcomes. Leventhal proposed that people develop cognitive maps of the settings and social systems in which they function. These maps consist of seven structural components to which individuals apply six justice rules as a means of evaluating fairness. These structural components and justice rules are listed in Table 1.

Table 1

Summary of Leventhal's (1980) Seven Structural Components and Six Justice Rules Regarding Allocation Decisions.

Structural Components

1. Selecting agents to gather information and make the decision.

2. Setting ground rules and establishing criteria for receiving an allocation.

3. Gathering information.

4. Defining the decision structure.

5. Processing appeals from the decision.

6. Safeguarding the procedure by monitoring and sanctioning the behavior of those who participate in the procedure.

7. Providing mechanisms for changing the procedure when it is not working properly.

Justice Rules

1. Consistency Rule. Allocation procedures must be consistent across people and over time. All people who are affected by the allocation should be treated equally, and the same allocation rules should be followed each time they are used.

2. Bias Suppression Rule. Personal self-interest and blind allegiance to narrow preconceptions should be prevented. People with a vested interest in the

allocation should not make decisions. In addition, to ensure that all points of view are considered, the decision-maker should not be overly influenced by prior beliefs.

3. Accuracy Rule. Decisions should be based on as much good, accurate information as possible.

4. Correctability Rule. Opportunities must exist to modify or reverse the decisions made. Appeals should not rely on the opinion of the original decision-maker.

5. Representation Rule. This rule has broad implications. First, the allocative process must reflect the basic concerns, values and outlook of important subgroups in the population. Obviously varies greatly depending upon the subgroups the person thinks are important. It also refers to power sharing and participative decision making (similar to the concept of "voice").

6. Ethicality Rule. Allocative procedures must be compatible with fundamental moral and ethical values accepted by the individual. Fairness is negatively affected if personal standards of ethics are violated.

Adapted from Leventhal (1980) and Lind & Tyler (1988).

Together, the seven structural components illustrate the hypothesized points at which an individual presumably judges allocation decisions regarding their fairness. A justice rule is a belief that allocative procedures are fair when they satisfy certain criteria. Fairness evaluations are a function of the extent to which these rules are satisfied or violated within each structural component.

Judgments regarding fairness are presumably made as a person implicitly applies the six justice rules to each structural component. For example, as individuals evaluate who was selected to ultimately make distribution decisions (the first structural component), they presumably ask questions such as: Does the decision maker have a vested interest in the allocation (bias suppression rule) and does the opportunity exist to modify or reverse the decision to select this person (correctability rule)? The second structural component represents another phase of the evaluation process, the fairness of the ground rules or criteria set for making allocation decisions. At this point, the individual presumably repeats the process and judges the fairness of the procedure by applying the six justice rules. Again, questions are raised: Are the procedures consistent across people and over time (consistency rule) and will decisions be made on a basis compatible with fundamental moral and ethical values (ethicality rule)? Leventhal proposed that individuals make a fairness judgment about any given allocation decision as they evaluate the seven structural components by applying the justice rules to each one.

A person can decide at any point in this process that the allocation decision is not being made fairly.

The model is useful because it represents the various points at which fairness can be appraised (the structural components) and the numerous ways in which each of these components can be judged (the justice rules). Although the model is thorough, its elements have not been properly integrated by Leventhal and this lack of synthesis between the structural components and the justice rules is problematic. That is, Leventhal never hypothesized how the justice rules actually relate to the structural components, he merely states that the rules are used to judge whether each of the components are fair. This may be because the rules were adapted mainly from Leventhal's own life experiences and are only loosely based on the research of allocation decisions. Therefore, a major criticism of the model is that it is not clear which rules are most important in the evaluation of each component (Gilliland, 1993). Leventhal implied that the rules are not necessarily weighted equally in all situations. He stated that it is likely that increased weight would be given to rules favoring a person's own interest or endorsed by legitimate authorities, but he did not test these or other variables.

A second, related problem with the model is that the components and the rules do not always mesh well. There is overlap between some of the structural components and the justice rules and no logical need to apply certain rules to other structural components. For example, the "correctability" justice rule and the structural component of "processing appeals" deal with virtually the same issue. According to the theory one way a person would determine if the appeal process were fair would be by considering if an opportunity to appeal exists. This is redundant; the very definition of an appeal process is the opportunity to modify a decision. In addition, there are times when a component cannot be logically evaluated by a rule. For instance, it is not sensible that a person would use the consistency rule (allocative procedures must be consistent across people and over time) when judging who was selected to make decisions. While each rule and component have overall value, these issues illustrate the difficulty of dealing with the model.

The first few studies testing the model illustrate this confusion and the difficulty caused by the lack of fusion between the elements. The interactions between the structural components and the justice rules were first studied by Fry and Leventhal (1979) and Fry and Cheney (1981) (unpublished, as cited in Lind & Tyler, 1988). The studies tested the applicability of certain justice rules to the seven structural components. To do this, the authors manipulated the violation of one particular justice rule in the context of each structural component. The methods were the same in both studies. The authors asked college students to rate the importance of the six justice rules in hypothetical allocation procedures. In each study participants first considered a description of one procedure in which all of the seven components of the process were fair; i.e., none of the six justice rules were violated in any of the components. They then read descriptions of five other procedures in which one of the components was made unfair through the violation of a justice rule. For example, in one procedure, a violation of the consistency rule was used to render unfair the component of setting ground rules. In another procedure, a violation of the bias suppression rule made the processing appeals component unfair. One interesting finding was that overall, the appeal rule and the ethicality rule were more important in judging fairness in business contexts than in a family context (Fry & Cheney, 1981). However, because all combinations of rules and structural components were never studied, the results are incomplete, we do not know the average importance of each rule or how important each rule is for each component.

I infer that other researchers have also struggled with the structural component element of the model because subsequent studies have focused solely on the justice rules. Researchers probably have been unable to clarify the interaction of the components and the rules or have concluded that the model is more parsimonious without the structural components. For example, Barrett-Howard and Tyler (1986) examined the impact of context (social versus business), setting (cooperative versus competitive), formality (informal versus formal relationship), and power (equal versus unequal regarding the relationship of the person judging fairness and the decision maker) on the importance of the rules. Undergraduates read scenarios in which each of these dimensions were manipulated and were asked questions regarding which of the six rules were most important for judging fairness in each scenario. Manipulation checks, which insured that subjects appropriately understood the scenarios, were included. Mean ratings of importance indicated that consistency across people, ethicality, bias suppression and accuracy were the statistically significant justice rules when considering fairness overall. The results most representative of an organizational setting (within a business context dealing with formal and competitive relationships among people with unequal power) were somewhat different than the overall findings. The mean order of importance (from greatest to least) for the rules in a simulated organizational setting was: consistency across people, bias suppression, ethicality, accuracy, representativeness, consistency across time and correctability.

There have also been studies in organizational settings that either tested a specific rule or from which the importance of several rules are implied. For example, research was conducted by Greenberg (1986b) to examine the importance of the accuracy rule. He had one group of supervisors use diaries to increase the accuracy of the information they gathered for performance appraisals, while another group depended on memory. He reported that employees' fairness perceptions of the evaluation process, the evaluator, and the overall outcome of the evaluation were enhanced for the employees whose supervisors used the diaries. Whether or not the employees knew about their supervisors' use of the diary is not clear in the article. If they knew, the effects found could be due to the expectations associated with that knowledge rather than an actual increase in accuracy. If they did not know, this finding presumably supports the importance of the accuracy rule. The supervisors who used a diary gave appraisals that were perceived as more fair. The information in the diary was presumably of greater quantity and more accurate than the reliance on memory for performance information.

Several other studies have been conducted which favor the importance of Leventhal's rules in organizational contexts, although none of the studies were designed specifically to test them. For example, Grover (1991) attempted to predict the perceived fairness of parental leave policies and found that relation with and similarity to the group receiving the allocation and potential benefit from the allocation were significant factors affecting fairness. These findings correspond to the representation rule. The studies (previously described) on performance evaluation by Landy, et. al. also support the notion of the accuracy rule and the representativeness rule. Generally speaking, most of the studies done regarding the importance of voice also can be viewed as inadvertent evidence of the representativeness rule.

Other indications of the importance of justice rules can be found in the literature centering on survivors' reactions to layoffs. Brockner, Tyler and Cooper-Schneider (1992) found that employees who were highly committed to the organization demonstrated greater negative reactions when they felt unfairly treated than those with low commitment. Employees were asked to rate how much they believed several factors were used in layoff decisions. Many of the factors included were based on Leventhal's justice rules. For example, one factor dealt with the importance of organizational politics, which is representative of the bias suppression justice rule. In addition to utilizing aspects of Leventhal's model, the findings of the study allow an understanding of the negative repercussions of unfair treatment.

All of these studies support Leventhal's initial ideas regarding the existence of a set of justice rules and are indicative of their potential usefulness in organizational settings. When the literature was reviewed, support was found for each of the rules, with the representation rule being most frequently studied. In addition, the findings from the previously discussed Barrett-Howard and Tyler (1986) study ranked the rules in importance in organizational settings: consistency, bias suppression, ethicality, accuracy, representation and correctability. The problem is that most of these studies were not designed specifically to determine the importance of Leventhal's rules, so to say that the model is accurate is still speculation.

Researchers have nevertheless applied this theory in their work, and since its publication the model has been one of the main references in every article written on procedural justice. Leventhal's rules have received broad enough support to assume that his basic idea regarding a set of existing rules is a useful structure in determining procedural fairness perceptions. However, procedural justice research that provides evidence beyond this indirect support was also needed.

Sheppard and Lewicki (1987) attempted to provide this support by using open-ended questions and content coding analyses. Participants (MBA students) were asked to think of specific instances when they were treated fairly or unfairly by their boss. Then they briefly described the principle their boss followed or ignored that made the action fair or unfair. These principles were content coded according to Leventhal's rules by two individuals with an inter-rater reliability of 0.83. The researchers concluded that the participants used each of Leventhal's six rules when describing incidents of particularly fair or unfair behavior in the workplace. They also reported that several additional rules emerged from the study. Rules regarding accountability (for credit and blame), timeliness (of actions taken) and reasonableness (the use of common sense) were also described by participants. The authors conclude that these findings suggest that although Leventhal's rules are important, they may not be an exhaustive account of what occurs in organizational settings. However, since the authors did not collect enough data to conduct an exploratory factor analysis, they had to rely solely on subjective coding schemes. Furthermore, there may be bias in the findings because the authors themselves conducted all the content coding. It also appears that some of their rules may not be appropriate in a wide range of organizational settings.

Greenberg (1986a) made the largest single contribution to our understanding by showing that individuals in organizations regularly utilize a set of rules without being specifically induced to do so. In the study, middle managers described why performance appraisals they had experienced were particularly fair or unfair. The reasons were typed on index cards and returned to a smaller group of the participants who were asked to sort them into similar groupings. No predetermined number of groupings was specified and seven groupings emerged from the sorting. A separate sub-group of 75 participants were then asked to rate the importance of each of the seven categories as determinants for fair evaluations on a nine point Likert-type scale. The results of the importance ratings were factor analyzed, and five distinct procedural justice rules emerged: soliciting input prior to evaluation; two-way communication during the evaluation interview; ability to challenge/rebut the evaluation; rater familiarity with ratee's work; and the consistent application of standards.

Folger and Konovsky (1989) used Greenberg's findings for the construction of a scale measuring procedural justice in the context of pay raise decisions. They found only four rules, which they labeled feedback, planning, recourse and observation. They eliminated a fifth factor, which appears to be Greenberg's consistent application rule, due to low reliability and a marginal eigenvalue. The final Folger and Konovsky questionnaire, or portions of it, has been used most frequently in the measurement of procedural justice. The problem with their measure is that they based their initial questionnaire development on Greenberg's (1986a) single study. They ignored the author's clear admonishment that the nature of his homogeneous sample would not allow one to conclude that the same factors would emerge for other populations. Additionally, because Greenberg's original questions were solely about the fairness of performance appraisals, Folger and Konovsky do not know if the questions they initially constructed represent an exhaustive list of factors applicable to their context of pay. This is the type of problem that makes procedural justice research somewhat difficult and inconsistent in general. Justice applies to so many organizational situations authors often must cut and paste questions from various scales because any one measure does not adequately describe all the issues involved in every context.

After considering the strengths, weaknesses and research findings related to procedural and distributive justice, it is apparent that further studies with different focuses are needed to increase the amount and utility of organizational justice knowledge. The value of increased understanding and the necessary steps toward broadening our usage of organizational justice are discussed below.

The Expansion and Integration of Organizational Justice Research

Both the procedural and distributive models of organizational justice add to our understanding of a wide array of behaviors in organizations. However, after examining previous research studies it was evident that neither construct was fully understood or utilized. Research advancing their integrated use and expanding the situations in which organizational justice is applied is needed. Both distributive and procedural justice are good models with empirical support but several authors concluded that an integration of the two theories was needed (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Greenberg, 1990).

One step toward integration is a deeper understanding of the effect each construct has on different outcomes. There is some evidence that the use of both constructs accounts for more variance and that in some circumstances one theory is a better predictor than the other. Alexander & Ruderman (1987) conducted a survey of government employees and using factor analysis determined that procedural and distributive justice are independent, but related constructs. Using multiple regression, they significantly linked both constructs to job satisfaction, evaluation of supervisor, trust in management and turnover intention. While both constructs had predictive power, they found that procedural justice accounted for significantly more variance in each measure except for turnover intention. Lind and Tyler (1988) examined data from four studies (two experiments and two surveys) and concluded that procedural justice had greater impact on leadership evaluations than did distributive justice. In addition, Folger and Konovsky (1989) conducted a survey examining the impact of both constructs on pay raise decisions. Using structural equation analyses the authors confirmed that distributive justice accounted for more unique variance in pay satisfaction while procedural justice accounted for more variance in trust in supervisor and organizational commitment. Considered together, these findings indicate that procedural justice may be a better predictor of attitudes while distributive justice probably relates more to behaviors or concrete outcomes such as pay.

These findings represent the beginning of understanding the relationship between procedural and distributive justice, but more evidence is needed (Greenberg, 1990). A number of additional studies specifically designed to test the power of both constructs can add to our understanding. This investigation represents one such study. In the past, some researchers asked questions that could be construed as measuring both distributive justice (e.g., "Do you feel the outcome of the pay raise decision was fair?") and procedural justice (e.g., "Were you given the opportunity to discuss your performance appraisal with your supervisor?") but made no attempt to illustrate the importance of each or determine whether including both added any predictive power to the study. Hypotheses testing the predictive power of both the integrated approach and separate constructs are included in the present study.

Finally, and I believe most importantly, several psychologists have stated that the expansion of procedural justice research to new areas in organizations is sorely needed (Greenberg & Tyler, 1987; Lind & Tyler, 1988). As noted, most fairness studies have been conducted in order to examine pay, status or performance appraisals. However, there are two problems with this narrow focus. First, as previously discussed, all organizational situations that could be affected by perceptions of justice are not obviously unfair. Second, even if we wish to continue considering fairness related only to compensation, pay, office space and job titles are not the only significant forms of remuneration employees receive from an organization. Other portions of the overall benefit and reward package are valuable tools used in the attraction and retention of employees. This study expanded organizational justice research by examining the perceived fairness of non-traditional benefits in a context that is not inherently negative.

Chapter 3

Work and Family Programs

The interaction between work and family life has received considerable attention since the publication of Johnson's (1987) influential "Workforce 2000: Work and Workers for the 21st Century." At that time, Johnson speculated that record numbers of working women, single parents and two-earner couples would continue flooding into the workforce into the next century. Those predictions are being realized; the traditional nuclear family now accounts for fewer than 20% of the households in the U.S. and only 11% of all families have a traditional male wage-earner who provides sole support (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). In addition, about 40% of the workforce is composed of members of dual-earner couples, and 6% of workers are single parents (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990).

Many researchers initially reacted to these changes in the workforce by constructing and testing models predicting work-family conflict. Through this research, role strain and role conflict were identified as the major sources of work-family conflict (Bielby & Bielby, 1989; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, Rabinowitz & Beutell, 1989; Voydanoff, 1988). Understanding that role strain and role conflict result in stress, researchers also identified adverse behavioral outcomes associated with work-family conflict. Eventually work-family conflict was significantly correlated with a higher occurrence of physical and mental health problems (Druxbury & Higgins, 1991; Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992) and performance decrements such as decreased productivity, tardiness, absenteeism, turnover and low morale (Druxbury & Higgins, 1991).

This newly acquired understanding of the negative effects of work-family conflict lead to work-family programs becoming a common and necessary component of most Human Resource systems (Families and Work Institute, 1993; Hammonds, Furchgott, Hamm & Judge, 1997). Work-family programs are implemented to help employees with family responsibilities better balance their work and personal lives. It is hoped that these programs will improve employees' overall well-being and lead to changes in behavioral outcomes eventually resulting in a positive bottom line impact on the organization.

Most commonly, work-family programs consist of various types of alternative work schedules such as flextime and telecommuting, and various dependent care options. However, truly knowing the impact of any of these work-family programs is not possible at this time. Unfortunately, there is very little empirical research supporting the frequent sweeping claims that work-family programs improve productivity, morale, loyalty, recruitment, retention and attendance (Families and Work Institute, 1993). In fact, an employee survey evaluation of Johnson & Johnson's work-family programs was one of the first and only studies of its kind (Families and Work Institute, 1993). This and the few other studies like it are not published in professional journals, so a critical evaluation of methodology is very difficult. Aside from a handful of professional publications and the few organizations (like J&J) that allow their internal studies to be published by consultants. very little evaluative information exists. Most organizations put the programs in place and never appraise them adequately. Work-family programs are often considered a type of socially polite right-thing-to-do option that people think must have an inherent, positive impact. Serious consideration of bottom-line impacts of the programs has begun in the past few years and organizational spokespeople frequently offer only enough information for the popular press to print a few lines about their apparent success. But even though findings are most frequently anecdotal rather than empirical the implications are crucial for our understanding of work-family programs. The reports published by work-family think tanks and popular press articles are what organizations use when making decisions.

Descriptions of common work-family programs along with basic information and conclusions regarding the possible impact of those interventions are given below. This overview will provide the reader with a basic understanding of the configuration of most work-family programs and specify which work outcomes are believed impacted by the interventions. This helps clarify the structure of the current study and was used to determine the outcomes focused upon in the study. A more detailed summary and critique of the findings is provided in Appendix A.

Alternative Work Schedules

Working traditional hours is one of the main blockades that keeps many caregivers from achieving balance between work and family life. For employees with family care responsibilities the work day may either start too early or end too late to allow for quality time with their children and spouses and often work hours do not mesh with dependent care arrangements. Offering employees who demonstrate family needs the option of working an alternative schedule is an inexpensive and advantageous choice for many organizations.

The most common types of alternative work schedules are flextime and telecommuting but compressed work weeks, part-time work and job sharing are utilized also sometimes. Descriptions and expected positive effects of each of these schedules are highlighted below. Some of the studies reviewed examine the impact of non-traditional schedules on the general working population and are included in light of the lack of specific empirical work-family studies. These studies do not detract from the claim that flexible schedules are currently most frequently considered work-family initiatives. They were written mainly at a time when entire organizations contemplated various new schedules as cost-saving devices. This trend has subsided probably because decision makers realized that alternative work schedules are not something that everyone wants. Those publications specifically written in terms of work-family programs are discussed more thoroughly below as that is the context of this paper and the information that weighs most heavily when organizational work-family decisions are made. The following discussion is a summary with conclusions made from the literature. Appendix A includes more details of each citation.

Overall, the information published about the use of alternative work schedules as work-family initiatives is very positive. Unfortunately the vast majority of the information has been gathered without the benefit of experimental research methodology. This lack of empirical evidence has not stopped organizations from utilizing alternative schedules as a major work-family initiative or from believing that the schedules will have a positive impact on their employees with family needs (Hammond, Furchgott, Hamm & Judge, 1997). While psychologists generally do not recommend implementing programs based on findings unsubstantiated by empirical evidence, decision makers in organizations apparently do not always evaluate information with the same critical eye. Therefore, because these programs are very frequently in place it is reasonable to suggest that organizations at least believe that they are, and may actually be, benefiting in the ways described below.

Flextime. This is the most widely researched and utilized type of alternative work schedule. Flextime programs involve a core period of time in which the employee must be working surrounded by bands of flexible hours. The employee can usually select a non-traditional starting time and adhere to it, or can vary start and end times daily, depending on the company's policies (Families and Work Institute, 1993; McGuire & Liro, 1986). Basically, flextime gives employees the option of adjusting their work schedules thus allowing them to do things such as attend children's sporting events or arrive home early enough to be available when children finish school each day. Sometimes helping employees balance their work-family needs is as easy as allowing them to start working at 9:30 a.m. instead of 8:30 a.m. so they can get their children to school.

Findings about this type of program have been quite positive. This is logical because employees with families have reported that they value time flexibility above any other benefit, even child care assistance (Schwartz, 1994). In the work-family context, flextime has been linked (through some empirical evidence and some anecdotal documentation) with an increase in job satisfaction, performance, productivity and morale and a decrease in work-family stress, inter-role conflict, turnover, absenteeism and tardiness (Galen, Palmer & Maremont, 1993; Families and Work Institute, 1993; Friedman & Galinsky, 1991; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). These things are done at minimal program cost to the organization and reportedly improve customer service due to extended coverage (Shellenbarger, 1994; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990).

Most of the flextime publications are review articles of descriptive findings reported by organizations and unfortunately there is not enough detail to assess the validity of the conclusions. However, one of the major reports was written by a researcher at a well established and trusted work-family think tank who states that her review included a critical examination of the methodology of organizational research. Interestingly, the one empirical longitudinal study of self reports showed no change in absenteeism and tardiness for working parents over a two year period after flextime was introduced as a work-family program (Families and Work Institute, 1993).

In addition to the work-family publications, three empirical studies conducted outside the context of work-family programs were also reviewed. Positive effects were found for reduction of travel time, inter-role conflict, and opportunity for leisure activity. Increases in satisfaction with the work environment and a decrease in absenteeism occurred when employees were allowed to change their flexible schedule quarterly as needed. No significant effects on productivity were found (Hicks & Klimoski, 1981; McGuire & Liro, 1986; McGuire & Liro, 1987).

Telecommuting. Telecommuting involves performing work at a site away from the office (usually at home) one or more days per week. Employees can then electronically transfer work results to the office or simply bring results to the work site if they do not work away from the office full-time. There are several publications in which the positive consequences of telecommuting as a work-family program for both the employee and the organization are reviewed (Hamilton, 1987; Olson & Primps, 1984; Shamir and Salamon, 1985). If well planned and executed, telecommuting may help reduce child care problems and work-family conflict. The telecommuter also experiences greater autonomy and savings on clothing, food and transportation (Hamilton, 1987; Olson & Primps, 1984; Shamir and Salamon, 1985). There is anecdotal evidence that some organizations benefit from the efficient use of space, recruiting advantages, higher productivity, better quality work, increased commitment, fewer absences and lower turnover (Hamilton, 1987; Olson & Primps, 1984; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990).

These claims are impressive but again, nearly all of the telecommuting studies are based upon conjecture, or unpublished information given by companies (Hartman, Stoner & Arora, 1991). In all but one article little or no information regarding the source of the claim or the methods of data collection are given by the authors. The one empirical survey study found was conducted with a general working population within eleven organizations. The researchers found that participants who were satisfied with their telecommuting arrangement reported a significant increase in productivity, and satisfaction with supervisor support and number of family interruptions. There was no correlation with actual performance ratings (Hartman, Stoner & Arora, 1991). At this point, feeling hopeful about the benefits of telecommuting is realistic, but due to the paucity of empirical studies, the findings should be considered tentative.

Compressed Work Weeks. Under a compressed work week schedule, employees typically work approximately 40 hours in four days, or sometimes 38 hours in 3 days (Latack & Foster, 1985). (This schedule should not be confused with a shortened work week, in which employees work fewer days and total hours for less pay and fewer benefits.) This type of schedule gained great popularity in the late 1960's and early 1970's, again as a way the organization could cut costs. Conclusions from that early research were mostly positive: increased productivity and employee satisfaction and decreased absenteeism were found (as cited in Latack & Foster, 1985). More recently workers have also reported improved satisfaction with their work schedule and reduced stress (Dunham, Pierce & Castaneda, 1987). Although there are sometimes concerns regarding fatigue, employees continued to favor this type of schedule after 18 months and showed no significant signs of weariness (Latack & Foster, 1985).

Only one article addressing the issue specifically as it relates to work-family programs was found. Galen, Palmer and Maremont (1993) state that compressed work weeks reduced work family conflict, turnover and absenteeism while increasing productivity, efficiency and morale. They claim the schedule also boosts the company's reputation with recruits. These results come from a study of several companies where interviews were conducted, but no further descriptions of methods are given. This lack of information about compressed work weeks (along with part-time and job sharing arrangements) may be due to a the lack of organizations willing to offer these schedules. They may not be as widely accepted as flextime and telecommuting at this time.

Part-time schedules. The idea of hiring professionals in permanent, part-time positions as an alternative to traditional work hours is a relatively new concept that is gaining acceptance swiftly. It is significant that increasing the number of part-time workers rarely has been considered a viable alternative to traditional Human Resource practices, however, as benefits become more costly, organizations are looking at this as an option. Unfortunately, due to the newness of this idea there is very little published on the topic. Aetna claims that they cut attrition rates among high potential women by more than 50% and save the organization over $1 million each year by allowing employees to return part-time after family leave (Neely-Martinez, 1997). This could be an important change in post maternity scheduling, as women reportedly prefer part-time work immediately following maternity leave (Friedman & Galinsky, 1991). There is also anecdotal information that many organizations would have lost a great deal of post-maternity leave women if they had not allowed part-time work (Brotherton, 1997).

While part-time work is an interesting alternative, jobs in many organizations would probably have to be redesigned in order for part-time employment to become a serious option. Consider, for example, that one of the main complaints leading to the 1997 UPS strike was the rise in part-time positions without benefits (Pedersen, 1997). Apparently, some employers have introduced new part-time positions that are said to include career potential and benefits (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990), but there is no published evidence regarding their effects.

Job sharing. This type of alternative schedule involves a voluntary work arrangement where two people share the responsibility and pay of one full-time job (Olmsted, 1977). The task of making the job share appear seamless can be a major challenge for employees, so job sharing is probably best suited for jobs in which responsibilities can be divided into discrete tasks or periods of time. Excellent communication between individuals and complete agreement between employees and management regarding hours worked, pay and benefits are also crucial for the success of this kind of arrangement.

In the literature, job sharing is often grouped with part-time work, or alternative work schedules in general and there is no empirical research on this type of arrangement alone. The only information found on job sharing was purely descriptive. Zedeck and Mosier (1990) effectively summarized the information regarding possible benefits associated with job sharing. It reduces the need for temporary employees and provides continuous staffing during vacation and family leaves and gives the organization access to two employees, which may increase productivity and creativity.

Dependent Care

The general heading of dependent care typically encompasses child care and elder care. The growing need for this type of employee assistance is evidenced by the increase in the number of companies that offer some type of child care or dependent assistance to employees. Programs grew from 11 in 1971 to approximately 3,500 in 1987 (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Typical programs and summaries of their effects on workers and organizations will be described below.

Child Care. With the substantial increase of two-career couples and single parents in the workplace, the provision of child care has become one of the biggest issues facing organizations. Employees of one public utility company revealed that they had collectively missed 7,318 work days in one year due to child care problems costing the company $1 million in salary and benefits (Galen, Palmer & Maremont, 1993). Zedeck and Mosier (1990) reported that due to child care problems 48% of women and 25% of men spend some (although exactly how much is not clarified) unproductive time at work.

These problems also cause working parents to be absent about eight work days per year and tardy approximately eight additional hours per year.

There are numerous ways companies of all sizes can assist with child care needs, ranging from on-site centers, payment for off-site care, pre-tax dependent care spending accounts, or referral services and lists of local centers. There are advantages and disadvantages of each of these kinds of services. For larger corporations, on-site care provides parents with convenience and guaranteed quality and the organization with a recruiting inducement. One large company concluded that they saved $800,000 in costs from the reduced absences that occurred the first year they provided employees with back-up child care. Another reported that the number of women returning to work after childbirth increased from 50% to 94% after they added an onsite child-care center (Neely-Martinez, 1997). However, sites are rarely large enough to cope with demand and the commute to the work site is difficult for some children.

The other options provide some assistance at lower cost, but with fewer benefits. For example, a dependent care spending account is much easier to implement and maintain, but few people ever use them because of strict Internal Revenue Service regulations (Galen, Palmer & Maremont, 1993). However, this option may be the only feasible choice for smaller companies. Often, the best thing for companies to do is form consortiums and work together developing childcare sites in different areas, providing seminars on parenting and written materials which address specific concerns.

Anecdotal information given by several organizations leads one to believe that providing childcare has positive effects on morale, absenteeism, recruitment, turnover, productivity, profits and the amount of worry parents experience about their children (Eichman & Reisman, 1992; Kane, 1989). The more extensive the day care provision, the greater the expected positive outcomes. After conducting a comprehensive review, but no written critique of the literature, Zedeck and Mosier (1990) concluded that childcare increases satisfaction, commitment and morale and reduces turnover, but that results regarding absenteeism and productivity are mixed. Fortunately, one major review article was written that included sufficient information about the methodology of several studies. Based upon those studies that were methodologically sound Friedman (1991) believes that company sponsored child care centers are associated with reduced turnover and absenteeism and increased morale and productivity when they adequately address the issue. One other empirical study found that employees with on-site child care were significantly less worried at work about their children than employees with off-site child care (Families and Work Institute, 1993).

Elder Care. As our workforce and general population ages, more employees will take on some elder care responsibility. Currently at least one out of every five employees over age thirty furnish some type of care to an aged parent and spend an average of ten hours each week fulfilling various needs for their parents (Friedman, 1986; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Eight percent spend thirty-five hours or more each week fulfilling these family needs, about 30% provide financial assistance as well, and the majority of caretakers are women (Friedman, 1986).

Employers sometimes have policies such as leave time, flexible work schedules, dependent care spending accounts and referral services which can assist an employee who is caring for an elderly parent. Occasionally there is also personal support or specific elder care planning available for employees. It has been suggested that in the future, more complete family care packages which include elder care assistance be developed to better assist employees with these special needs (Barr, Johnson & Warshaw, 1992). Before this can happen, employers must conduct employee needs assessments. Many organizations seem willing to help but they do not know exactly what to do (Shellenbarger, 1993). Considering the rapid aging of the American population, expecting an increase in the need for and organizational provision of elder care services is reasonable.

Elder care accommodation is a relatively new benefit for employees and there is a paucity of research on its benefits. Anecdotal reports are the most frequent way of disseminating information about these services. The main conclusions drawn from this information are that employees and organizations report reductions in lateness, absenteeism and work family stress if the right services are provided (Barr, Johnson & Warshaw, 1992). One recent survey of 22,000 federal employees found that employees with elder care responsibilities are, in general, less satisfied with work-family balance, pay, leave benefits, the organization and their supervisor (Smith, Buffardi, O'Brien, Malgeri, Farmer & Zukin, 1994). No mention of the elder care benefits these employees receive is made in the publication.

Effects of Work-Family Programs Overall

Some authors report findings in a more general sense by discussing the effects of an organization's overall work-family program or family supportive culture. These findings are typically discussed in terms of outcomes similar to those related to any specific program. For example, a survey of 2,417 employees at a single company found that those who view their supervisor as more supportive of their family needs were less stressed, more loyal to the company and more satisfied with their jobs (Families and Work Institute, 1993). First Tennessee Bank, which is regarded as one of the most family-friendly companies in the country has made claims in popular press literature that by taking family issues seriously they have seen clear gains in productivity, retention and customer service which they say, contributed to a 55% profit gain over two years (Hammonds, 1996).

Conclusions

A great deal of the literature regarding work-family programs is anecdotal, but there have been some good studies conducted by researchers and think tanks such as the Families and Work Institute and the Conference Board. The findings associated with empirical research are often similar to the reports made in popular press articles, but the claims are usually less extreme. Generally speaking there is a good deal of evidence that work-family programs produce positive results. In any case, organizations continue implementing them with the expectation that they are beneficial. The work outcomes most frequently mentioned and positively impacted are: absenteeism, tardiness, turnover, productivity, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, morale and recruitment. It is not yet possible to say with complete confidence that all these things are being improved significantly. However, there is a great deal of anecdotal support, employee and management opinion survey data, and a few empirical studies which lead organizational decision makers to believe that work-family programs are beneficial in various ways. There is little doubt that for employees who have family responsibilities, these programs are advantageous.

Although the balance of work and family is a serious issue, it should be noted that parents do not necessarily outnumber the childless in organizations. Nearly 57% of working women aged 25-34 (typical child-bearing years) and 61% of all female executives are childless (Fagenson, 1992). Furthermore, only about 38% of employees have children under 18 at home and by the year 2010 it is estimated that nearly 31 million couples will choose to be childless (Lafayette, 1994). The bottom line is that the workforce has become much more diverse and demographic shifts caused by record numbers of working women, single parents, two-earner couples and a generally aging population have challenged managers with new problems and demands.

However, due to possible perceptions of unfairness and the many negative outcomes associated with such perceptions, the same programs could have produced undesirable affects on those employees who do not need or qualify for their use. In the present study I examine the types of issues raised by the use of alternative work schedules as work-family initiatives, the potential inequity of providing resources for the benefit of only a particular group of employees and the problem of expecting some employees to work longer hours or less desirable days due to their lifestyles. In the next chapter the present study is outlined in detail. These problems related to perceptions of fairness are more thoroughly discussed, appropriate outcomes that may be affected by perceptions of fairness are determined and hypotheses are developed

Chapter 4

The Present Study: Problem and Hypotheses

The present study is intended to further develop organizational justice theory while providing practical information about organizational policy. I hope to clarify how the individual constructs of procedural and distributive justice predict perceptions of fairness and their related outcomes and broaden the scope of organizational justice research by examining a situation that is not inherently negative or unfair. This is important because researchers have typically studied situations that have been manipulated in such a way that they are obviously unjust, such as purposely constructed pay inequities or undeserved negative performance appraisals. However, some work circumstances are not obviously negative. Everyday organizational situations, such as the development of programs that benefit up to half of the organization's employees, are seemingly benign or even widely adventitious, but could produce significant perceptions of preferential treatment. We cannot be certain how current constructs of organizational justice operate in these situations until they are applied to this type of circumstance.

The study also illustrates the predictive utility of each construct. Measuring both constructs in one study will demonstrate the potential increase in predictive power when an integrated approach to organizational justice is used. Finally, applying justice theories to perceptions of work-family programs examines the theory in a new setting and can provide organizational leaders with valuable information about the programs' broad effects. The specific rationale behind examining fairness in the context of work-family programs and each of the theoretical contributions are discussed further below.

The Need to Conduct Organizational Justice Research on Work-Family Policy and Culture

There is evidence that a number of employees feel that the current emphasis in many organizations on workers with families is not fair. There have been at least three anecdotal articles published in the past four years in prominent newspapers, magazines and journals documenting this problem (Flynn, 1996; Lafayette, 1994; Jones, 1995). For example, The New York Times (Lafayette, 1994) recently published several personal stories of childless employees who feel that they have been treated unfairly in comparison with workers who have children. One story told of a grandmother of a single, childless flight attendant who was not allowed a free flight to visit her granddaughter while other flight attendants' spouses and children regularly fly free because the organization considers them immediate family. This narrow, restricted definition of "immediate family" unnecessarily excludes employees such as the single, childless flight attendant from this policy. In terms of equity theory, her inputs are ostensibly the same as a married flight attendant who has children, yet the single employee does not receive this valuable outcome. Also included in the Times article was an account of an Assistant

Professor whose colleague was given an additional year to complete his work for tenure because he had recently become a father while the childless professor continued struggling with a tighter timeline. The author of the article does not mention if the extra time was granted in accordance with University policy or if it was an exception made for a single individual. Either way it illustrates that potentially career altering decisions are sometimes made on the basis of family responsibility. Additionally, some single, childless employees have expressed dissatisfaction with the amount of extra or undesirable work hours they must perform compared to employees with children. They believe they work more holidays, weekends and overtime, are expected to cover or finish other employee's work (e.g., when a person leaves early or can not stay late because of family obligations) and that they are required to travel more frequently and without warning (Flynn, 1996; Lafayette, 1994; Rapoport & Bailyn, 1996). These claims are interesting but are based on anecdotal reports (Flynn, 1996; Lafayette, 1994) or qualitative organizational research (Rapoport & Bailyn; 1996). None of the authors went beyond examining perceptions of hours worked. The current study is the first attempt to examine the situation in a theoretical context in conjunction with quantitative methods, linking perceptions with behavioral outcomes.

The formation of the Childfree Network is another indication that there are employees who have articulated this problem and feel strongly enough about it to have developed a national association. The Childfree Network was started approximately five years ago, and currently consists of more than 2,500 workers nation-wide who are concerned about what they characterize as workplace discrimination suffered by employees without children. The workers who belong to the group feel that they are treated unfairly by pro-family organizations and managers and express many of the same sentiments as the employees in the New York Times and other articles (Lafayette, 1994). The founder of the Childfree Network feels that there is no question about the inequity created in the workplace by family-friendly policies. She says that people without children have been left out. They are working at least as hard as employees with families, yet they receive a smaller piece of the overall budget allotted to employee benefits (Jones, 1995).

After reading the articles and reports written by Flynn (1996), Lafayette (1994), Jones (1995) and Rapoport and Bailey (1996) and learning about the Childfree Network, it was reasonable to conclude that there could be many employees who feel the same way, but who had not expressed their opinions because their views would be unpopular or may seem anti-family. At this point, an empirical study regarding perceptions of fairness held toward work-family programs was needed because all published evidence is based on conjecture or qualitative studies.

Perceptions of fairness

When examined in detail, three concrete issues related to perceptions of fairness of work-family policies in organizations emerge: (1) perceptions that some employees are more entitled to use work-family programs than are others. There is evidence that this perception of access may vary among employees with families (Galinsky, Bond & Friedman, 1993; Schwartz, 1994) and possibly between employees with family needs versus those without; (2) The perception by employees without families that they are required by their employers to work longer hours, more inconvenient days and travel more frequently than their peers who have family responsibilities; (3) Perceptions of greater resource expenditures on employees with families versus those without. The way in which employees experience or perceive each of these issues was predicted to contribute to their perceptions of fairness regarding work-family policy.

In terms of equity theory these three situations may be perceived as unfair because employees with families may be receiving greater outcomes than employees without families (e.g., permission to use the programs, larger resource expenditures) and are not perceived as contributing more inputs to the organization. In terms of procedural justice, there may be perceptions that several justice rules have been violated. For example, positive bias toward employees with families may have affected policy decisions or the consistency rule because the policies may not have been applied in the same manner depending on family status. Each of these three issues are more thoroughly addressed below.

<u>Differential access for subgroups of employees.</u> The possible fairness issue associated with some of these programs has to do with perceptions of differential

access to them among certain groups of employees. Differential access refers to a person's perception that certain work-family initiatives are not readily available for personal use. It would occur if some people do not have the right or implied permission to freely utilize a given initiative, even if it is ostensibly available to all employees.

Perceived differential access to work-family programs may be based upon official company policy or experiences due to other organizational actions. For example, the organization may have built its only childcare center near the corporate office rather than near the factory where most of the lower level employees work. In this case use of the childcare facility is not denied the lower level employees, but it is sufficiently inconvenient for them that perceptions of differential access between high and low level employees is possible. As another example, a company may state that alternative work schedules are available to assist employees who have difficulty meeting dependent care needs. This does not necessarily mean that those without dependent care needs are excluded, but people without dependents may perceive that they have no access to those programs due to the manner in which the program was communicated to employees.

Perceptions of differential access could also be influenced by organizational culture. For example, the employee handbook may state that alternative work schedules are open to all employees as long as they can realistically continue to fulfill their job responsibilities. However, if a man notices that all the people in his work group who telecommute are women with children, he may conclude that decisions about who is allowed to telecommute are really based on sex and motherhood. He perceives that if he were to ask his manager for permission to telecommute that he would not be allowed to do so due to his sex. This, of course, may or may not be true in reality. However, if that is his perception, when asked if he has access to a telecommuting schedule his reply may very well be "no". This situation may be exacerbated if he also notices that few, if any, of the telecommuting women have received promotions. He might also decide that requesting this arrangement is not a wise career move. Organizational culture may also influence informal non-traditional work arrangements. In some organizations, non-traditional work schedules are not mentioned in official organizational policy, but they can be arranged through an agreement with one's own manager (Schwartz, 1994). Employees' perceptions of how their managers make decisions on this topic will affect their ideas about their access to such schedules.

Within the context of differential access, two separate issues required consideration: differences of perceptions of access among subgroups of employees all of whom have family needs, and differences in perceptions of access between employees who have family needs versus those who do not. There are already some findings from survey data demonstrating that perceptions of differential access to family-friendly programs exists among distinct groups of employees with families. There is evidence that among employees with family needs, workers with higher incomes, more education, and higher status jobs report greater mean perceptions of access to these programs (Galinsky, Bond & Friedman, 1993) and that majority employees perceive significantly more access to flexible arrangements than minority employees (Schwartz, 1994). This information was presented by The Families and Work Institute in a report submitted to the United States Department of Labor Glass Ceiling Commission (Schwartz, 1994). The author of the report stated that the differential access findings were compiled from two scientifically conducted studies containing self-report information collected from employees from a wide variety of organizations and industries. One was a 1990 study of a group of demographically representative mothers with children under age 13 conducted by the Employee Benefits Research Institute and the other was a 1993 study of 3400 workers with family needs across the country by the Families and Work Institute. From these data, Schwartz (1994) concluded that across organizations, among those employees with family needs, those who had higher incomes, more education, and/or higher status jobs (managers, professionals and technicians) perceived themselves as having greater access to all work-family programs. When asked specifically about access to flexible work arrangements, minority employees reported significantly less access than majority employees. In addition, 66% of female, but only 48% of male employees (with families) said that they believed their employer would allow them to utilize a part-time schedule if they requested one. In another self-report study, men said that they were less likely than women to use family-friendly policies in general (Starrels, 1992).

All of the above findings are the result of self-report surveys in which employees were asked about perceptions of availability and personal usage; the reason why all employees with family needs do not perceive themselves as having equal access to the benefits was not examined. It is unlikely that the discrepancies are due to the type of industries for which people work because many different types of industries have similar policies regarding flexibility and a very broad range of industries were represented in the survey (Schwartz, 1994). Although we cannot be certain why these apparent disparities exist, it seems that differences in jobs and organizational culture would explain some of the differences. For example, it is likely that individuals with higher status in an organization also have jobs with more autonomy that are simply more conducive to flexibility. These higher status jobs have higher pay and are also more likely held by people with more education who are in the racial majority. This is a plausible explanation for many of the differences; but the availability of such a reason does not eradicate the possibility that employees who do not benefit will feel that the situation is unfair. Furthermore, differences in job structure do not explain differential access to childcare.

Organizational culture is a another likely reason to expect perceptions of disparate access among employees with family responsibilities. Organizational culture dictates which attitudes and behaviors are considered appropriate for employees and decision makers and has, along with supervisory attitudes, been shown to affect the usage and perceptions of fairness of alternative schedules. These two variables are key in determining who feels comfortable asking for the alternative schedule and to whom the benefit is granted (Rapoport & Bailyn, 1996; Schwartz, 1994). It is very likely that decisions regarding flexibility are made based upon culture and supervisory attitudes, especially when there is no clear organizational policy. In a study of the largest companies in thirty industries 77% of the organizations offered flextime but only 45% of these programs were written into company policy and only 25% were available company wide (Galinsky, 1992). If organizational culture dictates that it is more appropriate for certain groups of employees to ask for an alternative schedule, those people will probably be more likely to ask for and be granted such a schedule.

Consider for example, perceived differences in access between men and women. It is likely due to traditional attitudes regarding gender roles and proper family behavior. For example, work-family issues are still widely perceived as women's concerns; public policy makers and employers consider these issues problems that women have brought into the workplace (Hall & Richter, 1988). Many people still believe that men work because they have to and women work when they choose to do so (Starrels, 1992; Swiss & Walker, 1993). Assumptions that women should take primary responsibility for children and family are also still prevalent and employers who evaluate and promote by traditional means and values may strongly discourage men from using these policies. Apparently, men's perceptions that they will not be granted part-time schedules persist even though there is a societal shift toward greater family involvement for men (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). It is likely that men suffer greater career damage if they articulate family responsibility because these norms limiting men's family roles persist (Pleck, 1987). Therefore, it is also possible that men are less likely to use family-friendly policies.

At this point it should be noted that reported perceptions of differential access have only been empirically examined among employees with family responsibilities. However, it could also be true that overall, employees with families have greater access than those without family responsibilities. This potential discrepancy needed examination. When an organization places a great deal of emphasis on the importance of work-family balance, or introduces initiatives in the context of work-family balance the intended message is that employees with families are valued and the organization understands the importance of fulfilling one's family responsibilities. The organization and individual managers then take actions (providing child care or flexible work arrangements, for instance) to work with employees and ensure them that they can meet those family responsibilities. This message is not intrinsically wrong; employees with families are valuable. However, those employees without family responsibilities may then think that the only way a person can justify a request for a non-traditional schedule, for example, is by demonstrating family needs. If people without family responsibilities believe that they will not be granted alternative schedules, they will probably be less inclined to ask for them.

Additionally, if managers believe that supporting families is a more important organizational imperative than is the idea of generally supporting flexibility they may be less likely to permit employees without family needs alternative schedules. However, it is important to remember that non-traditional schedules can also improve the life quality of employees who do not have family responsibilities. Employees who have long or difficult commutes or who need flexibility in scheduling for other personal reasons can also benefit from non-traditional work arrangements. Non-traditional hours can allow all employees the flexibility they need to pursue personal goals such as higher education, community service or a second job. These schedules can decrease substantially the time and money spent commuting and give employees greater opportunities for leisure activities. The majority of employees also could benefit from the savings on clothing, food and transportation, or the greater autonomy and increased satisfaction often reported in conjunction with telecommuting and compressed work weeks (Hartman, Stoner & Arora, 1991; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). In addition, organizations can more widely capture the benefits of using this as a recruiting tool if they offer the benefits to all employees openly (Friedman, 1991; Galen, Palmer & Maremont, 1993; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990).

Because of reduced transportation needs, the increased use of these schedules is also beneficial to the environment, which presents the organization with a good public relations opportunity.

If differences exist among groups of employees who have family needs it seems at least as likely that they could exist between employees who have family needs and those who do not. This study adds to our understanding by determining if and to what extent this discrepancy exists. Differences would be most obvious if an employee without family responsibilities was blatantly denied usage of an alternative work schedule based on official organizational policy stating that these types of schedules are only available to employees who demonstrate family needs. Although it is very unlikely that this type of official policy exists in organizations, the possibility will be considered if for no other reason than ruling it out. It is more probable that differences will exist for the same reason they are likely to exist between men and women. In other words, in most organizations employees without family needs are probably officially allowed to have an alternative work schedule. However, they may be disinclined to request one because they perceive that it is incomprehensible that the request will be granted due to a strong organizational emphasis on family. Consider for example, the case at Johnson & Johnson, the world's largest manufacturer of health care products. This organization has put in place a program called "Balancing Work and Family" which includes the use of Flexible Work Arrangements (FWAs). The company's definition of FWAs contains the following phrase: "...the company encourages supervisors to respond to the needs of individual employees who experience changes in family responsibilities by developing flexible work arrangements..." (Families and Work Institute, 1993). This does not mean that J&J specifically disallows flexible work arrangements for employees who have not experienced "changes in family responsibility" but the issue is clearly linked to work-family conflict.

In terms of organizational justice theories, several circumstances described above could create perceptions of unfair treatment. If these circumstances exist, decisions are procedurally unfair. For example, decisions are not being made consistently across people and they do not represent the concerns of all subgroups of the population. In terms of equity theory, the various subgroups of employees are all presumably contributing comparable inputs, but some are receiving the added benefit or outcome of access to childcare or flexible work arrangements.

Finally, we must recognize that all of the situations described above are based on perceptions alone. Studies like those cited by Schwartz (1994) and Rapoport and Bailey (1996) are based on self-report measures of perceptions of access. This study was conducted to take their findings a step further by substantiating the claims of differential access and addressing them within the theoretical context of organizational justice. If perceptions of unfair treatment are found, studies comparing perception to actual corporate policy and culture are very important. This study will help identify and pinpoint the problem, however, it cannot be completely understood until we know why the perceptions exist.

Unequal distribution of work responsibilities and undesirable shifts. One of the unexpected consequences of a family-friendly organizational culture may be that employees without families are unintentionally expected to work longer or more undesirable hours. It stands to reason that when managers try to uphold the organization's value of helping employees balance their work and family lives that they may inadvertently expect the rest of their employees to work harder. Deadlines must still be met when people with dependents leave to tend to their family responsibilities and someone must work overtime or travel when an unexpected business emergency arises. Single or childless employees may be missing important life events when managers respect other employees' family needs.

Unequal distribution of resources. Lastly, the issue of unequal expenditures related to work-family initiatives was considered. Obviously, employees without dependents have no need for these types of programs, so the potential problem is not that some employees are blocked from using these benefits. The expenditures made on dependent care represent a different issue, one in which resources are being spent on a particular group of employees and no equivalent disbursement is being made for the benefit of the others. When this situation is considered in terms of equity theory, the two groups of employees are making on average the same contributions to the organization, but people with dependents are receiving a bigger piece of the compensation budget. For example, Hallmark Cards offers employees who adopt children $5,000 in aid but no mention is made of them offering employees without children a similar disbursement for personal use or offering employees with elder care responsibilities any funding (Wilburn & McMorris, 1994). Or if an organization chooses to build an expensive new child care facility or otherwise subsidize child care (e.g., pre-tax allowances), childless employees do not directly benefit. Because there are finite resources available for employee assistance at any organization they may feel that resources would be more fairly utilized if the company offered equivalent benefits to childless employees. For example, employees could be given the choice of an equally subsidized gym membership or child care costs, or the organization could build a fitness center as well as the child care facility. There is some empirical evidence that employee fitness centers effect bottom line outcomes similar to those associated with work-family programs. Those who use the centers demonstrate an improvement in performance, absenteeism, turnover and perceptions of the organization (Bernacki & Baun, 1984; Falkenberg; 1987, Gebhardt & Crump; 1990). The organization could also opt to give monetary compensation equivalent to that given to employees with subsidized childcare.

Perhaps a more fair solution is including dependent care costs within the context of a cafeteria benefit plan or individual spending accounts. That way all employees are allotted equal monetary benefits that can be used in a way that best suits each individual. While cafeteria benefits are more difficult to administer and maintain, the effort may be worthwhile if many employees' perceptions of work-family programs are negatively affecting key work behaviors. Recent conversations with senior human resources executives from two large companies suggests that this is a viable alternative because many organizations already offer some type of cafeteria benefit plan.

One should note that it is possible that employees without current dependent care needs realize that they may benefit from these programs in the future therefore perceiving that the programs are fair. This possibility was addressed in the current study.

Hypotheses. As described, work-family programs, policy and culture may be experienced differently by individuals as a function of demographic differences in family structure, sex, race and job level associated with perceived differential access. Other variables which were previously discussed such as anticipated family needs, and a positive attitude toward the organization for providing family assistance, were also tested as possible influences on perceptions of fairness.

As discussed in Chapter 2, the outcomes of some past fairness studies are questionable because researchers did not consider the issue of affectivity. In the current study, trait measures of positive and negative affectivity were included to determine if perceptions of fairness were due to organizational policy or practice (as it affects different groups of employees) and/or to the more general issue of an individual's affectivity. A measure of trait affectivity was more appropriate than a measure of current affective state because there was no purposeful manipulation of the experimental situation. In other words, there was no deception in this study that would have caused the participants' to feel a temporarily lowered self-esteem or demoralization as in some previous studies. It was also appropriate due to an interest to study positive and negative affectivity as a personality characteristic linked to fairness.

Using affectivity as a control and an independent variable takes the study of affectivity and fairness a step farther than considering affectivity only as something to control. The possibility exists that a general predisposition toward either positive or negative affectivity could be the primary determinant of perceptions of fairness of work-family programs. It is possible that those people who are predisposed to either negative or positive affectivity are more or less likely, respectively to experience and report perceptions of unfairness. It is also analyzed as a control variable because it could operate solely as a moderator, which left undetected, would obscure the relationship between the other independent variables and the mediator of perceptions of fairness.

Hypothesis 1a: Employees with high negative affect and/or low positive affect perceive work-family programs as less fair than do employees with low negative affect and/or high positive affect.

Hypothesis 1b: Employees with lower level jobs (technical, administrative) perceive work-family programs as less fair than do employees with higher level jobs (managers, supervisors and professionals) after controlling for affectivity.

Hypothesis 1c: Employees with fewer family responsibilities perceive the programs as less fair than do employees with greater family responsibilities after controlling for affectivity.

Hypothesis 1d: Men perceive work-family programs as less fair than do women after controlling for affectivity.

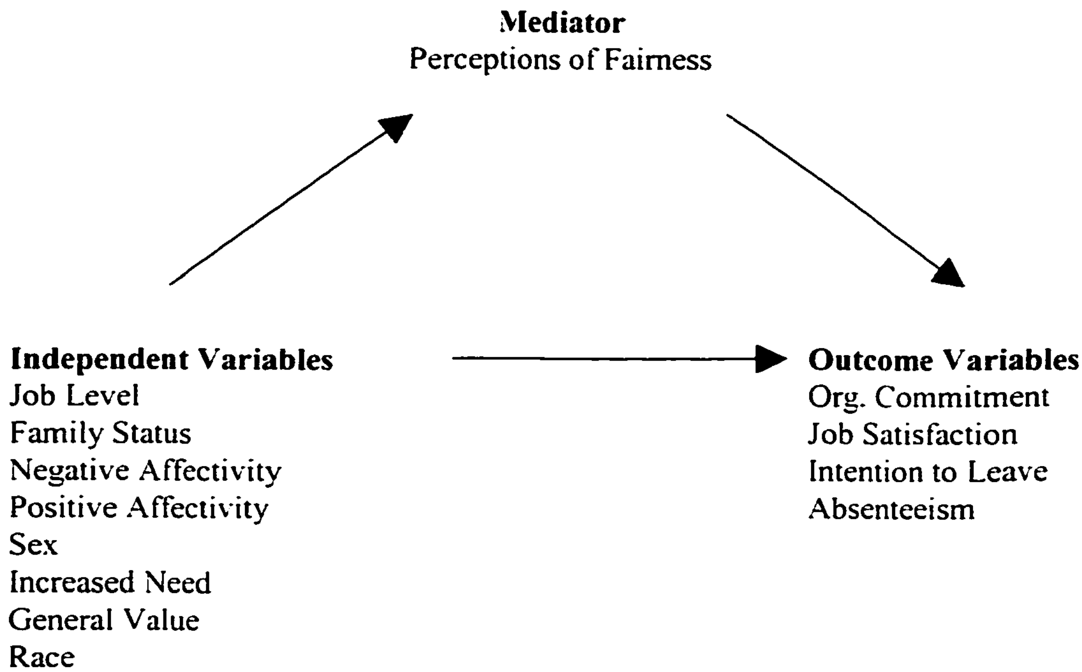
Hypothesis 1e: Employees who do not anticipate an increase in need for work-family programs perceive the programs as less fair than those who anticipate an increase in their family responsibilities.

Hypothesis 1f: Minority employees do not perceive work-family programs as less fair than do majority employees after controlling for affectivity.

Hypothesis 1g: Employees who do not value the organization for making provisions for family needs perceive the programs as less fair than employees who do value the organization for making such provisions.

The variables in hypotheses 1a-1g are hypothesized to predict employee's perceptions of fairness which will mediate the relationship between those variables listed in hypothesis 1a-1g and the work outcomes of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, absenteeism and intention to leave. This relationship is depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Predicted Mediating Model



Work Outcomes

Organizational leaders expect that a number of outcomes will be positively affected by the implementation of work-family programs. As demonstrated in the work-family literature review the outcomes most frequently studied in the work-family literature are: organizational commitment, morale, job satisfaction, absenteeism, tardiness, turnover, productivity, and recruitment. As previously discussed, there is some indication that each of these outcomes is positively affected in family-friendly organizations. Perceptions of fairness have also been linked with several of these outcomes: organizational commitment, job satisfaction, absenteeism and turnover (Dubinsky & Levy, 1989; Greenberg, 1986b; Moorman, 1991; Mowday, 1991; Steers & Porter, 1991; Summers & Hendrix, 1991; Sweeney, 1990; Witt & Nye, 1992). Therefore while these programs may positively affect workers with families, other employees could be affected negatively along many of the same dimensions if they perceive that work-family programs are unfair.

In order to demonstrate the mediating effect of perceptions of fairness, two sets of hypotheses are tested. First, the relationships between the independent variables and the outcome variables have to be established:

Hypothesis 2a: The eight independent variables in hypotheses 1a-1g predict a significant amount of variance in organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2b: The eight independent variables in hypotheses 1a-1g predict a significant amount of variance in job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2c: The eight independent variables in hypotheses 1a-1g predict a significant amount of variance in absenteeism.

Hypothesis 2d: The eight independent variables in hypotheses 1a-1g predict a significant amount of variance in intention to leave.

The final set of hypotheses demonstrate the hypothesized mediating relationship link the mediating variable, in this case, perceptions of fairness of work-family programs, to the four outcome variables:

Hypothesis 3a: Perceptions of fairness mediate the relationship between the eight independent variables listed in Hypotheses 1a-g and organizational commitment. Specifically, employees who perceive that work-family programs are unfair are significantly less committed to the organization than are other employees.

Hypothesis 3b: Perceptions of fairness mediate the relationship between the eight independent variables listed in Hypotheses 1a-g and job satisfaction. Specifically, employees who perceive that work-family programs are unfair are significantly less satisfied with their jobs than other employees.

Hypothesis 3c: Perceptions of fairness mediate the relationship between the eight independent variables listed in Hypotheses 1a-g and absenteeism.

Specifically, employees who perceive that work-family programs are unfair are absent significantly more often than other employees.

Hypothesis 3d: Perceptions of fairness mediate the relationship between the eight independent variables listed in Hypotheses 1a-g and turnover intention. Specifically, employees who perceive that work-family programs are unfair have a significantly greater intention to leave the organization.

Organizational Justice Developments

As previously discussed, there is some evidence that procedural justice is more strongly related to attitudes and that distributive justice is a better predictor of behaviors and other concrete outcomes, such as pay satisfaction (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler, Rasinski & McGraw, 1985). In order to determine if either fairness construct was a better predictor of these outcomes, each construct was linked to the outcomes in hypothesis 2a-d: organizational commitment, job satisfaction, absenteeism and intention to leave.

Hypothesis 4: Perceptions of procedural justice account for significantly more variance in the prediction of organizational commitment and job satisfaction than do perceptions of distributive justice.

Hypothesis 5: Perceptions of distributive justice account for significantly more variance justice in the prediction of absenteeism and intention to leave than perceptions of procedural justice.

It is also hypothesized that the overall predictability of each outcome was improved significantly by the combination of the justice constructs.

Hypothesis 6: Measures of procedural justice and distributive justice combined explain significantly more variance in organizational commitment, job satisfaction, absenteeism, and intention to leave than either construct alone.

Chapter 5

Method

Participants

A heterogeneous group of 197 respondents were surveyed in this study. All participants worked for at least six months in organizations that offer at least one work-family program (such as on-site childcare or flextime; a complete list is provided in the survey in Appendix B). Eight surveys were not included in the statistical analyses either because the respondent's organization did not provide appropriate work-family programs or an excessive amount of data were missing. All participation was voluntary and anonymous.

Table 2 contains specific demographic information. Participants were recruited from five geographically dispersed businesses of varying sizes, one urban college and one suburban university. This type of sampling (combining responses from varied businesses and Universities) has been successfully used and combined into a single sample (Lefkowitz, 1994). Sixty-seven percent of the respondents are female, 50.5% are married and 41.5% have at least one child. The distribution of race/ethnicity resembles that of the population of the United States and a wide range of job levels are also represented.

Table 2

Participants' Demographic Information[1]

Demographic Factor	N	Percent
Sex		
Female	126	67
Male	62	33
No Response	1	.005
Race/Ethnicity		
White	130	68.8
African American/Black	28	14.8
Latino/a	13	6.9
Asian	6	3.2
Biracial	2	1
Indian	2	1
American Indian	1	.5
No Response	7	3.7
Marital Status		
Married/Living with Partner	105	49.7/5.8
Single	63	33.3
Divorced	15	7.9
Widowed	3	1.5
No Response	3	1.5
Number of Children (for whom they have parental responsibility)		
none	110	58.5
1 or more	79	41.5

[1] Percents may not equal 100 due to rounding

Number of Children in Daycare		
none	144	76.6
1 or more	45	23.4
Number of Hours Spent Caring for Elders (per week)		
None	171	90.4
1-5	12	6.3
6-10	4	2.1
11-20	2	1.1
Job Level		
Professional	34	17.9
Manager	20	10.6
Supervisor	17	9
Administrator	34	18
Technical	15	7.9
Craft	3	1.6
Salesperson	0	0
Operator-Laborer	11	5.8
Clerical-Secretarial	38	20
No Response	17	9
Collection Site		
Org. 1: large, urban	33	17.5
Org. 2: large, suburban	17	5.3
Org. 3: small, suburban	12	6.3
Org 4: small, suburban	14	7.4
Org 5: large, rural	12	6.3
Total from businesses	88	46.6
University: suburban	47	24.9
College: urban	54	28.6
Total from students	101	53.4

Procedure

After receiving IRB approval (Appendix B), data were collected in both organizational settings and in universities. Surveys were distributed in five businesses by individuals who were employed in each organization. The businesses represented several industries: financial, insurance, medical, customer service call center and educational. They were instructed to distribute surveys to people with different demographic backgrounds in varying jobs and to inform individuals that the study was about their perceptions of organizational policies, procedures and culture. Before surveys were distributed in any organization, I obtained information on work-family programs by speaking directly with individuals in the Human Resources Department of the organization or by reading official organizational policy statements (e.g. employee handbooks or new hire information packets). Each organization offered at least two major work-family programs/policies. Surveys and signed consent forms (Appendix C) were returned in sealed envelopes. The return rate for the data collected in the businesses was 38%.

Data was also collected in a college and a university. Participants were recruited through subject pool and in individual psychology and business classes. Only students who worked in companies with appropriate programs were asked to participate and all responses were screened for appropriate programs. Surveys were completed during class or subject pool sessions, so the response rate for working students was 100%. A debriefing letter was distributed or read to all participants in which the researcher offered to share detailed results with everyone who furnished their name and address.

Measures

The complete questionnaire and consent forms designed for the study is Appendix C. Individual questions also are listed separately by variable in Appendix D.

Independent Variables

The independent variables investigated were sex, race, job level, family status, anticipated need for work-family programs, perceptions of the general importance of work-family programs and dispositional affectivity.

Demographic variables. Participants reported their sex, race, and job level. Sex was coded as: female = 1, male = 2. Race was coded as: all minorities = 1, non-minorities = 2. Although this race coding is not ideal, there were not enough participants representing each race to conduct analyses across all races. In addition, although income and education have also been correlated with access to work-family programs, only job level was considered because of its high correlation with income and education. Job level was grouped using Blau and Duncan's (1967) nine categories. Two independent raters then ranked the job categories in terms of responsibility and typical organizational hierarchy. The raters had 100% agreement and survey responses were coded as follows: 9 = Professional, 8 = Manager, 7 = Administrator, 6 = Technical, 5 = Salesperson, 4 = Craft, 3 = Supervisor, 2 = Clerical-Secretarial, 1 = Operator-Laborer.

Family Status. Participants reported their marital status, number of children for whom they had parental responsibility during workdays, number of children for whom they needed child care and elder care needs. Family status was operationalized as a continuous measure of need/responsibility based on responses to those questions and was determined through an additive process. Each immediate family member (self, spouse, significant other, and children) and each additional need for dependent care was assigned a point. For example, a person who was married with one child living at home and who had no daycare or elder care needs had a family status of 3 (self = 1, spouse = 1, child = 1). If that person had another child living at home who needed daycare, family status was raised to 5 (1 point for the additional child and 1 point for daycare needs for a child). This system quantified both family size and dependent care needs because they are separate issues. A person with a child has more family needs than someone with no children, but fewer than someone with a child who requires daycare. Similarly, a single parent with one child needing childcare and a married parent with one child needing no childcare receive the same points (3). While single parents do not have the support of a spouse, they also do not have the responsibilities and time commitments required of a spouse. While it can be argued that a single parent still has greater family needs than a married parent, the key point of this study is that both types of parents have substantially more needs than a single, childless person.

Anticipated work-family needs. Participants also indicated whether they anticipated an increase in their family responsibilities in the next five years. The Families and Work Institute (1993) use this method as a measure of anticipated need. This response was used to control for positive reactions from individuals who foresee needing more work-family benefits in the future. Increases in anticipated need for both child and elder care were each included and measured on a four point scale: (1) definitely will not (2) probably will not (3) probably will (4) definitely will.

General Importance of Family Supportive Policies. It is possible that some employees who do not use these programs simply feel positively about the provision of work-family services. These feelings could over-ride the fairness issues for some people. The director of Human Resources at a large financial institution by chance stated that she believed this true in a recent personal interview. In addition, in a recent survey, 58% of the employees in one organization who had never used any work-family benefits indicated that family supportive policies were very important in deciding to stay with the organization. The percentage of the 1,000 employees responding to the survey who had family responsibilities was not reported, but it is reasonable to assume that some of them were single, childless or without elder care needs (Work and Families Institute, 1993). Two items were included to measure this opinion. Responses were made on a seven point Likert scale with anchors ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The two items correlated .56, $p<.01$.

Affectivity. Measures of both negative and positive affectivity were included in the survey. Negative affectivity (NA) is defined as a general dimension of subjective distress that embodies various aversive mood states (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). Although negative affectivity is often considered the opposite of positive affectivity (PA), NA is actually a distinct dimension. A low state of NA is not necessarily characterized by positive affectivity, but instead by calmness and serenity. A person with high PA is generally enthusiastic, active and alert, and low PA is characterized by sadness and lethargy.

The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) is a 20 item scale developed by Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988) that measures both types of affectivity. Each item is a word describing different moods (e.g. interested, jittery, proud). The scale has been successfully used as a measure of both trait and state characteristics depending on the time frame stated in the directions. The researchers recognize that measures of current state do, to some extent, reflect a person's primary traits. This is evidenced by an increase in retest stability of the scale as time frames lengthen. However, there is also evidence that certain current situations (e.g. a particularly stressful event) do significantly change a person's state responses.

Depending on the researcher's needs, respondents can be asked how they feel at the moment, today, the past few days, weeks, year or in general. The PANAS scale has demonstrated appropriate internal consistency reliability for each time frame with alpha coefficients ranged from .84 to .87 (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). The alpha for the negative affectivity items was .86, the alpha for the positive items was .91.

A portion of this scale was first used in organizational justice research by Folger and Konovsky (1989) as a means for controlling the effects of NA on the true relationship between fairness and satisfaction outcomes. The authors however, only included the half of the PANAS associated with negative affectivity and did not find significant results and the author of the scale has confirmed that the entire scale should be used to avoid response bias (D. Watson, personal correspondence, April 6, 1998). The whole scale was included in this study as a means for understanding both types of dispositional factors in the perception of fairness; the positive and negative halves of the scale were analyzed separately. Participants indicated how they generally felt (for each item) on a 5 point scale with anchors ranging from very slightly/not at all to extremely. Responses to the ten words respectively associated with positive and negative affect were added and represented respondent's level of each trait.

Mediating Variable

The mediator in this study was perception of fairness of work-family programs and policies. Items measuring both procedural and distributive justice were included in the survey. The items were combined into one measure of organizational justice when constructing the mediating model because there is some evidence that the use of both constructs accounts for more variance than using only one construct (e.g. Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Greenberg, 1990). The constructs of procedural and organizational justice are used as dependent variables in hypotheses 4 and 5 and are analyzed separately when testing those hypotheses.

Organizational Justice Measure

This measure was developed in accordance with previous research findings regarding both distributive and procedural justice. One overall measure of justice was used because several researchers (e.g. Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Greenberg, 1990) have strongly suggested that the two constructs are related and should be integrated for a fuller understanding of organizational justice. In the present study, the items related to the two constructs had a correlation of .72, $p<.001$.

The basic structure or stem of each question was derived from items in scales that have demonstrated reliability and validity (e.g. Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Grover, 1991; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Sweeney, 1990). Questions measuring procedural justice were developed based on the factors discussed by Leventhal (1980) and Greenberg (1986a). Five distinct procedural justice components emerged as the result of their studies: soliciting input prior to decisions, two-way communication regarding decisions, the ability to challenge/rebut decisions, familiarity with an employee's work prior to decision making, and the consistent application of standards.

Since the context of this study (work-family programs) is different from that of other fairness research, a pilot study was conducted before this scale was developed. Because there is no set group of rules applicable to all contexts, the pilot was an attempt to identify relevant factors. Forty-six students were read the same instructions given in the questionnaire in Appendix D and asked to think about whether they felt their organizations' work-family/life policies were fair. They were instructed to think about a specific related incident when a decision was made and if they believed that decision was fair. The students then wrote down the one most important thing they considered as they determined the fairness of the decision. Twenty students were able to think of a relevant example and their responses were sorted. Possible categories for the sort included the justice rules identified by Leventhal (See Table 1) and an "other" category for any responses that did not fit Leventhal's structure. The issues the students reported closely resembled two of Leventhal's rules (ability to challenge/rebut decisions and the consistent application of standards) and one factor identified by Greenberg (two-way communication).

The lack of evidence supporting any other factors could have been due to the small number of responses, or to the irrelevance of some factors. Most importantly, new issues that were not identified by Greenberg or Leventhal did not emerge, so a combination of their factors that are relevant to the issues at hand were included in the procedural justice items (soliciting input prior to decisions, two-way communication regarding decisions, the ability to challenge/rebut decisions, familiarity with an employee's work prior to decision making, and the consistent application of standards).

Twelve procedural justice items were written in a format similar to those found in the Folger and Konovsky (1989) scale. This is the most frequently used measure of procedural justice and has a reported alpha coefficient of .85 (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). The exact questions could not be used because the context of this study is different and questions of a very specific nature were needed. However, individual items were modeled after the Folger and Konovsky questionnaire and were written based on the major fairness issues discussed in the last chapter: unequal resource expenditures, disparate access to some initiatives and the perception that employees without families often work longer hours and/or more inconvenient days. For example, one Folger and Konovsky item is: "My manager gave me the opportunity to express my side"...about my performance appraisal. The item in this study was worded "...I am given the opportunity to express my opinion about which programs should be developed". Other items were taken from various published scales and changed in a similar fashion to fit the topic.

There are no broadly accepted measures of distributive justice either, so these items were developed using wording similar to that found in published studies (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Hackman & Oldham 1980; Summers & Hendrix, 1991; Sweeney, 1990; Witt & Nye, 1992). Again, items for this study were very specific and based on the fairness issues previously discussed.

For each organizational justice question participants indicated the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement. Responses were made on a seven point Likert scale with anchors of: (1) strongly disagree, (2) slightly disagree, (3) moderately disagree (4) neither agree or disagree, (5) slightly agree, (6) moderately agree (7) strongly agree.

Responses to negatively phrased items were recoded and a principal components factor analysis with an oblique rotation was conducted. Three items were deleted from the original scale. Two items were deleted because their factor loadings were less than .40, which is an estimate of significance suggested by Stevens (1996). An additional item was deleted from the scale because it was the only item that loaded on a particular factor. A general rule of thumb is that each factor should include at least three items (Stevens, 1996). In its final format, the scale included twenty-two items and had an alpha of .76. The final factor loadings, which were recalculated after deleting the three aforementioned items, are found in Table 3. After the scale was finalized, the mean of the remaining items was calculated and used as a measure of organizational justice. High scores indicate a larger degree of perceived fairness.

Table 3.

Factor Loadings for Organizational Justice Scale.

	Factor*					
	Procedural	Distributive	Procedural	Procedural	Distributive	Distributive
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Item						
1	-.108	-7.6E-02	.119	-6.9E-02	-2.37	**-.610**
2	**.417**	2.431E-02	-.177	4.082E-02	8.941E-02	**-.639**
3	**.404**	4.447E-02	-.100	-1.6E-02	2.473E-02	**-.554**
4	5.420E-04	2.070E-02	4.878E-02	**.733**	-.208	.119
5	.157	.226	**.519**	.108	.278	-.174
6	-.188	**.555**	-.155	9.523E-02	-9.3E-02	-1.2E-02
7	4.737E-02	.159	.110	-4.7E-02	**-.648**	-6.0E-02
8	-.106	-.196	.179	-.137	**.569**	8.362E-02
9	-1.9E-02	**.786**	.136	1.985E-02	-7.7E-02	-1.1E-03
10	9.2E-02	.158	9.500E-02	1.773E-02	**-.531**	-.204
11	**.793**	-.174	4.678E-02	.119	-.304	3.526E-02
12	**.558**	9.275E-02	-9.7E-02	6.059E-02	.225	-.236
13	8.656E-02	-6.1E-02	.120	**.547**	**.448**	-4.1E-02
14	**.764**	-.101	.141	7.347E-02	-1.7E-02	5.901E-02
15	4.565E-02	.186	**.672**	9.310E-03	.103	-.103
16	.115	-.123	**.750**	.149	-.220	8.772E-02
17	2.608E-02	-.177	**.799**	-1.2E-02	-9.6E-02	.122
18	-3.6E-02	.122	**.535**	-5.5E-02	.169	**-.425**
19	.136	**.775**	1.126E-02	-4.7E-02	-.139	.184
20	-8.2E-02	-6.7E-02	6.405E-02	.290	-7.1E-02	**-.613**
21	**.722**	.133	.159	-.172	7.432E-02	4.460E-02
22	-2.3E-02	8.271E-02	-1.8E-02	**.787**	9.418E-02	-.120

*all loadings <.40 are highlighted

When testing hypotheses five and six, the organizational justice scale was separated into distributive and procedural justice components. As previously stated, items for the organizational justice scale were written for the work-family context of this study using previously published research on both constructs as a guide. Items representing each construct were written and the factor analysis (Table 3) of the organizational justice scale revealed that both components were made up of three factors each. The results of the factor analysis were used as the basis for constructing the separate scales. Items deleted from the initial factor analysis were also excluded from the component scales.

The final procedural justice scale included twelve items (Appendix D) and has an alpha of .77. The distributive scale is composed of ten items and has an alpha of .65. Although not particularly strong, this alpha approaches the .70 recommended standard set by Nunally (1978). Item-subscale correlations are shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Item-Subscale Correlations for Distributive and Procedural Justice
(Items are numbered the same as in Table 3)

Item	Distributive Justice Subscale
1	.433**
2	.577**
3	.489**
6	.435**
7	.506**
8	.281*
9	.586**
10	.474**
19	.489**
20	.499**

Item	Procedural Justice
4	.360*
5	.650***
11	.574**
12	.472**
13	.469**
14	.621***
15	.590**
16	.603***
17	.517**
18	.536**
21	.517**
22	.449**

* $p<.05$
** $p<.01$
*** $p<.001$

Dependent Variables

Organizational Commitment. Organizational commitment has been defined and operationalized excessively. Morrow (1983) identified over thirty commitment related terms and definitions. One useful way to categorize these many definitions is by conceptualizing commitment as either a behavioral or an attitudinal construct. That is, defining commitment in terms of how much an individual's actions or behaviors exceed normative expectations (behaviors) or in terms of how strongly a person's identity is linked to the organization's values (attitudes). Each of these types of definitions has received a great deal of attention and has proven useful (Mowday & McDade, 1979). In this study organizational commitment was measured using a scale that focuses mainly on the attitudinal component.

A fifteen-item scale developed by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) which measures organizational commitment was included in the survey. The items pertain to the amount of effort the employee is willing to put forth for the organization, the level of belief in and effort expended toward the achievement of the organizational goals, and the level of desire to maintain membership in the organization. Responses were made on a seven point Likert scale with anchors ranging from (1) strongly agree to (7) strongly disagree. The mean score for the

15 items was calculated, and the higher the score the higher the degree of the individual's organizational commitment.

The instrument has been shown to be valid and reliable. The alpha coefficients range from .82 to .93, item analysis has shown that each item has a positive correlation with total score on the instrument and factor analysis has revealed a single item solution. In addition, test-retest reliabilities have ranged from .53 to .75 over two to four month periods (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). The alpha coefficient in this study was .89.

Job Satisfaction. A global measure of satisfaction was used as an indicator of the overall quality of the individual's job and the participant's overall responses to that job. Job satisfaction was measured with the three item Overall Job Satisfaction scale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire which has a reported reliability of .79 (Cook, Hepworth, Wall & Warr, 1981). In this study the reliability was .89.

Turnover Intention. Without conducting a longitudinal study, measuring turnover directly was not possible. However as Kopelman, Rovenpor and Millsap (1992) noted, one of the best predictors of actual turnover behavior is the intention to leave the organization. Intention to turnover is defined as a deliberate or conscious willfulness to leave the organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993) and was assessed in this study. It was measured using the three item scale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire which has a reported coefficient alpha of .83 (Cook et al., 1981). The coefficient alpha in this study was .86.

Absenteeism. Because I was more interested in absences due to work attitudes rather than illness, absence was measured using the Attitudinal Index (George, 1989). This index is a count of single day absences and is believed to be more reflective of voluntary absenteeism than are absences of longer duration which are more likely to be due to other, involuntary reasons. Participants reported the number and duration of their absences for the six-month period preceding data collection. Accurately remembering absences that occurred over a longer time period is difficult. The number of single day absences was calculated using this information.

Data Analysis

Preliminary analyses were conducted to determine the number of responses needed and the appropriateness of combining the student and business data. Factor analysis and reliability analyses then were completed to build validity evidence for the scales used in the survey. Finally, hypotheses were tested by constructing a series of regression models.

Chapter 6

Results

Preliminary Statistical Analyses

Power Analysis. Studies conducted by Park and Dudycha (1974: as cited in Stevens, 1996) provided information regarding the number of subjects needed for a reliable multiple regression prediction equation that had good generalizability. Since the analyses for this study involved a series of multiple regressions their estimation was used. Park and Dudycha's research produced several tables used in the estimation of the number of participants needed according to the number of predictors in the study and the expected effect size. The authors suggested using past research findings as an estimate of an expected squared population multiple correlation. However, there were no similar studies published with comparable subjects and predictors. Using the tables I estimated that at least 150 participants were needed. This is based on a regularly used standard of medium effect size (squared population multiple correlation of .25) in a study of 7 predictors. The final N for this study was 189. Using this estimate the loss in predictive power, or shrinkage, was small at < .05 with a high probability = .90.

Sample Analysis. Data were collected from working students and employees in several business, therefore chi square analyses were conducted, assuring that demographic characteristics were in relatively similar proportions between both the groups. The analyses indicated that there were no significant differences between the two types of participants regarding job level or the number of children or elders for whom they provide care. There are differences in the proportion of men and women, minority and non-minority individuals, and the marital status between the groups. The student sample had a significantly higher proportion of men, minority individuals and single people. Findings are reported in Table 5.

A final initial step in data analysis was correlating all the variables in the study. The correlations are in table 6.

Table 5
Chi-Square Analyses of Sample Data

Demographic Variable	Chi-Square Value	df	Significance Level
Job Level	5.887	7	.553
Marital Status	15.538	4	.004
Number Children	6.632	5	.249
Number of Elders	3.952	3	.267
Race	11.863	1	.001
Sex	11.065	1	.001

Totals for Variables with Significantly Different Proportions

Variable		Population	
		Business	Student
Sex			
	Female	69	57
	Male	18	44
Race			
	Minority	13	38
	Non-Minority	70	60
Marital			
	Married	52	42
	Live together	5	6
	Single	17	46
	Divorced	10	5
	Widow	2	1

Table 6
Correlation Matrix of All Variables

Variable[2]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Absenteeism	1.00							
2 Job Satisfaction	-.066	1.00						
3 Organizational Commitment	-.053	.746**	1.00					
4 Intention to Leave	.109	-.673**	-.639**	1.00				
5 Organizational Justice	-.025	.398**	.537**	-.361**	1.00			
6 Distributive Justice	-.060	.224**	.320**	-.308**	.715**	1.00		
7 Procedural Justice	.005	.394**	.521**	-.291**	.892**	.323**	1.00	
8 Sex	.049	-.054	-.060	.082	-.098	-.138	-.043	1.00

[2] Scoring notes: Sex: Female = 1, Male = 2
Race: Minority = 1, Non-Minority = 2
Fairness, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice: higher score = more fair

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9 Race	-.122	.079	.001	-.139	-.150*	-.058	-.168*	.121	1.00
10 Family Status	.078	-.063	-.082	.025	.001	.137	-.086	.015	.052
11 Change in Need	-.028	-.184*	-.155	.140	-.040	-.064	-.013	-.087	-.140
12 Value of Programs	.174*	.007	.128	.023	.277**	.112	-304**	-.163*	-.224**
13 Job Level	-.072	.010	.035	-.018	.070	.132	.010	.183*	.087
14 Negative Affectivity	.124	-.235**	-.283**	.333**	-.188**	-.159*	-.153*	.092	.019
15 Positive Affectivity	-.128	.308**	.357**	.289**	.269**	.132	.282**	.028	-.084

** p<.01
* p<.05

Variable	10	11	12	13	14	15
10 Family Status	1.00					
11 Change in Need	-.072	1.00				
12 Value of Programs	.002	.097	1.00			
13 Job Level	-.015	-.002	-.082	1.00		
14 Negative Affectivity	-.009	.081	.009	-.103	1.00	
15 Positive Affectivity	-.021	-.002	.113	.099	-.113	1.00

** $p<.01$
* $p<.05$

Hypotheses Testing

The predicted relationships among the variables in this study are described best as that of perceived fairness mediating the effect between the independent and dependent variables. A variable is a mediator if it accounts for the relationship between a predictor and criterion. Mediators speak to how or why certain effects occur; they intervene between the input and output (Baron & Kenny, 1986). According to Baron and Kenny (1986), a variable is a mediator when it meets three criteria: (1) variations in levels of the independent variables account for variations in the presumed mediator. In this study the argument was made that factors such as sex and family status account for varied levels of perceived fairness. (2) Variations in the mediator significantly account for changes in the dependent variables. In this study perception of fairness was hypothesized to account for variations in organizational commitment, job satisfaction, absenteeism and turnover intention. (3) When the independent variables and the mediator are both used to predict the dependent variable, the mediator continues affecting the dependent variable.

When these three conditions are all met, then the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less when the mediator is included in the equation (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The strongest evidence for a mediating variable occurs when the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is reduced to zero when the mediator is introduced. However, there are typically multiple causes in psychological relationships, and the subsequent reduction in the effect of the independent variables should be considered in relative terms, reduction to zero is not necessary.

The mediating relationship was tested using a series of regression models. Hypotheses 1a-g relate to the demographic and affective variables and are the first link in the mediating model. In this first step the relationship among each of the variables and the mediator was tested by regressing perceptions of fairness on all eight independent variables. Some of the first set of hypotheses was supported. As expected, hypotheses 1a positive affectivity (beta .169, $p<.05$), negative affectivity (beta -.176, $p<.01$) and general value of the programs (beta .26, $p<.01$) explained a significant amount of variance of perceptions of fairness in the hypothesized direction. Employees with negative affectivity perceived the programs as less fair, while employees who value the programs in general and those who have high positive affectivity perceive the programs as more fair.

The hypotheses related to job level (1c), family status (1d), sex (1e), increase in family needs (1e) and race (1f) were not supported. Results are shown in Table 7. Figure 2 represents the changes due to these findings in the predicted mediating model.

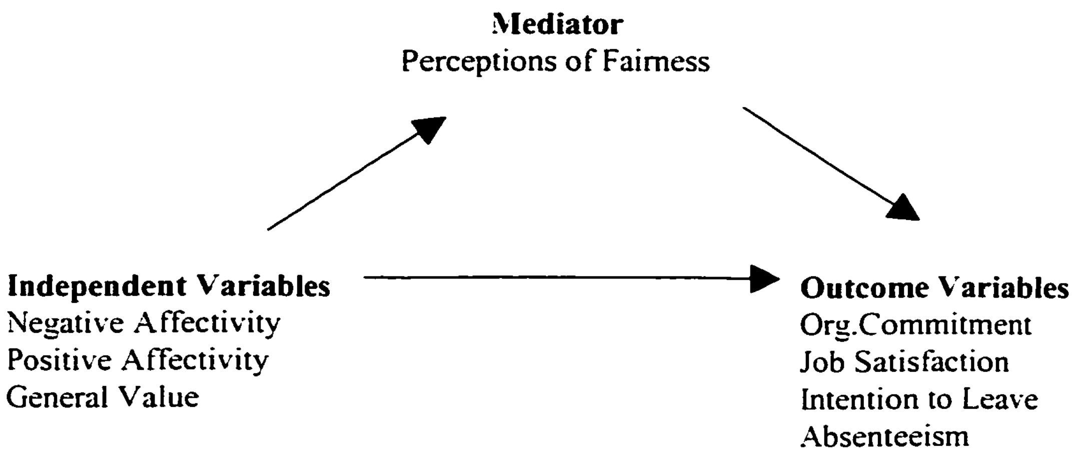
Upon further consideration, it seemed possible that affectivity could have a moderating affect on family status. For example, individuals with a particularly high need for work-family programs may perceive them as fair regardless of their affectivity. Therefore, post-hoc analyses of the interactions between family status and positive affect, and family status and negative affect were also conducted. The findings were not significant and are also presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Hypotheses 1a-1g: Regression of Perceptions of Fairness on the Independent Variables.

Variable	Beta	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	R^2 Change
		.415	.172***	.130	
Negative Affect	-.179**				
Positive Affect	.169*				
Job Level	.101				
Family Status	.001				
Sex	-.104				
Change in Need	-.083				
General Value	.236**				
Race	-.053				
With Post-Hoc Interactions		.420	.177***	.124	.005
Negative Affect	-.164				
Positive Affect	.269*				
Job Level	.096				
Family Status	.402				
Sex	-.101				
Change in Need	-.082				
General Value	.226**				
Race	-.060				
Family Status X Negative Affect	-.054				
Family Status X Positive Affect	-.374				

***p< .001
**p<.01
*p<.05

Figure 2. Changes in Mediating Model After Hypotheses 1a - 1g were tested.



The second group of hypotheses (2a - 2d) were tested to establish the second link in the mediating relationship. Each independent variable that significantly predicts any dependent variable meets the second condition in the mediational model. Separate regression equations were conducted for each outcome variable, and to control for affectivity, positive and negative affectivity (PA and NA, respectively) were entered into the equation first. Findings are described beneath each hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2a: The eight independent variables in hypotheses 1a-g predict a significant amount of variance in organizational commitment.

This hypothesis was partially supported. As shown in Table 8, NA (beta -.284, $p<.001$) and PA (beta .279, $p<.001$) predicted a significant amount of variance (25%) in organizational commitment. After controlling for affectivity, no other independent variables were significant.

Table 8. Hypothesis 2a: Hierarchical Regression of Organizational Commitment on Independent Variables.

Variable	Beta	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	R^2 Change
Step 1		.439	.193***	.183	
Negative Affect	-.298***				
Positive Affect	.290***				
Step 2		.497	.247***	.209	.026
Negative Affect	-.284***				
Positive Affect	.279***				
Job Level	.011				
Family Status	-.130				
Sex	-.097				
Change in Need	-.148				
General Value	.101				
Race	.056				

*p< .05
**p<.01
***p<.001

Hypothesis 2b: The eight independent variables in hypotheses 1a-g predict a significant amount of variance in job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2b was also partially supported. A significant amount of variance in job satisfaction (22%) was predicted by NA (beta -.210, $p<.001$), PA (beta .305, $p<.001$) and change in family needs (beta-.182, $p<.05$). However, because change in family needs was not significantly correlated with perceptions of fairness, it is not part of the mediating model.) No other independent variable predicted job satisfaction. Results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Hypothesis 2b: Hierarchical Regression of Job Satisfaction on Independent Variables.

Variable	Beta	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	R^2 Change
Step 1		.397	.158***	.147	
Negative Affect	-.227***				
Positive Affect	.301***				
Step 2		.468	.219***	.179	.062
Negative Affect	-.210***				
Positive Affect	.305***				
Job Level	-.021				
Family Status	-.112				
Sex	-.060				
Change in Need	-.182*				
General Value	-.027				
Race	.101				

*p< .05
**p<.01
***p<.001

Hypothesis 2c: The eight independent variables in hypotheses 1a-g predict a significant amount of variance in absenteeism.

This hypothesis was partially supported. A small but significant amount of variance (9%, $p<.05$), was explained by the independent variables. Two variables were significant: positive affectivity (beta -.160, $p<.05$) and general value of the programs (beta .193, $p<.05$). Results are shown in Table 10.

Table 10. Hypothesis 2c: Hierarchical Regression of Absenteeism on Independent Variables.

Variable	Beta	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	R^2 Change
Step 1		.162	.026	.014	
Negative Affect	.068				
Positive Affect	-.139				
Step 2		.303	.092*	.045	.065
Negative Affect	.072				
Positive Affect	-.160*				
Job Level	-.025				
Family Status	.099				
Sex	.055				
Change in Need	-.061				
General Value	.193*				
Race	-.104				

*p< .05
**p<.01
***p<.001

Hypothesis 2d: The eight independent variables in hypotheses 1a-g predict a significant amount of variance in intention to leave.

This hypothesis is partially supported. The variables of PA (beta -.252, $p<.001$), NA (beta .313, $p<.001$) and change in family needs (beta .146, $p<.05$) predicted a significant amount of variance in intention to leave (23%). Again, because change in family needs does not correlate with perceptions of fairness, it is not included in the mediating model. Results are listed in Table 11.

Table 11. Hypothesis 2d: Hierarchical Regression of Intention to Leave on Independent Variables.

Variable	Beta	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	R^2 Change
Step 1		.427	.182***	.172	
Negative Affect	.325***				
Positive Affect	-.242***				
Step 2		.483	.234***	.195	.051
Negative Affect	.313***				
Positive Affect	-.252***				
Job Level	.044				
Family Status	.048				
Sex	.048				
Change in Need	.146*				
General Value	.023				
Race	-.141				

*p< .05
**p<.01
***p<.001

A third group of regression equations was used to test the mediating relationship among the independent variables that were significantly linked with both perceptions of fairness (the mediator) and the dependent variables. A hierarchical regression was conducted in which perceptions of fairness were added first, followed by the significant independent variables. Support for the mediating relationship is accumulated if the addition of the otherwise statistically significant independent variables to the equation (after the mediator has been forced in) accounts for little or no supplementary variance in the dependent variables. Perfect mediation has occurred if the independent variables have no effect when the mediator is controlled. Any reduction in the amount of variance explained by the independent variables in this equation (compared to the amount when the independent variables are entered alone) is evidence of mediation.

Hypothesis 3a: Perceptions of fairness mediate the relationship between the significant independent variables listed in Hypotheses 1a-g and organizational commitment. Specifically, employees who perceive that work-family programs are unfair are significantly less committed to the organization than are other employees.

There is evidence that perception of fairness partially mediates the relationship between the NA and PA and organizational commitment. The beta weights for both negative and positive affect are reduced when the mediator is added to the equation, and significantly more variance is explained when the mediator is added to the equation. Findings are listed in Table 12.

Table 12. Hypothesis 3a: Regression of Organizational Commitment on Perceptions of Fairness, Positive Affect and Negative Affect.

Variable	Beta	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change
Step 1		.432	.187***	.178	
Negative Affect	-.246***				
Positive Affect	.329***				
Step 2		.601	.361***	.350	.174***
Negative Affect	-.176**				
Positive Affect	.219**				
Fairness	.439***				

*p< .05
**p<.01
***p<.001

Hypothesis 3b: Perceptions of fairness mediate the relationship between the eight independent variables listed in Hypotheses 1a-g and job satisfaction. Specifically, employees who perceive that work-family programs are unfair are significantly less satisfied with their jobs than other employees.

There is evidence that perception of fairness partially mediates the relationship between NA, PA and job satisfaction. The beta weights for both negative and positive affect are reduced when the mediator is added to the equation, and significantly more variance is explained when the mediator is added to the equation. Table 13 shows the results of both regression equations.

Table 13. Hypothesis 3b: Regression of Job Satisfaction on Perceptions of Fairness, Positive Affect and Negative Affect

Variable	Beta	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change
Step 1		.368	.136***	.126	
Negative Affect	-.203**				
Positive Affect	.285***				
Step 2		.471	.222***	.209	.087***
Negative Affect	-.154*				
Positive Affect	.207**				
Fairness	.310***				

*p< .05
**p<.01
***p<.001

Hypothesis 3c: Perceptions of fairness mediate the relationship between the eight independent variables listed in Hypotheses 1a-g and absenteeism. Specifically, employees who perceive that work-family programs are unfair are absent significantly more than other employees.

This hypothesis was not supported. As shown in Table 14, perceptions of fairness do not predict a significant amount of variance in absenteeism.

Table 14. Hypothesis 3c: Regression of Absenteeism on Perceptions of Fairness, Positive Affect and General Value of Work-Family Programs

Variable	Beta	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change
Step 1		.234	.055**	.044	
Positive Affect	-.152*				
General Value	.196**				
Step 2		.241	.058**	.042	.003
Positive Affect	-.138*				
General Value	.212**				
Fairness	-.062				

*p< .05
**p<.01
***p<.001

Hypothesis 3d: Perceptions of fairness mediate the relationship between the eight independent variables listed in Hypotheses 1a-g and turnover intention. Specifically, employees who perceive that work-family programs are unfair have a significantly greater intention to leave the organization.

There is evidence that perception of fairness partially mediates the relationship between NA, PA and intention to leave. The beta weights for both negative and positive affect are reduced when the mediator is added to the equation, and significantly more variance is explained when the mediator is added to the equation. Findings are shown in Table 15.

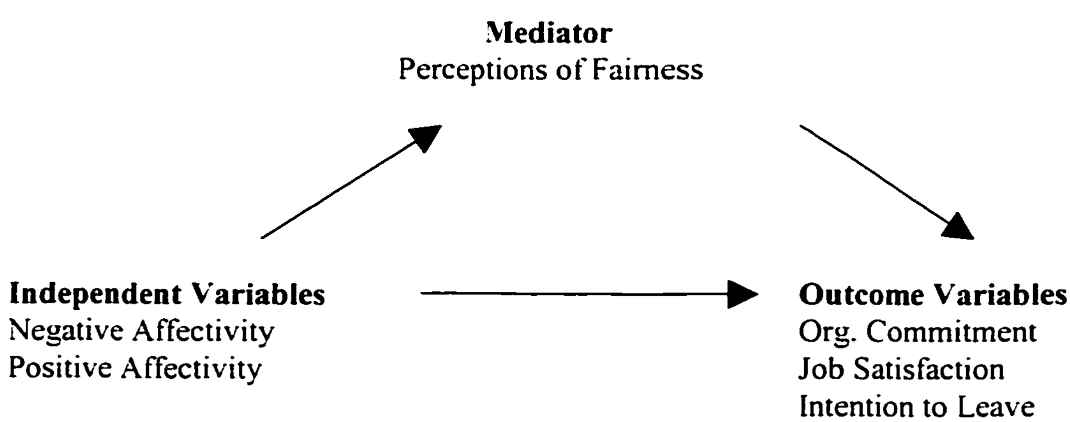
Table 15. Hypothesis 3d: Regression of Intention to Leave on Perceptions of Fairness, Positive Affect, and Negative Affect

Variable	Beta	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	R^2 Change
Step 1		.419	.175***	.166	
Negative Affect	.305***				
Positive Affect	-.255***				
Step 2		.494	.244***	.231	.069***
Negative Affect	.261***				
Positive Affect	-.186**				
Fairness	-.276***				

*p< .05
**p<.01
***p<.001

In conclusion, there is evidence that perceptions of fairness of work-family programs mediate the relationship among negative and positive affectivity and the three outcomes of organizational commitment, job satisfaction and intention to leave. The final mediating model is shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Final Mediating Model



Additionally, although there is no mediating relationship, positive affectivity has a significant inverse relationship with absenteeism while valuing work-family programs has a significant positive relationship with absenteeism. A final interesting note is that although expected changes in the increase of family need is not related to perceptions of fairness, it is predictive of both job satisfaction and intention to leave.

The last three hypotheses in the study addressed whether the constructs of distributive or procedural justice are better predictor of certain outcomes, and if they predict outcomes better when combined into a single measure of justice. Before these hypotheses were tested, mean perceptions of fairness were calculated separately for each construct. Then several hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to determine how much variance each construct explained and if the inclusion of both constructs significantly increased predictive power. In order to do this, regression analyses were conducted in which procedural and distributive justice were each entered first for each dependent variable.

Hypothesis 4: When predicting organizational commitment and job satisfaction procedural justice accounts for more variance than distributive justice.

This hypothesis was supported. Regarding organizational commitment, distributive justice alone accounted for 10% of the variance when it was entered first. When procedural justice was added, variance increased by 20%. In the second equation procedural justice was entered first and it alone accounted for 27% of the variance (distributive added only 3% more). In both equations, procedural justice explained more variance than distributive justice. Results are shown in Table 16.

Job satisfaction results were also supportive. With distributed justice entered first, it alone accounted for 5% of the variance, when procedural justice was entered first, it accounted for 16% (with distributive explaining 1% more when it was added). Findings are in Table 17.

Table 16. Hypothesis 4: Hierarchical Regressions of Organizational Commitment on Distributive Justice and Procedural Justice.

Variable	Beta	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	R^2 Change
EQUATION 1					
Step 1		.320	.102***	.098	
Distributive	.320***				
Step 2		.545	.297***	.289	.195***
Distributive	.170**				
Procedural	.466***				
EQUATION 2					
Step 1:		.521	.271***	.267	
Procedural	.521***				
Step 2		.545	.297***	.289	.026**
Procedural	.466***				
Distributive	.170**				

*p< .05
**p<.01
***p<.001

Table 17. Hypothesis 4: Hierarchical Regressions of Job Satisfaction on Distributive Justice and Procedural Justice.

Variable	Beta	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	R^2 Change
EQUATION 1					
Step 1		.224	.050**	.045	
Distributive	.224**				
Step 2		.407	.166***	.157	.116***
Distributive	.108				
Procedural	.359***				
EQUATION 2					
Step 1:		.394	.155***	.151	
Procedural	.394***				
Step 2		.407	.166***	.157	.010
Procedural	.359***				
Distributive	.108				

*p< .05
**p<.01
***p<.001

Hypothesis 5: When predicting intention to leave and absenteeism distributive justice accounts for more variance than procedural justice.

This hypothesis was not supported. Each construct explains approximately the same amount of variance in intention to leave and as shown earlier, neither construct is predictive of absenteeism. Regarding intention to leave, distributive justice accounted for 10% of the variance when entered first while procedural justice accounted for 14%. When entered second, distributive justice added 4% and procedural added 5%. Results are presented in Table 18.

Table 18. Hypothesis 4: Hierarchical Regressions of Intention to Leave on Distributive Justice and Procedural Justice.

Variable	Beta	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	R^2 Change
EQUATION 1					
Step 1		.308	.095***	.090	
Distributive	-.308***				
Step 2		.368	.136***	.126	.041**
Distributive	-.238***				
Procedural	-.214**				
EQUATION 2					
Step 1:		.291	.085***	.080	
Procedural	-.291***				
Step 2		.368	.136***	.126	.051**
Procedural	-.214**				
Distributive	-.238***				

*p< .05
**p<.01
***p<.001

Hypothesis 6: Measures of both procedural justice and distributive justice explain more variance in organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intention to leave and absenteeism than either construct alone.

This hypothesis was partially supported. Again, neither construct significantly predicted absenteeism and the addition of distributive justice in the prediction of job satisfaction was not significant. Regarding organizational commitment and intention to leave, the use of both constructs adds a significant of predictive power to the each regression equation. After the most strongly predicted construct was entered, 3% was added to organizational commitment, and in the intention to leave equation a 4% increase was seen. These findings are shown in Tables 16, 17 and 18, respectively.

Chapter 7

Discussion

This study was conducted with two main ideas in mind: advancing organizational justice theory and empirically investigating employees' perceptions of work-family programs. Findings are discussed within these two contexts. Specific results regarding hypothesis testing are considered first, then their implications for theory or practice follow. Study limitations are then discussed and lastly, suggestions for future research are made.

Organizational Justice Theory

Hypothesis Testing. Several hypotheses added insight into organizational justice theory. Hypothesis 1a, which predicted accurately that negative and positive affectivity would explain a significant amount of variance in perceptions of fairness, adds an interesting dimension to the study of fairness. Hypotheses 2a, 2b and 2d added more evidence that perceptions of fairness are linked to three important organizational outcomes: organizational commitment, job satisfaction and intention to leave. In addition, hypotheses 4, 5 and 6 added support to the arguments made by many researchers that although each organizational construct may predict certain outcomes more strongly, the integration of the two theories provides the most predictive power (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Greenberg, 1990; Lind and Tyler (1988).

In the case of organizational commitment and job satisfaction, the procedural justice items predicted more variance than distributive justice, but the addition of distributive justice items did increase overall predictive power. For intention to leave, each construct alone predicted approximately the same amount of variance, but again, when both sets of items were included, better overall prediction resulted. These differences also demonstrate the importance of using a measure of both constructs when there is no a priori basis for believing one construct is more salient than the other.

Implications. The pervasive application of organizational justice concepts suggests the importance of fairness in organizations and other social interactions. Increased understanding of justice is an important step in better predicting and comprehending these behaviors. This study advances our knowledge of organizational justice by including an affective component in the study of justice and by determining the relevance of this construct to a situation that is not inherently negative. It also further explains the role of both fairness constructs.

The impact of negative and positive affectivity on perceptions of fairness is the most important finding in this study. Various arguments have been made that affectivity as a state and/or as a trait should be included in organizational justice research. Some authors believe that measures of affectivity should be included in organizational research because they could obscure the relationship between many predictors and criteria (Brief, Burke, Atieh, Robinson & Watson, 1988). Consider, for example, job satisfaction. In a meta-analysis of studies that used job satisfaction in the prediction of turnover, Carsten and Spector (1987) found that only 21% of the variance in the correlations across studies was accounted for by sampling error. The authors concluded that some of the unexplained variance could be defined by moderating effects between the variables. Judge (1993) then demonstrated this effect when he showed that a positive disposition moderated the relationship between job dissatisfaction and voluntary turnover. Staw, Bell & Clausen (1986) and Staw and Ross (1985) also demonstrated that positive affectivity can explain variations in job satisfaction.

In addition, several other authors have suggested that affect is a concern in organizational justice research (e.g. Adams & Rosenbaum, 1962; Watson, Pennebaker & Folger 1987). As mentioned, the outcomes of some studies of equity theory are questionable because the experimental manipulations may have caused a state of negative affect rather than, or in addition to, perceptions of inequity. In some studies participants were told that they did not possess the necessary qualifications for a job or they were purposely assigned lower than appropriate office space or job titles. It was assumed that these manipulations resulted in feelings of inequity because participants would have perceived that they had less to contribute or that they were receiving less than they deserved. Yet it is very easy to imagine that negative affectivity obscured the findings. The manipulations could have caused an increase in negative affect, which if measured, may have directly explained or moderated the relationship between the predictors and perceptions of fairness.

There was no evidence until 1989 that organizational justice researchers attempted to address the possible confound of either state or trait affective variables. Even then, when Folger and Konovsky (1989) conducted a study on pay raise decisions which included a measure gauging individuals' inclination to respond negatively, affectivity was possibly measured ineffectively. Folger and Konovsky (1989) did not find significant results related to negative affectivity, but this probably happened because they used only the portion of the PANAS related to negative affectivity. It is likely that using only the negative questions form the PANAS produced some response bias. Because there is convergent, discriminant and factorial evidence that positive and negative affect are separate constructs (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988), both portions of the scale should be used. It is probable that this was the first study in the field of organizational justice that included a valid measure of affectivity and therefore, the first to find a significant relationship between it and perceptions of fairness.

This study also provided further evidence that the integrated use of both models of organizational justice adds to our understanding of a wide array of behaviors in organizations. In some previous studies neither distributive nor procedural justice were fully utilized. In many studies, for example, there were no questions representing several of the different dimensions of procedural justice.

Researchers typically asked a few questions that could be construed as distributive and/or procedural justice but rarely determined the importance of each or whether including both added predictive power. When testing hypotheses five and six, this study provided one step toward integration by determining that each construct had varying affects on different outcomes, but that the use of both constructs consistently accounted for more variance. It supported findings such as those reported by Alexander & Ruderman (1987), Folger and Konovsky (1987) and Lind and Tyler (1988), that procedural and distributive justice are distinct principles, and that while procedural justice is a better predictor of attitudinal variables, the use of both constructs add predictive power to some attitudinal and behavioral outcomes.

Finally, by studying fairness within the context of work-family agendas, this study expanded justice research into a new area as was suggested by Greenberg and Tyler (1987) and Lind and Tyler (1988). Until this point, fairness studies examined issues such as inequitable pay or status or undeserved negative performance appraisals. However, it was believed that not all organizational situations that could be affected by perceptions of fairness were plainly or obviously unjust. This study demonstrated that fairness is a valid issue in a situation designed to have positive impact. It shows that fairness is not only an issue when the context is obviously unfair or experimentally manipulated to be unfair. A new perspective of considering fairness as it more broadly relates to compensation was introduced. Pay, office space and job titles are not the only significant forms of remuneration employees receive from an organization. The overall benefit and reward package, which includes work-family programs, is often seen as a valuable tool for attracting and retaining employees. This study expanded organizational justice research by examining the perceived fairness of non-traditional benefits.

Work-family Programs

Hypothesis Testing. A mediating model representing the way in which demographic and affective variables were related to perceptions of fairness of work-family programs, and how those perceptions were then predictive of key organizational outcomes, was hypothesized. The demographic variables of sex, family status, race and job level were considered because there is a good deal of anecdotal and survey findings suggesting that men, singles without dependents, employees who are in the racial minority and those with lower job levels feel that they do not have equal access to work-family programs in general (e.g. Flynn, 1996; Hammonds, Furchgott, Hamm & Judge, 1997; Jones, 1995; Lafayette, 1994). Measures of the amount the individual valued work-family programs in general and expected increases in family needs were also included in the study. It seemed very likely that these variables would also affect perceptions of fairness because people who value or anticipate needing the programs, would probably have more positive perceptions of the fairness of the programs. The PANAS scale, which measured individuals' general positive and negative affect, was also included in the questionnaire. Using an affective measure had been suggested in previous organizational justice literature (Adams & Rosenbaum, 1962: Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Watson, Pennebaker & Folger, 1987), and makes sense psychodynamically, but has rarely been done and has never been done properly.

When the hypotheses regarding the relationship among the demographic variables, perceptions of fairness, and the work outcomes were tested, a significant mediating relationship was found among several predicted variables. Perceptions of fairness mediated the relationship between both negative and positive affectivity and the outcomes of organizational commitment, job satisfaction and intention to leave. This mediating model was in partial support of the hypotheses related to work-family programs.

Interestingly, the demographic variables of sex, job level and race (once job level was controlled) were not related to perceptions of fairness. It appears as though popular press articles (e.g. Hammonds, 1996; Flynn, 1996) may best represent a small, but significant number of employees who are negative in general and therefore complain more loudly about work-family programs. These employees may have noticed and vocalized their dissatisfaction more extremely because it is their personal nature. It seems likely that popular press writers, whose work is not scientifically scrutinized, may overstress the comments of a few discontented individuals whose general negative affectivity leads them toward perceptions of unfair treatment in relation with work-family programs. However, this study supports the conclusion that it is actually affectivity, not personal circumstances, such as sex or family status, that determines perceptions of fairness. In post-hoc analyses, more precise measures of family status (marital status and number of dependents) also examined and neither were significantly correlated with perceptions of fairness.

These findings seem in opposition with the report published by the Families and Work Institute (Schwartz, 1994) which stated that managers and professionals, non-minority employees, and women perceive that they have a relatively greater right or permission to use various work-family policies. However, having less right or permission to take advantage of the program does not, in and of itself, make the policy unfair. Unbiased decision making is only one of several ways in which fairness is judged. If all the other dimensions related to the justice constructs were not violated, the situation overall may not have been perceived as unfair. Consider an example regarding job satisfaction. A person may be dissatisfied with one dimension of her/his job, such as pay. That does not necessarily mean that she/he feels an overall sense of dissatisfaction with the job. The Families and Work Study measured perceptions of a single dimension: perceived access to a program or work-family perquisite. Those perception of differential access may not have been enough to make employees feel that the policies were unfair. Without examining the issue within the detailed theoretical framework of organizational justice we only knew that the perceptions exist, there is no way of knowing whether those perceptions were viewed as a problem.

Implications. Understanding which variables predict perceptions of fairness is key because a significant amount of variance in organizational commitment, job satisfaction and intention to leave is predicted by those perceptions. These outcomes in particular are important because they are frequently cited as outcomes that are positively affected by work-family programs (e.g. Barr, Johnson & Warshaw, 1992; Friedman, 1991; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). But this study produced evidence that the way in which these programs are perceived may be determined largely by dispositional attributes that are independent of specific organizational policies or actions.

These findings have both positive and negative implications for organizations. On the positive side they present evidence that work-family programs are not necessarily perceived as unfair by employees who do not use or need them. Unfortunately, the findings also leave organizations in the difficult situation of knowing that some people will perceive some of their major initiatives as unfair because (at least in part) of a personality trait. These perceptions can lead to lower organizational commitment and job satisfaction and a higher intention to leave, yet will be very difficult to change because a person's general affectivity is stable across time (Watson, D., Clark, L. A. & Tellegen, 1988). It seems that the best defense against these negative consequences is the very clear communication of policy and attempts to build the most inclusive programs possible.

<u>Limitations</u>

This study is, of course, limited by a number of issues. First, due to data collection methods, the findings represent the general perceptions of employees representing several organizations. This does not allow a detailed focus on specific organizational policies. When the study was designed, several data collection methods were considered. The major issue was whether the study would be conducted within a single or across several organizations; each method had benefits and drawbacks. A study conducted within one organization would allow the assessment of actual formal policy in comparison with employee perceptions of policy. This information would have been valuable because the organization could then be given specific feedback regarding the effects of its policies. However, this type of design would have restricted participants' scope of experiences and their range of responses to those within one organization. If that organization had done a particularly good or poor job of constructing and communicating work-family policy, findings would be limited and may have made the larger issue appear irrelevant or exaggerated.

Because this study was the first addressing the fairness of work-family programs in-depth, I chose to collect data across a range of organizations by having working students and individuals from several different organizations participate. These individuals had jobs in many different organizations, making a broad range of experiences and perceptions available. Bias due to the policies or culture of any one organization or industry was avoided. By collecting data in urban, rural and suburban areas in different parts of the country a larger variety of organizations, lifestyles, personal values, jobs, industries and ethnically diverse people were represented. This makes the results more generalizable; they do not represent the circumstances of one particular organization or type of individual.

On the other hand, collecting information on actual company policy for all individuals was not possible. However, policy information was obtained from four participating organizations (from employee handbooks, new hire packets or Human Resource representatives) which employed approximately 40% of the participants. Using this information, employee perceptions of policy were compared with actual policy and it was observed that the majority of the self-report information concerning the availability of work-family programs was incorrect. Employees very frequently underestimated the number and scope of officially available programs. It seems likely that proper communication and implementation strategy could reduce the number of people who perceive that they are being treated unfairly.

There are also limitations related to question construction. Specifically, the structure of three questions possibly confounded participants' responses. First, the question regarding anticipated family needs was worded "What do you think is the likelihood that you will have <u>more</u> child or elder care responsibilities in the next five years?" Upon further consideration, this question does not specifically address the issue of future need of work-family programs. A person could anticipate an increase in family responsibilities, yet not experience an increase in need for work-family support from the organization. This may have been the cause for the finding that an increase in need for work-family programs was not related to perceptions of fairness. Furthermore, the lack of significant finding regarding absenteeism may be due to poor question construction as well. The two questions regarding absenteeism were worded: "How many times total have you missed at least one day of work in the past six months?" and "How many times in the last six months did you miss more than one consecutive day?" Absenteeism was measured as the number of single day absences in the last six months of work. However, 28 participants apparently found these two questions confusing. They either wrote in comments indicating that they were not sure how to answer the question or answered in ways that were not conducive to calculating the number of single day absences. Those responses that were obviously incorrect were not analyzed, but there is no way of knowing how many others answered incorrectly.

Two other potential limitations related to the method of the study exist. One is the possibility of common method variance. All of the significant findings (affectivity, perceptions of fairness, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to leave) were self-report measures of perceptions or traits. While common method variance is a valid concern, self-report measures are the only data collection option for many of these variables. Fortunately, the possibility that the findings should be dismissed due to this problem is reduced because some of the variables in the study, although self-reported, were tangible. For example, job level, family status, sex and race are not really open for interpretation.

A final concern is that the affectivity questions were presented after the measures of fairness, organizational commitment, job satisfaction and intention to leave. It is possible that these preceding questions influenced participants' affect states. However, the directions for the PANAS, when used as validated measure of traits were included. Participants were asked to "...indicate the extent to which you feel this way. That is, how you feel on the average." In addition, the traits of negative and positive affect underlie all situations a person faces, therefore, a person's true nature would still be represented. However, the PANAS should be presented ideally at the beginning of the questionnaire or in various places in the questionnaire for different participants as a means for controlling issues of state affectivity.

Future Research

After this study was completed, several interesting questions regarding organizational justice and work-family research remained unanswered and some new research issues arose.

Organizational Justice Theory. As previously stated, one of the more important findings in this study was the relation of affectivity to perceptions of fairness. Additional research that includes measures of affectivity and replicates previous findings such as perceptions of fair pay and performance appraisals would be interesting. Will affectivity predict perceptions of fairness in other situations, or will its use be more limited to issues, like family, that are typically highly emotional? Perhaps affectivity was a significant predictor in this study because the social pressure to accept work-family programs is so strong that only those people with high negative affect are likely to react adversely. There would be little or no social pressure preventing complaints in many other situations, such as those dealing with pay inequity, possibly making affectivity less important.

Work-family Research. Due to data collection limitations, two work-family research questions remain. First: what is the impact of organizational culture and communication on perceptions of fairness in a specific organization? Second: what is the relative salience of those organizational practices versus employee dispositions? A study targeting different organizations with a broad range of cultures and work-family policies with analyses conducted both within and across organizations would produce more meaningful findings. This type of study requires identifying companies with a wide range of work-family cultures, and a great deal of preliminary research into their programs and policies. Organizations with a variety of cultures ranging from those that place a great deal of importance on work and family to those with serious considerations of broader work-life issues are needed. A study targeting one or two organizations would allow researchers to determine if broad work-family policies and clear communication of these policies would outweigh the effects of negative affectivity on perceptions of fairness. A study this complex requires access to a large number of organizations and will be extremely time consuming, it was beyond the scope of this project.

Conclusions

In a broad sense, the relationships among the variables in this study can be thought of in terms of the relationship between personality and social psychology. There is general consensus among social psychologists that both the situation and personality must be considered when studying social behavior (Blass, 1984). Because both situations and individual's reactions fluctuate, studying only the situation will explain some behaviors and studying only personality will explain others. Deaux and Wrightsman (1988) explain that the interaction of social psychology and personality allows us to think about human behavior in more active terms. As demonstrated by this study, this interactionist approach allows us to explain more behavior than if considering only the situation or the personality.

Although the number of organizational studies which include personality variables has been increasing (George, 1992), it seems that researchers who study organizational behavior have often shied away from the study of personality. In 1984 and again in 1988, Adler and Weiss examined the literature and due to the scarcity of studies concluded that organizational researchers found personality constructs in low regard. The lack of research may be due to the discomfort many organizations have with the idea of using personality to make decisions or because of the stable nature of many personality traits. Both of these situations create a sense that there is a lack of applied utility in the study of personality.

Whatever the reason for the lack of personality research in the organizational context, this study demonstrated that negative and positive affectivity add to our understanding of perceptions of fairness in the context of work-family programs. Since affectivity and other personality traits have also been linked to other organizational variables, such as job satisfaction, absenteeism, person-environment fit (e.g. George, 1992; Holland, 1984; Staw & Ross, 1985), it is suggested that researchers conduct studies containing both situational and personality variables, allowing a more encompassing view of organizations.

Appendix A

Review of Findings Regarding Alternative Work Schedules, Dependent Care and Overall Work-Family Programs By Type of Program*

*Shaded references are articles written specifically within a work-family context.

FLEXTIME		
REFERENCE	**FINDINGS/CONCLUSIONS**	**COMMENTS/CRITIQUE**
Families and Work Institute (1993)	Absenteeism and tardiness did not change the two years following the introduction of flexible schedules as a work-family initiative at Johnson & Johnson.	Survey data based on a longitudinal study of over 2,000 employees across J&J's various companies. One of the better work-family studies methodologically. Potential bias because the employees who responded to the voluntary survey were more likely to be higher level, female, non-minority and longer tenure employees.
Friedman, D. E. (1991)	Men are more likely to benefit than women. Produces positive shift in employee attitudes, and employees did not abuse the privilege. Intrinsic and extrinsic need satisfaction increased, reduction of absenteeism and turnover. Raised productivity and morale, eases commutes, a good recruiting tool. Perceptions of good and bad effects differ between users and non-users. Sometimes reduces work-family stress.	Extremely comprehensive review of research findings. No critique of studies, or little mention of methodology. However the report is written be a well established and respected work-family researcher who states that she reviewed the work critically.

Galen, M. Palmer, A. T. & Maremont, M. (1993)	Reduced turnover and absenteeism; increased productivity. Evidence that effective managers are flexible, not tough. This benefit is sometimes very important in an employee's decision to remain with a company.	Most of findings sighted from research done at large corporations, but no description of the studies.
Hicks, W. D. & Klimoski, R.J. (1981)	Did not find increased work or leisure satisfaction. Positive effects on: travel time, inter-role conflict, and opportunity for leisure activities.	Survey data from 210 employees. Potential weakness in data collection: subjects were from two companies with different flextime policies. Participants chosen arbitrarily in one company and specifically assigned to flextime in other.
McGuire, J.B. & Liro, J.R. (1986)	Workers with flextime reported significantly higher satisfaction with their work environment. No significant effect on productivity.	Empirical study done in a organization with self-report measures. Sampling procedures may have caused bias in control group, composed of employees who were not given the chance to use flextime.
McGuire, J.B. & Liro, J.R. (1987)	Absenteeism significantly reduced when employees used a staggered fixed time schedule meaning that they could vary their schedule quarterly. No change in absenteeism for employees with a true flextime schedule where they could vary their hours daily.	Empirical study done in an organization with absences measured using personnel data. Sampling procedures may have caused bias in control group, composed of employees who were not given the chance to use flextime.

Ralston, D. A. (1990)	Compared to women without flextime, those with flextime reported that it is significant easier to make childcare arrangements, and that they had an adequate amount of time with their families. They also reported significantly lower level of absenteeism and higher levels of performance.	Survey data from 115 women (53 with flextime) in two organizations 10 months after flextime was introduced. Participants with flextime were asked to compare their feelings before and after starting flextime. This was probably not a very realistic task, and since those not using flextime did not make the comparison, there is no control for other factors causing the changing perceptions.
Shellenbarger S. (1994)	Absences dropped by one-third, teamwork and customer service have improved and an employee surveys shows that morale has risen for the 300 employees in one department at Xerox who have used flextime for 10 months. Stride Rite claims that when they added flextime, productivity increased.	Anecdotal information with no details regarding the programs or methods of reaching these conclusions. However, the Xerox study was conducted by a well known think tank organization.
Zedeck, S. & Mosier, K. L. (1990)	Cost to organization is minimal. Productivity, morale, and job satisfaction increased. Absenteeism and tardiness decreased. Shorter leaves taken, longer service hours for clients.	Extensive review of information with no critique. Many of the articles on alternative work schedules reviewed were not empirical in nature.

TELECOMMUTING		
REFERENCE	**FINDINGS/CONCLUSIONS**	**COMMENTS/CRITIQUE**
Hamilton, C. (1987)	Telecommuting may alleviate the need for daycare, allow the worker to stay home with a sick child and work during maternity or paternity leave. Worker may feel socially isolated and be prone to workaholism and burnout. Pluses for the organization: efficient use of space and time, good recruiting device.	Not an empirical study. Many conclusions based upon the incorrect assumption that working at home means an end to child care issues.
Hartman, R. I., Stoner, C.R. & Arora, R. (1991)	Participant's satisfaction with telecommuting significantly correlated with: productivity, satisfaction with supervisor support and number of family interruptions. No correlation with performance.	Survey study with a strong sample from 11 organizations. The absence of significant correlations with performance evaluation may be due to the use of employee perceptions as opposed to actual ratings.
Olson, M.H.& Primps, S.B. (1984)	Telecommuter may experience greater autonomy and a decreased commuting time. Effect on work/family conflict is dependent upon the individual's situation. For the organization: increased commitment, lower turnover.	Anecdotal study. Authors recognize the crucial difference between telecommuters with primary child care responsibilities versus those without child care issues.
Shamir, B. & Salamon, I. (1985)	May increase work/family inter-role conflict and autonomy, and decrease certain types of compensation.	Not empirical study. Recognition of important subtleties involved in physical absence from the workplace.
Zedeck, S. & Mosier, K. (1990)	Gives worker flexible hours, fewer interruptions, savings on clothing, food and transportation. Some workers may be easily exploited by the organization. For the organization: more work of higher quality, reduced absences and benefit costs.	Review article, no critical review of information given. Many references not in mainstream journals and based upon non-empirical work.

COMPRESSED WORK WEEK		
REFERENCE	**FINDINGS/CONCLUSIONS**	**COMMENTS/CRITIQUES**
Dunham, R.B., Pierce, J.L. & Castaneda, M. B. (1987)	Work coordination and interference of work with non-work activities declined with the compressed work week. Employee job satisfaction, stress level and satisfaction with work schedule improved. Authors stress that the effective use of compressed work weeks is situation specific - the needs of the organization must be met.	Quasi-experimental field study in one organization. Employees were put on a 4 day/40 hour schedule for four months then returned to a traditional schedule. Control group was included.
Hein, M. VanHein, J. & Carroll, T. (1994)	Turnover, absenteeism and productivity were all significantly reduced after the implementation of a 4 day/40 hour work week.	Field study in factory setting that began a 4 day/40 hour schedule. Data from personnel records was collected for 130 participants 28 weeks before the new schedule and 31 weeks after the intervention.
Galen, M., Palmer, A. T. & Maremont, M. (1993)	Reduced work family conflict, increased productivity, efficiency, and morale. Reduced turnover, and absenteeism, boosts companies reputation with recruits.	Sites very impressive results from several companies which were interviewed for the article, but no description of how any studies were conducted.
Latack, J.C. & Foster, L.W. (1985)	After 18 months, employees still favored 3 days/38 hour schedules. Those who expressed most positive attitudes toward the schedule had participated in the decision to implement it, had jobs which were enriched by the change, and had strong higher order needs. Fatigue was not a problem.	Empirical study with 84 participants in one organization. No data collected on employees before the changes were implemented, however, data was collected for 18 months following the change, which suggests the effects are stable after some time had passed.

JOB SHARING		
REFERENCE	**FINDINGS/CONCLUSIONS**	**COMMENTS/CRITIQUE**
Zedeck, S. & Mosier, K.L.(1990)	Benefits to organization: continuous job staffing, access to two employees, helps avoid use of temporary employees for vacations and leaves. Problems: may limit upward mobility, not all jobs can be shared (inequity), organizations are reluctant to have additional people on payroll	Review article of descriptive studies only; no empirical data.

PART TIME WORK		
REFERENCE	**FINDINGS/CONCLUSIONS**	**COMMENTS/CRITIQUE**
Friedman, D. E. & Galinsky, E. (1991)	Women prefer part-time work following maternity leave.	Based on a 1983 internal survey. No details given.
Neely-Martinez, M. N. (1997)	Aetna reduced attrition for professional women by 50% thus saving the organization over $1 million by allowing part-time work after family leave.	Anecdotal information. Very few details given about how these numbers were obtained and no specific information provided about the policies.
Brotherton, P. (1997)	Many organizations reported that they would have lost employees after maternity leave if they had not allowed part-time work and say that most of their part-time employees are women. The key to successful part-time work is communication and planning.	Anecdotal information. No details given about how the organizations discussed came to their conclusions about retention.

DEPENDENT CARE

ELDER CARE		
REFERENCE	**FINDINGS/CONCLUSIONS**	**COMMENTS/CRITIQUE**
Barr, J.K., Johnson, K.W.& Warshaw, L.J. (1992)	Lateness, absenteeism, missed meetings, changing work schedules, stress, and excessive use of the telephone are common workplace problems. Employees need flexible schedules, time off for illness, and senior services information to help them cope.	Overview of frequently cited problems, current policies and suggestion for improvement. Most information is from anecdotal collection procedures, and the authors recognize the paucity of research in the area as a problem.
Friedman, D. E. (1991)	Care-giving often increases absenteeism and quit rates and reduces working hours. Effects on work performance depend upon the severity of care needed, and amount of stress experienced while trying to balance roles. Workers need to be help finding or providing care, and assistance in finding relevant information.	Overview of the relatively scare research on the topic. Carefully drawn conclusions.
Shellenbarger, S. (1993)	Employees who have elder care responsibilities experience stress and productivity losses. Twenty-five percent of a group of care givers reported that they had changed their employment drastically due to elder care needs. Caregivers are absent 1 1/2 times as often than the average employee, costing employers about $2,500 each year per person.	Information reported from various studies (some cited) and conversations with well established leaders in the work-family field.

CHILD CARE		
REFERENCE	**FINDINGS/CONCLUSIONS**	**COMMENTS/CRITIQUE**
Eichman, C & Reisman, B. (1992)	Providing child care has positive effects on things like morale, absenteeism, recruitment, turnover, the amount parents worry about children while at work and organizational commitment.	Profiles of several small businesses that provide some type of child care assistance. Based on anecdotal information given by the companies.
Families and Work Institute (1993)	Employees who use on-site child care are less worried at work about their children.	Survey data based on a longitudinal study of over 2,000 employees across J&J's various companies. One of the better work-family studies methodologically. Potential bias because the employees who responded to the voluntary survey were more likely to be higher level, female, non-minority and longer tenure employees.
Friedman, D. E. (1991)	Employer sponsored child care centers are probably associated with reduced turnover and improved recruitment. Outcomes for company sponsored child care: managers often perceived increased morale as the most positive outcome, employees perceive that their absenteeism declined and productivity improved.	Excellent review and critique of child care studies. The author bases final conclusions upon methodologically sound studies.
Kane, C. (1989)	Twelve percent of the workweek is spent dealing with child care. Companies that have developed a child care assistance program have improved recruitment, retention, morale and absenteeism. Productivity and profits are also directly effected.	Quotes unpublished survey results from Financial Women International. No details about the survey or participants is given.

Neely-Martinez, M. N. (1997)	One organization saved $800,000 in one year in absenteeism costs by providing back-up child care. Another increased the return of post maternity female employees by over 40% by providing on site child care.	Anecdotal information. No details given about the way the child-care was provided or the way the monetary figure was derived.
McCarthy, N.B., Casper, W.J., Martin, J. A., Zukin, L. B. & Edwins, C. J. (1994)	Satisfaction with child care is a function of type of child care - home day care is least preferable and family care is most preferable. Women and people with high incomes are more satisfied with child care than men and lower income individuals. Satisfaction with work-family balance is greater for men, and is a function of child care arrangement for women.	Basic self-report survey data from over 5,000 federal employees. No research flaws noted.
Zedeck, S. & Mosier, K.L. (1990)	48% of women and 25% of men spend unproductive time at work due to child care issues. Parents with child care problems are more likely to be tardy. Child care assistance has been consistently associated with higher commitment, morale and satisfaction and lower turnover, but there are mixed results regarding absenteeism and productivity. Effects on child development have also been mixed. However, many companies have reported positive effects and savings.	Very comprehensive review article on child care. Conflicting results may be due to the different types of child care arrangements studied. No details or critique given about the information gathered for the review.

OVERALL DEPENDENT CARE		
REFERENCE	**FINDINGS/CONCLUSIONS**	**COMMENTS/CRITIQUE**
Smith, J., Buffardi, L., O'Brien, A, Malgeri, J., Farmer, D. & Zukin, L. (1994)	Individuals with child care responsibilities were less satisfied with work-family balance and leave benefits; those with elder care were also less satisfied with their organization, supervisor and pay. Employees with both types of dependent care were not significantly different than those with only child-care.	Self-report survey of 22,000 federal employees. No research flaws noted.

OVERALL WORK-FAMILY PROGRAMS		
REFERENCE	**FINDINGS/CONCLUSIONS**	**COMMENTS/CRITIQUE**
Families and Work Institute (1993)	Employees who view their immediate supervisor as more supportive of their family needs are less stressed, more loyal and more satisfied with their jobs.	Survey data based on a longitudinal study of over 2,000 employees across J&J's various companies. One of the better work-family studies methodologically. Potential bias because the employees who responded to the voluntary survey were more likely to be higher level, female, non-minority and longer tenure employees.
Hammonds, K. H. (1996)	First Tennessee Bank has shown improvements in productivity, customer service and turnover since they "started taking family issues seriously". These improvements contributed to a 55% profit gain in two years.	Anecdotal. No information about specific programs or evaluative techniques at First Tennessee.

Appendix B

Pilot Study Information

Methods of preliminary study regarding the referent other

Five separate loosely structured interviews were conducted. The participants were men and women of various ages, occupations and job levels who worked in different organizations. First I asked the participants to describe a work situation they had experienced that was particularly fair or unfair. All participants chose to describe unfair scenarios and if they did not mention it directly I then asked why the situation was unfair. A series of probing questions (e.g. "When you say it was unfair, what exactly was it about the situation that made it unfair?" "When you say you 'did more work' you are speaking in relation to what or whom?") followed as I attempted to find out information about referents without leading the participant in that direction. Every person talked about some type of comparison process. Three people discussed comparisons discussed in the equity literature. One person discussed an internal standard based upon religious beliefs that one should treat others as you would have them treat you. A second interviewee compared herself to her subordinate.

The other 52 participants in the preliminary study completed a survey. They were all given the following written introduction and directions:

"Many companies offer certain programs or policies designed to help their employees better balance their work and family or personal responsibilities. Please take a moment to think about your organization's policies and programs regarding work-family or work-life balance. This may include things such as flexible work arrangements, which are agreements between employees and managers about non-traditional work locations or schedules. Examples of these arrangements are things like flexible start times, compressed work weeks, job sharing or part time work. Other programs such as child care assistance or elder care assistance may also be offered. You should also consider any other programs your company offers that help you better manage your life such as: physical fitness programs, stress management, or assistance for personal things like buying a home or parenting classes.

Please keep in mind that the policies may be formal rules such as those written in your employee handbook or they may just be an informal part of how things get done in your work group. If you have used or have attempted to use your company's programs, think about that experience as you answer the following questions. If you have not used any of the programs, just think about your general knowledge of the policies. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers, all that matters is what you think."

After answering several general questions regarding their perceptions of fairness of the organization's policies (used to pilot question format: no formal analyses were conducted) 29 of the participants read the following instructions:

"Carefully consider what you thought about as you answered the previous group of questions. Did you find yourself thinking about what you get in comparison to someone else or in comparison to some other situation? Please check any comparisons that apply:"

_____coworker
_____friend in another organization
_____what I got at my last job
_____what I believe it the right thing for the organization to do
_____what I think my supervisor gets
_____what my subordinates get
_____other: please explain_______________________________

_____I did not make any comparisons. If you did not make any comparisons, please state the most important thing you took into consideration when you answered the previous questions:

Total number of each response is as follows:

10 - coworker
2 - friend in another organization
7 - what I got at my last job
3 - what I believe it the right thing for the organization to do

1 - what I think my supervisor gets
0 - what my subordinates get
0 - other: please explain________________________________
6 - I did not make any comparisons.

The other 23 participants were given the same instructions but were not supplied with a list of options. Twelve made reference to classic referents (e.g. coworker, self in a previous job), eight said they made no comparisons and two people referred to comparisons between themselves and a supervisor or manager and one compared herself to a subordinate.

Appendix C
IRB approval letter

Baruch College

Office of College Advancement

Baruch College
The City University of New York
17 Lexington Avenue / Box D-0901
New York, New York 10010
212 802-2900 FAX 212 802-2902

To: Jill Hubley

From: Tim Kirby, Grants Officer

Re: Approval of the project entitled
"Organizational Justice and the Perceived Fairness of Work-Family Programs and Policy"

Date: October 15, 1998

The protocol for the referenced project was approved by the Baruch College Human Subjects Committee on October 15, 1998. The approval is in force for one year. If you wish to continue the project beyond one year, a protocol must be submitted two months in advance.

Please note that, if applicable, the consent forms approved with the protocol are the only ones that can be used. No changes can be made without the approval of the Committee.

Thank you and good luck with the research.

Appendix D

Questionnaire

CONSENT FORM

Please read and sign this page before you complete this survey

- This survey is used only to get your opinion about your job and about work-family programs in your workplace. There is no deception used in this research.
- Your responses to this survey are strictly anonymous and confidential. After you sign this page please **do not** put your name anywhere on the survey. Your responses will be seen only by the researcher conducting this study - your individual answers will not be shared with anyone. Information will be discussed only after it is combined with many other individual responses.
- You are free not to participate in this survey. There are no negative consequences if you decide not to participate.
- You may change your mind at any time about participating in this study - there will be no negative consequences if you do not finish the survey.
- If you choose to participate you may leave blank any questions you do not want to answer.
- If you have any questions regarding this survey or the study in general you may leave a message with the Baruch College Department of Psychology for Jill Hubley. The telephone number is (212)387-1530.
- If you would like to obtain written results from the study leave your name and address with your professor on a separate sheet of paper. A summary of findings will also be distributed to your class by the end of the semester.[3]
- Participation in this study will help us better understand how important company programs and policies effect employees. If published, results from studies like these can affect the way organizations make decisions. The results will also help you understand how other employees feel about the policies that affect all of you.

I understand the information presented on this page and freely choose to participate in this research.

Signature:____

[3] This was changed for corporate participants. It read "...include your name and address on a separate piece of paper when you return your survey and a summary of results will be mailed to you."

Directions

Many companies offer certain programs or policies designed to help their employees better balance their work and family or personal responsibilities. Please take a moment to think about your organization's policies and programs regarding work-family or work-life balance. This may include things such as flexible work arrangements, which are agreements between employees and managers about non-traditional work locations or schedules. Examples of these arrangements are things like flexible start times, compressed work weeks, job sharing or part time work. Other programs such as child care assistance or elder care assistance may also be offered. You should also consider any other programs your company offers that help you better manage your life such as: physical fitness programs, stress management, or assistance for personal things like buying a home or parenting classes.

Please keep in mind that the policies may be formal rules such as those written in your employee handbook or they may just be an informal part of how things get done in your company or work group. If you have used or have attempted to use your company's programs, think about that experience as you answer the following questions. If you have not used any of the programs, just think about your general knowledge of the policies.

Remember, there are no right or wrong answers, all that matters is what you think.

Directions: Please describe your organization's dependent care and alternative work schedule programs by checking all that formally or informally exist in your company:

Dependent Care Programs	Check here if offered by your organization
on site child care	
child care subsidies	
off-site child care referrals	
child care help line	
elder care referrals	
elder care subsidies	
Other (describe):	

Additional Work-Family Programs	Check here offered by your organization
adoption benefits	
parenting classes	
Others (describe):	

Other Work-Life Programs	Check here if offered by your organization
discounted fitness membership	
on-site fitness center	
tuition reimbursement	
stress management	
Others (describe):	

Alternative Work Arrangements	Check here offered by your organization
flextime	
compressed work weeks	
job sharing	
part time work with benefits	
part time work without benefits	
telecommuting	
Other (describe):	

If you did not check any of the programs, please do not continue with this survey.

For each program you checked, please describe the policy or procedure you have to follow to use the program. (For example: I have to put my name on a waiting list for on-sight child care services. I have to tell my manager why I want to telecommute and he/she decides if I will be allowed.) Use the back of the page if you need additional space.

Please read each statement carefully and circle the number that best describes your opinion or experience with your company's work-family or work-life programs. <u>If your employer does not offer any such program, leave the response blank.</u>

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree	moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	neither agree or disagree	slightly agree	moderately agree	strongly agree

WHEN I THINK ABOUT WORK-FAMILY OR WORK-LIFE PROGRAMS WHERE I WORK I FEEL THAT ...

I am given the opportunity to express my opinion about which programs should be developed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have the opportunity to make appeals about decisions regarding how resources are used	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
having a family is a personal choice and it is not fair that my organization provides special privileges for that event	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my manager uses standards or rules that are fair to everyone when deciding who can use any of these programs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
management allows personal motives or biases to influence which policies or programs are developed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my views regarding how resources should be used are openly discussed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the amount of time and money my organization spends on work-family programs is fair to everyone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree	moderately Disagree	slightly disagree	neither agree or disagree	slightly agree	moderately agree	strongly agree

WHEN I THINK ABOUT WORK-FAMILY OR WORK-LIFE PROGRAMS WHERE I WORK I FEEL THAT ...

my organization offers a fair amount of benefits to both employees with <u>and</u> without family needs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my manager would become thoroughly familiar with my job before deciding if I could have a flexible schedule	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my manager makes decisions about who can have a non-traditional work schedule considering if they could still perform their job responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would have the chance to openly discuss my feelings if my manager decided I could not use a program	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
decisions are made about who may use the programs based on how much people contribute to the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
this company was familiar with all employees' needs before recommending which programs were developed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my manager would ask me how well I thought I could handle participating in a program before deciding if I would be allowed to use it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my manager would be more likely to allow employees with family responsibilities to have an non-traditional work schedule	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

<u>Directions</u>: Please read the following statements and circle the number that best indicates how you generally feel <u>about the organization</u> for which you work.

1 strongly disagree	2 moderately disagree	3 slightly disagree	4 neither agree or disagree	5 slightly agree	6 moderately agree	7 strongly agree

I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over the others I was considering at the time I joined	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I really care about the fate of this organization	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Working for a company that offers child care and elder care is important to me, whether or not I benefit from the help.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Directions: Please read the following statements and circle the number that best indicates how you generally feel about the organization for which you work.

1 strongly disagree	2 moderately disagree	3 slightly disagree	4 neither agree or disagree	5 slightly agree	6 moderately agree	7 strongly agree

I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Providing child care and elder care to people who need it is just the right thing for an organization to do.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I feel very little loyalty to this organization	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond normally expected in order to help this organization be successful	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Directions: Please read the following statements and circle the number that best indicates how you generally feel about your job.

1 strongly disagree	2 moderately disagree	3 slightly disagree	4 neither agree or disagree	5 slightly agree	6 moderately agree	7 strongly agree

I am asked to travel at the last minute more frequently than employees who have different family needs than my own	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
In general, I like my job	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I can freely discuss my feeling with my manager when decisions are made about who will work undesirable shifts or days (for example: holidays, weekends, extensive travel)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
compared to other employees who have different family needs than my own, I have to work less convenient hours (weekends, late nights, holidays)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
my manager asks for my input before asking me to work late or undesirable days, or before asking me to travel	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I will probably look for a new job next year	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I could freely challenge my manager's decision if I was told to work beyond my regular hours (or on holidays or weekends) or to travel unexpectedly	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I am asked to travel less often than other employees who have different family needs than my own	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
In general, I like working here	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Directions: Please read the following statements and circle the number that best indicates how you generally feel about your job.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree	moderately disagree	slightly disagree	neither agree or disagree	slightly agree	moderately agree	strongly agree

My manager makes decisions about who has to work undesirable shifts or days based on family responsibilities	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
My manager expects me to work more overtime than employees with different family needs than my own	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
All in all, I am satisfied with my job	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I sometimes get stuck doing the work of employees who have flexible work arrangements	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
My workload is less strenuous than other employees who have different family needs than my own	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I often think about quitting	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

How likely is it that you will actively look for a new job in the next year? **Please circle <u>one</u> number:**						
Not at all Likely 1	 2	Somewhat Likely 3	 4	Quite Likely 5	 6	Extremely Likely 7

<u>Directions:</u> The following words describe different feelings and emotions. Read <u>each</u> word and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Using the rating scale below, please indicate the extent to which you feel this way. That is, how you feel on the average.

Very slightly or not at all	**A little**	**Moderately**	**Quite a bit**	**Extremely**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

_____guilty	_____interested	_____determined	_____irritable
_____scared	_____distressed	_____attentive	_____alert
_____hostile	_____excited	_____jittery	_____ashamed
_____enthusiastic	_____upset	_____active	_____inspired
_____proud	_____strong	_____afraid	_____nervous

<u>BACKGROUND</u>

In this section you will be asked important information about yourself as a family member and as an employee.

1) What is your sex? Please circle one number:

1. female
2. male

2) What is your <u>current</u> marital status? Please circle one number:

1. Married
2. Living with partner
3. Single, never married
4. Separated or divorced
5. Widowed
6. Other (Please describe)______________________________

3) For how many children do you have parental responsibility during a typical work week and what are their ages?

1. I have no children *(please go to question 4)*

2. number of children:________

   ages:____________________

3a) For how many of these children must you provide some type of childcare arrangement while you are working? ________________

4) For how many elderly people do you provide regular care during a typical work week?

1. I have no elder care responsibilities *(please go to question 5)*

2. number of elderly people:___________

4a) How many hours in a typical week do you spend caring for these elderly individuals?

number of hours:_____________

5) What do you think is the likelihood that you will have <u>more</u> child or elder care responsibilities in the next five years? Please circle one answer:

1) definitely will not

2) probably will not

3) probably will

4) definitely will

6) What is your race? ______________________________________

7) Please check the one category that best describes your current job:

1. Administrator (Having primary but non-supervisory responsibility for a project or ongoing function of the organization)
2. Clerical-Secretarial (Including bookkeeper, receptionist, etc.)
3. Craft (Manual work for which special training, apprenticeship or licensing is required)
4. Manager (Supervising persons who, in turn, supervise others)
5. Operator-Laborer (Manual work that requires training specific to the job)
6. Professional (Doctor, lawyer, engineer, scientist, C.P. A., architect, registered nurse, etc.)
7. Salesperson (Retail Trade, Insurance, Real Estate, etc.)
8. Supervisor
9. Technical (White collar work that requires at least some college or a technical degree)
10. Other. Please specify:______________________________________

8) How many times total have you missed at least one day of work in the past six months?

____times

8a) How many times in the last six months did you miss more than one consecutive day?

____times

9) How long have you worked for this organization?

____ months

10) Overall, do you think the work-family or work-life programs and policies in your organization are fair? Please check one:

____ yes
____ no

Please provide any information that you feel is important in explaining your answer. In other words, why or why not are these programs fair?

Appendix E

Questions in each scale in the questionnaire

Items in each scale in the questionnaire. Procedural and distributive justice items were changed to fit the current topic accordingly.

Procedural Justice Items (Each item is derived from a basic stem provided in Folger & Konovsky. 1989. Items were changed to fit the specific work-family circumstances.)

FACTOR 1

- my manager would ask me how well I thought I could handle participating in a program before deciding if I would be allowed to use it
- my manager would become thoroughly familiar with my job before deciding if I could have a flexible schedule
- my manager makes decisions about who can have a non-traditional work schedule by considering if they could still perform their job responsibilities

FACTOR 2

- my views regarding how resources should be used are openly discussed
- I am given the opportunity to express my opinion about which programs should be developed
- this company was familiar with employees' needs before recommending which programs are developed
- I have the opportunity to make appeals about decisions regarding how resources are used

FACTOR 3

- my manager uses standards or rules that are fair to everyone when deciding who can use any of these programs
- I could freely challenge my manager's decision if I was told to work beyond my regular hours (or on holidays or weekends) or to travel unexpectedly
- my manager asks for my input before asking me to work late or undesirable days or before asking me to travel
- I would have the chance to openly discuss my feelings if my manager decided that I could not use a program
- I can freely discuss my feelings with my manager when decisions are made about who will work undesirable shifts or days (for example: holidays, weekends, extensive travel)

<u>Distributive Justice Items</u> These items were developed in accordance with the typical statement structure used by many researchers who study distributive justice. Due to the unique topic of the proposed study, the questions had to be changed substantially to represent the issues being studied. Items taken directly from a published article are noted. In addition the following references were used in question development (Adams, 1963; Alexander & Ruderman, 1987 Greenberg, 1986a; Grover, 1991; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Parker, Baltes & Christiansen, 1997; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Summers & Hendrix, 1991; Sweeney, 1990; Witt & Nye, 1992).

FACTOR 1

- my organization offers a fair amount of benefits to both employees with <u>and</u> without family needs
- having a family is a personal choice and it is not fair that my organization makes provisions for that event (Grover, 1991)
- the amount of time and money my organization spends on work-family programs is fair to everyone in my organization
- management allows personal motives or biases to influence which policies or programs are developed

FAACTOR 2

- my manager expects me to work more overtime than employees with different family needs than my own
- I am asked to travel at the last minute more frequently than employees who have different family needs than my own
- my manager makes decisions about who has to work undesirable shifts or days based on family responsibilities

FACTOR 3

- my workload is less strenuous than other employees with different family needs
- compared to other employees who have different family needs, I have to work less convenient hours (weekends, late nights, holidays)
- I am asked to travel less often than other employees who have different family needs than my own

Deleted Items

- my manager would be more likely to allow employees with family responsibilities to have an non-traditional work schedule
- decisions are made about who may use the programs based on how much people contribute to the organization
- I sometimes get stuck doing the work of employees who have flexible work arrangements

Organizational Commitment: (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979)

- I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization
- I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar
- This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance
- Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees
- There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely
- It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization.
- I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over the others I was considering at the time I joined.
- I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.
- For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.
- I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar
- I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization
- I really care about the fate of this organization
- I feel very little loyalty to this organization
- I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for

Job Satisfaction (Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire: Cook, Hepworth, Wall & Warr, 1981).

- All in all, I am satisfied with my job
- In general, I like my job
- In general, I like working here

Intention to Turnover (Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire: Cook, Hepworth, Wall & Warr, 1981).

- I often think about quitting
- I will probably look for a new job next year
- How likely is it that you will actively look for a new job in the next year?

General Positive Feelings About Organization for Providing Family Assistance

- Providing child care and elder care to people who need it is just the right thing for an organization to do (Grover, 1991).
- Working for a company that offers child care and elder care assistance is important to me, whether or not I benefit from the help.

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IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)

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