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**THE IMPACT OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL AND SUPERVISORY
FAMILY SUPPORT ON AFFECTIVE AND CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT:
A LONGITUDINAL AND MULTI-LEVEL ANALYSIS**

by

Eileen White Jahn

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Business in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, The City University of New York.

1998

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12/15/97

Date

John J. Kypelou

Chair of Examining Committee

12/16/97

Date

Don O'Hara

Executive Officer

Professor Allen Kraut

Professor Joy Schmeer

Professor Cynthia Thompson

Supervisory Committee

THE CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK

Abstract

The Impact of Perceived Organizational and Supervisory Family Support on Affective and Continuance Commitment: A Longitudinal and Multi-Level Analysis

by: Eileen White Jahn

Advisor: Professor Richard E. Kopleman

This research investigates whether employees who perceive family-support from their supervisors and organizations are more committed to their firms. Specific work outcomes that have previously been found to be linked with commitment (e.g., lateness, turnover, absenteeism, and performance) were also examined. Data were obtained via questionnaire completed by a convenience sample 310 employees from 106 work groups in 98 different organizations. Eighteen months later a follow-up survey was administered, with a total of 98 (~30%) surveys returned. Additionally, data were collected from human resource professionals in 43 of the 98 organizations. The data were analyzed at three levels: the individual, the group, and across individuals and groups. Results show that both perceived organizational and supervisory family support are positively associated with commitment. Evidentiary support was found concurrently and longitudinally at both individual and group levels. Contrary to predictions, the positive relationship between support and organizational commitment was not moderated by family demands; further, only one relationship was moderated by sex. As found in many prior studies, the effect of commitment on various work outcomes (e.g., turnover, absenteeism) was confirmed.

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I thank Chris, my husband, my partner, and my hero. His love and faith in me kept me going during many a low point. He and our children, Christopher, Catherine, Jacqueline, Daniel, Deirdre, and Caroline gave much of themselves to this project. They give meaning to my work, and I firmly believe that is how it should be.

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CHAPTER ONE

Statement of the Problem to be Researched

Introduction

With changing demographics, societal expectations, and economic circumstances, organizations in the United States are finding themselves under increasing pressure to provide support for employees who are trying to balance their work and family lives. Legislative actions, such as the Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993, (U.S. Department of Labor, 1993) have served to increase this pressure. Until recently, practitioners in organizations have approached the notion of support in a piecemeal, patchwork sort of way. The scenario of formulating a policy, putting it (or a prototype) into practice, performing a cost-benefit analysis, and subsequently modifying the policy, has been typical among organizations. In contrast, academics in the fields of organizational behavior, and industrial/organizational psychology, have focused on the stress that work/family conflict inflicts on individuals and their families, along with the antecedents and consequences of such stress. While both approaches to achieving work/family balance are contributory to theory and practice, a more global approach to the issue is needed. Recently concern has been expressed that all too often the only solution to balancing work and family has merely been to offer fringe benefits. Anxiety about repercussions has prevented some employees from taking full advantage of some of these benefits. It has been suggested, that

instead, a systems approach be explored. A link between family support and productivity can be formed. This study explores this kind of link.

The present research looks at the construct of overall work/family support and its relationship to commitment. The construct of support explored here incorporates the instrumental and informational support of all work/family policies available, and the emotional aspect of support offered by the organization (e.g., How understanding the organization is of the problems that arise due to work/family conflict). The goal is to provide an evaluative measurement that is more encompassing than a cost/benefit analysis. This goal may be reached by examining the relationship of support to commitment. While examining work/family conflict is certainly useful, perhaps commitment is a more useful construct for practitioners to employ. Consider the following: practitioners are used to dealing with issues related to commitment, commitment affects all employees, and it is widely accepted that commitment has tangible outcomes that are of interest to management.

Complicating the issue, there has been recent concern expressed regarding a possible "backlash effect" (Jenner, 1994; Williams, 1994; Rothausen, O'Dell, & Torfin, in press). It is feared that employees without family demands may see family-friendly program expenditures as violating their sense of equity, since they do not directly benefit from them. In light of this concern, it is important to include all employees (not just employees with families) in research. This study does this, by

comparing relationships based on level of family demand.

In the remainder of this chapter several trends are examined. These trends all contribute to the significance of this study, which will also be discussed at the conclusion of this chapter.

The New Demographics

Parents in the Work Force

Each year, more women with children enter the work force, and women already in the work force have children without leaving. Fewer and fewer men have full-time wives at home to take care of their family matters. As these trends progress, concern about work and family issues has increased. In 1995, 67.7 of all women with children under 18 were in the work force, a number that has been steadily climbing since 1960 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1996). Also in 1995, 62.3% of mothers with children under the age of six were in the labor force, up from 57% in 1990. Between 1950 and 1990 the labor force participation rate for women with preschool children more than quadrupled (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990). In 1993, 61% of families had both parents at work, or were headed by a single parent who worked (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1996).

The Coming Labor Shortage

Concurrent with the rise of mothers and dual-earner families in the labor force is a projected shortage of entrants. Many authors believe that we are heading into a period

of severe labor shortages by the turn of the century (e.g., Hewlett, 1991; Schwartz, 1992; Smith, 1991). Between 1995 and 2000 the labor force is expected to grow by nearly eight million, while the population of 18 to 60 year olds will grow by approximately only five million (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1996). Right now and until the end of the century, American business is stuck with a short supply of entry-level workers because the baby-bust generation (born from 1965-1976) will be going to work. The number of young workers age 16-24 will drop by almost two million from 1990 to 2000 (Fullerton 1989).

According to the U.S. Department of Commerce (1990), the GNP grew tenfold between 1960 and 1990 and it is still growing. Simultaneously, our country is experiencing an educational crisis that can only compound the problem of finding qualified employees. According to R. Scott Fosler, vice-president and director of government studies for the Committee of Economic Development, the long-term trend of economic growth increasing more rapidly than labor force growth is likely to create a generally favorable market for qualified workers and a labor squeeze for business (Fosler, 1989).

Other Societal Trends

Employee Loyalty

There are indications that employee loyalty to their organization is declining. In a popular new book, The Loyalty Effect, Frederick Reichheld claims that every four

years many major corporations have to replace about half of their employees (Reichheld, 1996). Elizabeth Fowler of the New York Times stated that, according to government figures, the average employee stays in a job four years (Fowler, 1990). In Megatrends 2000, Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990) asserted that according to U.S. Labor Department statistics the average American will change careers (not jobs) three times in their lifetime. Reichheld estimates that disloyalty may stunt corporate performance by 25 to 50% of its potential (Reichheld, 1996).

Accordingly, many employers recognize that they must earn and build the motivated commitment of their work force (Reichheld, 1996; Schwartz, 1992). They are beginning to appreciate the high cost of disloyalty (e.g., training and recruiting). Many employers also recognize the opportunity costs of low employee loyalty in terms of loss of efficiency, customer satisfaction and loyalty, and employee referral.

New Breed of Worker

Sociologists and other interested observers note that a new breed of worker is emerging. The baby-boomers and women bring new values and attitudes about work, family life, and society to business. The new value-shift centers on time, quality, self-fulfillment, children, and general satisfaction with life. Americans are increasingly assertive of their rights in and out of the work place. As early as 1985 Nieva recognized that for this emerging group the meaning and priority of work have changed, alongside with other priorities. The "New Breed" worker places high value

on opportunities for self-expression, and work takes its place alongside other life goals and interests (Nieva, 1985). Coates, Jarrett, and Mahaffie (1989) observed that social change, driven by demography, education and prosperity, begets value change.

There are indications that fathers are becoming more concerned with balancing work and family life. One male employee in a Honeywell survey (Smith, 1991) commented that employers need to understand the changing roles in dual-career couples, and that too often, people and companies perceive the family responsibilities to be the sole responsibility of the wife/mother. James Levine of Bank Street College of Education in The 1990's Father: Balancing Work and Family Concerns notes that we tend to think that working moms have a monopoly on guilt, but this may not be true, he argues (Levine, 1990). Fran Rodgers of Boston's Work/Family Directions group reports that more and more men, because of their family concerns, do not want to work overtime, do not want to relocate, and do not want their performance measured in terms of hours put on the job (Louv, 1990). In an AT&T study, both men and women reported that they have to deal with family issues at work (Thompson, 1988).

The Implications of the Demographic Changes

The Economic Imperative

One implication of the above trends is that organizations have an economic rationale for addressing work/family issues. They have to recruit and retain qualified

people from a shrinking labor entry pool. Over time more of their own work force will be affected by, and want, better work/family policies.

Organizations are feeling the impact. Popular literature has begun to evaluate the "Family-Friendliness" aspects of large organizations [e.g., When the Bough Breaks, (Hewlett, 1991); Companies That Care, (Morgan & Tucker, 1991); Kincare and the American Corporation, (Smith, 1991)]. Betty Friedan, NOW's founding president, has criticized organizations for failing to address problems of a new generation of women who are juggling jobs, husbands, and children (Gross, 1992).

Galinsky, Friedman, and Hernandez (1991) noted that companies frequently compare themselves with other companies in terms of products, earnings, and productivity. They suggest that a new area of corporate competition is family-friendliness. By encouraging this comparison, companies can see how they stand against competitors and set future goals for new programs and policies.

Competitive edge in attracting workers.

In a time when a shortage of qualified labor is imminent, any cost-effective edge a company has in attracting qualified employees will give it a competitive advantage. Steve Clayton, vice-president of Work/Family Directions (a Boston consulting group) claims that frequently companies see an ability to attract and retain women as central to their future competitiveness (Gross, 1992). Work and family issues may be part of the key to attracting employees -- even more so because these are not just female

concerns. In a Honeywell survey of twelve hundred salaried employees (70% men and 30% women) an overwhelming majority pointed to "routine care for children, adult children, and aging parents" as their major concerns in life (Smith, 1991). One study found that about half of all employees across industries desired on-site/near-site care centers, partial reimbursement for child-care costs, and flex-time to deal with dependent problems (Galinsky & Hughes, 1987). Of course, it should be noted that opinion surveys which ask people what changes they would favor, may differ from the reality of what people would use (or what they would tradeoff to have the ability to use a program). The overall results of such a survey would still seem to show a generally favorable attitude toward these programs. Many companies are beginning to look toward work/family issues and programs for attaining a competitive edge in recruiting.

Competitive edge in retaining workers.

If turnover is high while recruiting and training costs are also high, employers are motivated to retain employees, and to attract employees who will stay. Human resource managers attempt to put a price on employee turnover, including costs of training, recruiting, and low productivity due to learning curve consideration. Reichheld claims that this approach seriously underestimates the true cost. He states that there is a "turnover tax" that includes the cost of poorer service to customers and lower productivity due to motivational factors (Reichheld, 1996).

Work/family balance issues seem to have a direct effect on employee retention. When Corning surveyed its exiting employees, it noticed that female professionals were leaving at twice the rate of men (Schwartz, 1992). It was discovered that job incompatibility with family life was a primary factor in this turnover. Du Pont surveyed 4,000 of its employees and found that 25% of the men and about 50% of the women have considered seeking another employer who might offer more work/family flexibility (Smith, 1991). In 1989 Robert Half International, an executive recruiting firm, surveyed a thousand male and female workers. Eight out of ten said they would prefer a job that gave them adequate time with their families, even if it meant slower career advancement (Sandroff, 1989). In 1990 the same firm did another poll that showed that more than half of the men surveyed would be willing to cut their salaries as much as 25% to have more family or personal time. Almost as many said they would turn down a promotion if it meant that they would have less time with their families (Morgan & Tucker, 1991). Of course, what people say, and what they do are not always the same, but these results suggest that there exists at least an interest in reducing work/family conflict. One key to retaining the number of participants in the work force interested in work/family issues is through good family policies and practices.

Productivity loss due to work-family problems.

Although anecdotal evidence exists concerning the effect on productivity that

family support policies have, there is a growing body of systematic research to substantiate this point (e.g. Fernandez, 1986; Friedman, 1991). An AT&T study found that among people with children under eighteen, 73% of the men and 77% of the women deal with family issues while at work. Also, 25% of the men and 48% of the women spent "unproductive time at work because of child care issues" (Thompson, 1988). By designing the right policies this lack of productivity can be reduced.

Reviewing research on productivity and family support, Allen Bergerson, a director of personnel policy development at Eastman Kodak Company, notes that when management asks what the return on investment will be with the proposed family-supportive policies, he tells them he can't promise anything in return. But he can say the problems are costing us more than the programs will (Friedman, 1991).

The Moral Imperative

Calvin Coolidge said to an audience of the Society of American Newspaper Editors in 1925, "the business of America is business." The labor demographics quoted above would support the notion that it is good business to invest in work/family policies. There are some who would also argue that reasons for investments in sound work/family policies transcend the bottom line. In recent years society has come to expect more out of corporations. As a societal creation a corporation must meet cultural expectations to maintain its franchise (Sethi & Falbe, 1983).

Economic analysis alone is clearly limited whenever human interests are involved. Economic analysis is based upon economic rationality; that is, an order of measurement and comparison of values. Although Milton Friedman claims that the social responsibility of business is to increase profits (Friedman, 1970) and that the only moral decision a businessperson can make is one in favor of increased profits, not everyone agrees. Microeconomic theory rests on assumptions about human nature and human worth (Hosmer, 1986). There is a lack of accounting for human worth which presents serious theoretical and practical problems with the economic approach. How can we measure the cost of the "all or nothing" choices many mothers must make? -- go back to work full tilt, immediately or do not come back at all. How do we account for the cost of the damage to family relationships when employees do not have enough time or flexibility to deal with their family demands adequately? What harm is coming to our future work force? How does one measure in the current bottom line the cost of selling short the future work force - our current crop of children? (Hewlett, 1991). If their education and upbringing are neglected, and they are allowed to be placed in poor quality day care, our future as a country may be harmed (Morgan & Tucker, 1991).

There have always been limits to what an employer can or cannot do. But, do employers have a moral obligation to help employees minimize the damage to their relationships with their dependents caused by job demands (Smith, 1991)? Leonard

Silverman, vice president for human resources at Hoffman-La Roche feels the issues go beyond profits to principle. He claims that demonstrating a corporation's creative commitment to human values is the wisest sort of investment in our nation's future (Silverman, 1987). This may be convincing from a public policy point of view, but what return on investment can an individual company expect?

Formulating an Approach

The previous sections have argued that there is value in investing in work/family policies and practices. We intuitively perceive a relationship between organizational "family-friendliness" and employee satisfaction - especially among workers with family demands. Even workers with very low or no family demands can be affected by the message sent by well-formulated family policies and practices - either because they recognize the potential need for future use or they see the commitment the firm has to all employees.

Several questions are not sufficiently addressed yet: What exactly is "family-friendliness"?, How does an organization make an impact?, What outcomes/benefits can a firm expect to get by being "Family-Friendly"? By what mechanism does this work? What models do we have to offer to describe this impact?

"Family-friendliness" Defined

Galinsky et al. (1991) called family-friendliness the overall responsiveness to employees' family and personal needs in light of business objectives. This

responsiveness is what we might refer to as "sound work/family policies and practices." Family-friendliness is the total impact of the policies, practices and attitudes that communicate the message that the organization is interested in helping the employee to achieve a viable balance between family and work life.

There are many ways that organizations can adapt family-oriented policies that translate into family-friendly practices [i.e. adequate leave programs, assistance and referral programs for child- and dependent-care, flexibility (scheduling, time off for sick dependents, occasional coming in late/leaving early for emergencies) and acceptance, especially at the supervisory level -- meaning no penalty for having family demands and utilizing company policies and practices]. The lack of one particular type of program does not indicate a lack of family-friendliness. A general lack of policies and practices does.

The notion of family-friendliness is conceptually similar to the concept of organizational support. Family-friendliness can be viewed as a type of support demonstrated by an organization. Support is defined as information that leads employees to believe that they are cared for, esteemed and valued, and that they belong to a network of communication and mutual obligation (Cobb, 1976). Family-friendliness is one way an organization can demonstrate that their employees are cared for, esteemed and valued - - even if they have family demands. By recognizing that employees have other demands (that they are parents, or have elder dependents) and

by offering programs designed to help them combine their family roles with their organizational roles this demonstrates to employees that they belong to a network of communication and mutual obligation. The term organizational family support (OFS) will be used synonymously with the term family-friendliness for the rest of this document.

Mechanisms and Models for Describing the Impact of Organizational Family Support

Organizational behavior, psychology, and sociology are some fields that have been advancing theoretical and empirical literature in the area of work/family issues for several years.

Specific Programs

In the literature review, studies concerning the impact of specific programs are presented. These are mostly field studies where researchers tried to assess the impact of a single program (such as a child care center, sick-child center, family leaves, etc.) on such variables as absenteeism or tardiness. The main shortcoming of this particular research is that it is simply too limited to look at one program at a time. Often too few people use it, or other contradictory policies or practices might exist. Katherine Tanelian, world-wide personnel communications manager at Hewlett-Packard noted that a family-friendly company cannot address just one problem with one program (Louv, 1990). It makes more sense to look at the family policies and practices

collectively. The set of dependent variables that are typically examined (i.e., turnover, productivity, and absenteeism) is problematic too. These variables are meaningful to management in that they are closely linked to the bottom line results in which the corporation is interested. This makes them inherently attractive, yet the difficulty of studying these variables is well documented (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982)(e.g. many other variables influence them, and they may be short-term symptoms, when it is long-term problems and solutions we are looking for).

Work/Family Conflict Reduction

The literature review (Chapter Two) also includes some of the work/family conflict literature. The concept of work-family conflict has been widely studied. This is a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect by which participation in one role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in another (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The findings of this area are helpful in understanding how being family-friendly can have positive effects by reducing a type of conflict (which is a source of stress) for individuals with families. This approach is useful in understanding the sources of this conflict and the detrimental effects of this stress on individuals. However, to really understand how a firm can have a positive impact, we need to look further.

A Broader Framework - The Linkage to Commitment

What has been lacking to date is a sound theoretical framework for examining how an organization addresses family/work life issues, and what impact organizational actions have on employees. I believe that the basis for this framework can be found in prior research on organizational commitment and organizational support (as the latter pertains to commitment formation).

In Felice Schwartz's 1992 book, Breaking with Tradition, she shows how organizational commitment ties into current intuitive thought. She claims that today one must accept parenthood as a cost of doing business. The only way one can reduce the cost is by permitting individuals, regardless of gender, to order their own priorities. The result would be that the employer would get the best and most committed employees. She feels that employers must accept the fact that they need to be flexible and provide family support. The alternatives will yield unacceptable rates of turnover, losses in productivity, and exclusion from the leadership pool of high potential, high performing individuals who also want to be involved in their children's lives (Schwartz, 1992). In the literature review chapter, the concept of commitment formation is explored and it will be shown that several theories support the notion that family-friendliness can lead to the formation of different types of commitment. The National Employer Supported Child Care Project survey (Burud, Aschbacher, & McCroskey, 1984) reported that many employers felt that "loyalty to the firm" was

improved by family benefits. This explains how the increased commitment might be tapped. The same sentiment is also expressed by Gaertner and Nollen (1989). As firms face an increasingly competitive business climate, managers have looked to different types of employment practices as sources of competitive advantage. One sought-after advantage is the development of a committed workforce through the adoption of family-friendly practices.

Leonard Silverman, a vice president for human resources at Hoffman-La Roche, feels that family programs demonstrate a corporation's creative commitment to human values (Schwartz, 1992). In the literature review, it will be shown that the support and commitment literature demonstrate that when a employees feel the organization is committed to them, they in turn become more committed to the organization (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986).

Examining the effect of a family-friendly work place (the whole package of policies, practices, and climate) on the commitment of an individual, or the overall commitment of the group, is a clear advance in our field. It will allow us to look at the meaningful whole of family policies and practices. Commitment may be central to discovering how such policies and practices may affect bottom line outcomes. Organizational commitment has been found to be a consistent predictor of turnover (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Porter, Crampon, & Smith, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulain, 1974) and intention to quit (Clegg, 1983; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). It has

also been found to correlate negatively with absenteeism (Steers, 1977), and positively with performance (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1979). Still other studies have linked commitment to prosocial organizational behavior (Brief & Motowildo, 1986; Organ, 1988).

The empirical evidence concerning the consequences of organizational commitment has not always been consistent. One problem is that organizational commitment really has at least two popular and distinct meanings (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Wittig, 1987): affective and continuance commitment. There have been recent works exploring the existence of more than these two factors (Penley & Gould, 1988; Roth, 1992, Meyer & Allen, 1991), but the general focus is to break down the affective and continuance factors into subfactors. For this research the two-factor level of detail is used first. Value or affective commitment - - the strength of the individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Porter et al., 1974) and continuance commitment - - the desire to stay with an organization as a result of individual/organizational transactions, where the view is continuation of membership because of the individual's vested interest in the organization (Becker, 1960; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972). Both views reflect a link between the employee and the organization, but are different conceptually. The first factor is value, or affective commitment; it implies a positive orientation toward the organization. The second factor, continuance commitment, is more of a calculative allegiance, born of a

need/desire to stay. As we will see in the literature review there is reason to believe that both types will be increased by family-friendliness, with a stronger effect on value commitment.

We have defined family-friendliness as a type of support that an organization offers to its employees. As noted above, support is defined as information that leads employees to believe that they are cared for, esteemed and valued, and that they belong to a network of communication and mutual obligation (Cobb, 1976). Therefore literature associated with support (from the organization and the supervisor) is reviewed. This body of literature also indicates that organizational commitment is formed on the basis of what the firm offers the individual. As support is often viewed as part of the construct of organizational climate, climate literature is examined in a limited fashion, with much the same conclusions.

A Note on Backlash

Recent articles in popular literature (e.g., Allis, 1996 in Time) have expressed a concern that there is or will be a "backlash" factor to contend with. It is feared that employees who do not have family demands may find family program expenditures to violate their sense of equity, since they do not directly benefit from them (Jenner, 1994; Williams, 1994; Rothausen, O'Dell, & Torfin, in press). The theory is that employees with low (or no) family demands will be resentful of the attention (and resulting resources) paid to employees with family demands. The fear is that these

employees, as a result of perceived inequity, will demand more themselves, or perhaps compensate for these problems by lowered morale, effort, or commitment. In order to address this concern, it is important to include all employees (not just employees with families) in research.

The Purpose and Significance of the Study

The major purpose of this dissertation is to increase our understanding of how organizational family support affects all organizational employees, especially in ways that are relevant to organizational policy makers. Specifically, the plan and research examines relationships between support and the commitment of employees. The level of family demands is examined to see if it moderates the relative behavior of family-friendliness and commitment.

Clearly, there is a need to approach this issue systematically. There is a demand for research that can demonstrate the value that family support programs can add to the organization's bottom line (e.g., Conference Board, 1993).

The significance of this study is that it: (a) offers a more global view and assessment of how an organization approaches family support, (b) examines a variable (commitment) that may explain other factors previously studied (absenteeism, turnover, stress, satisfaction), (c) relates to "bottom line" profitability in that it examines not only commitment, but also the secondary outcomes of absenteeism, tardiness, turnover, and performance, (d) advances a model that clarifies the

mechanisms related to how organizational family support might work (e) examines these relationships for all employees, across all levels of family-demands (and hopefully defuses the "backlash" argument) and, (f) offers implications for practice.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of the Literature

Introduction

The following review of the literature:

(a) examines the theories and empirical findings associated with organizations offering organizational family support, including:

- ◆ the results of specific family-friendly program studies,
- ◆ work/family conflict theory and studies (organizational family support is aimed at reducing this conflict), and
- ◆ social support theories and studies of organizational family support as defined as a type of social support;

(b) reviews commitment formation theory as it relates to antecedents such as organization's policies and practices;

(c) Additionally some relevant theories and findings concerning level of analysis are noted.

Specific Family Programs

Within the domain of work/family life research there is a body of writing devoted to exploring the impact of single programs. Single programs refer to a policy or program that a firm may offer to help employees achieve work/family balance. Examples are child care, family leave, and flex-time. Specifically, much of the

empirical research has tried to assess the impact of specific programs on outcomes such as absenteeism, turnover, tardiness, performance, work/family conflict, and commitment (for example "On-site Child Care: Its Impact on Job Satisfaction and Work-Family Balance", Buffardi, Edwins, McCarthy, O'Brien, and Smith, 1996). In this section highlights of this type of literature are reviewed, within the program categories.

Child Care

Through the eighties and early nineties, on- or near-site child care centers were popularly viewed as a good solution for the work/family conflict problem. It was, therefore, also popular to study the impact of this specific program.

Part of a review of 16 studies of employer-supported child care by Dana Friedman (1991) looked specifically at six experimental study designs. These studies compared employees who used employer-supported day-care centers with those who did not have them available. The employees who used employer-supported day-care centers companies had better turnover rates and their companies experienced increased recruitment.

In a study of an employer-supported child care center, Milkovich and Gomez (1976) sampled 30 center users, 30 parent non-users, and 30 non-parents. By performing a post-test of center users and comparing them with the two control groups they found that reduced absenteeism and lower turnover were related to

enrollment at the center.

Burud, Aschbacher, and McCroskey (1984) did a survey of user perceptions of 123 center users in a hospital and 79% said it improved their morale and 41% said they would have left their jobs without it. It should be noted that this self-report of improved morale may be an inaccurate measure. Asking employees if the center (something they use and need) improved their morale would predispose them to a positive answer. An independent question posed at another time might show little improvement in morale.

Youngblood and Chambers-Cook (cited in Smith, 1991) compared 410 employees in a firm with a center (a North Carolina textile firm) to those without one and found that center users had lower turnover and were higher on job satisfaction, commitment, and felt their organizational climate was better than those without. In the company with the center a 19% drop in absenteeism and a 63% drop in turnover were reported after introduction of the center.

Buffardi, Edwins, MCarthy, O'Brien, and Smith (1996) did a comparison of federal government employees using on-site agency-sponsored child-care with cohorts using other group day-care facilities. It revealed greater job satisfaction among the on-site users.

On the other hand the results were not always what was predicted. Krug, Palmour, and Ballassai (cited in Miller, 1984) compared the work habits of parents whose

children were enrolled in an employee sponsored facility, and those who were not. Actually, more sick hours were logged by the center users. Likewise, use of an employer sponsored child care center was found to have no relationship to work/family conflict (Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990) in their study of a large Midwestern electronics and communications firm. This particular study took a step further and examined another variable - satisfaction with child-care arrangements. This variable did relate to work/family conflict. This illustrates the inaccuracy and limitation of using a single indicator.

Family Leaves

Family leaves are another set of policies that have been studied. A study by the U.S. Chamber of Commerce confirms the view that parental leaves may actually make a company more productive. A survey of companies offering parental leave found that 60% cited "recruitment and retention" of good employees as the main reason for leaves (Gardner, 1988).

More recently, researchers Lindner and Marra (1993) have called family leave policy a "bargain". Using data gathered from supervisors at a high-tech company with generous leave policies, Lindner and Marra developed a "cost model" to help compare strategies for coping with a leave. The model tries to account for many variables, among them: type and length of leave, amount of planning time, the employee's job, age, and performance, the size of the immediate work group, and the supervisor's

attitude toward leave. Their data showed that on average, the cost of supporting the leave (rerouting and reassigning work, or simply letting it slide) was less than 32% of the employee's salary, while the average cost of replacing the employee is two to three times this. In companies where training costs are lower, however, the results might not be so dramatic.

Pregnancy Accommodation

Another single variable, not exactly a program, is the concept of "pregnancy accommodation." This measures how cooperative a supervisor is during pregnancy. This variable has been found to be associated with job satisfaction (National Council of Jewish Women, 1987). Job satisfaction, while conceptually distinct from commitment (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988; Colarelli, Dean, & Kostans, 1987; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982) has long been associated with it. Results that show increased job satisfaction may indicate that commitment should be explored.

Flexitime

Alternative work schedules, like flexitime, have gained popularity as a practical solution to work/family conflict (Christensen & Staines, 1990). The relationship between flexitime and work outcome variables such as job satisfaction and morale has been found to be generally positive (e.g., Nollen & Martin, 1978). More recently Lee and Johnson (1991) found that employees who work a preferred schedule are more likely to report satisfaction. Work schedule autonomy was also found to be negatively

related to work/family conflict and turnover (Coakley & Karren, 1996).

General Family Benefits

A large scale survey of 415 employers done by the National Employer supported Child Care Project (Burud et al., 1984) reported the following pay-offs to having family benefits (as perceived by the employers): 85% of the employers reported improved recruitment, 65% reported reduced turnover, 53% reported reduced absenteeism, 49% reported increased productivity, 85% reported enhanced company image, as well as improvement in loyalty to the firm. It should be noted that this was a survey of *employer perceptions*. The individuals who answered the survey may have been biased because they were instrumental in implementing the program, or because they had their own opinions about employer-supported child care. From the design we have no way of knowing whether the respondents had accurate information about the variables, or whether they were merely estimating.

Individual Organizational Studies

Related to the impact of specific programs studied are the studies which are conducted by individual companies. Certain large organizations have taken critical looks at their own overall family support packages, with an eye towards impact.

Kraut (1990) points out a number of organizations that have done significant research in work and family life issues in their own workplace. Research conducted by Honeywell, E.I. du Pont, and his own work at IBM are cited as examples of

proactive research on how work/family life issues and programs have an impact on work outcomes (and other variables) within an organization.

Leslie Faught, president of Working Solutions (a national employee benefits consulting firm), reported the results of two corporate studies, U.S. Bancorp and Weyerhaeuser Company, in an article on work/life programs (Faught, 1995). From these two comprehensive studies on the impact and potential impact of work/life programs the same conclusion was drawn: employee productivity, commitment to the company, and overall morale increase when employees are helped to meet the demands of their work and life responsibilities.

This type of research offers a great advantage to human resource planning within a particular organization. Being aware of the needs, desires, and attitudes of your own employees is a valuable asset. Unfortunately, the generalizability of such results is limited.

Overview of Program Studies

The overall results of these studies are mixed and inconclusive. Part of the problem is that the focus has been too narrow. Many studies focus on the specific program or policy as the sole independent variable. Some studies focus on a narrow outcome variable, like tardiness, or absence, and thus, fail to get the larger picture, or the notion of process. The large scale, single organization studies go beyond the one independent, or one dependent variable, but they examine results for just one

organization. Therefore, generalizability from one organization to another may be problematic.

Instead of assessing the impact of only one program, or looking at one specific negative outcome, we need to theorize more globally; that is to look at the collective set of family/work policies. An employee gets an overall view of the support they receive (or can expect to receive) for their family situation based on *all* the policies and practices an organization has regarding family/work issues. This may be the key to looking at how family-friendliness affects employees.

Work/Family Conflict Literature

Definitions

Another major avenue of research in the realm of balancing work and family life is the construct of work/family conflict. The literature on this construct is sometimes confusing due to a variety of terms and definitions used. For example, the following are some terms used in addition to work/family conflict: work interfering with family conflict, and family interfering with work conflict (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991); work-home conflict (Nelson, Quick, Hitt, & Moesel, 1990); work and family tradeoff (DiBenedetto, & Kehr-Tittle, 1990). Generally, the concept of work/family conflict is defined as a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect whereby participation in one role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in another (Greenhaus &

Beutell, 1985). This construct has been well-studied. The definition is derived from that of role-conflict: the simultaneous occurrence of two or more sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964).

Variables Associated with Work/Family Conflict

Work/family conflict has been examined for its antecedents and consequences. Baruch and Barnett (1986) have set forth two sets of hypotheses to explain the possible consequences of work/family conflict: the scarcity hypothesis and the enhancement hypothesis. The first emphasizes the costs of conflict, the resulting lack of well-being that arises from overload and conflict. The second, the enhancement hypothesis, emphasizes the benefits, such as increased status and self-esteem associated with multiple role involvement.

In support of the scarcity hypothesis there is much evidence that reducing work/family conflict would have benefits for an organization. Research suggests that work/family conflict can have negative influences on absenteeism (Brooke & Price, 1989; Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990), tardiness (Burud et al., 1984; Magid, 1983), turnover (Curry, Wakefield, Prince, Mueller, & McCloskey, 1985; Hock Chrisman, & Hock, 1980), and attitudes at work, including work stress, work role conflict/overload (Gutek, Repetti, & Silver, 1988; Pietromonaco, Manis, & Frohardt-Lane, 1986; Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992), as well as job

satisfaction and commitment (Bedeian, Burke, & Moffet, 1988; Burud et al., 1984; Magid, 1983; Sexton, 1977). Quality of work life (QWL) has been found to be significantly negatively related to work/family conflict (Higgins, Duxbury, & Irving, 1992).

There are several studies that indicate that work/family conflict is negatively associated with several indicators of an individual's well-being. Work/Family conflict has been related to depression (Frone et al., 1992), burnout (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1991). Additionally, Skinner (1980) concluded that the demands of child rearing, particularly finding satisfactory arrangements for child care, are a source of strain for dual-career parents.

Support Related to Work/Family Conflict

Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1986) suggest that an organization can have a direct role in reducing conflict by providing accurate information, greater flexibility, and support services. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) propose that work/family conflict is strongest when there are negative sanctions for non-compliance, such as punishment for missing work due to a child's illness. Variables that reduce these sanctions (such as supervisor flexibility) are likely to reduce work/family conflict. An organization's or supervisor's support for the family would consist partially of the presence or absence of these sanctions as imposed by the supervisor. If an organization were perceived as more flexible or willing to reduce certain role pressures this, too, could

relieve work/family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Given that part of our definition of organizational family support is flexibility, this flexibility would in turn reduce role pressures.

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) in their review of literature propose that support within any of one's role set may affect work/family conflict by:

- reducing certain role pressures (thereby producing lower time demands, less strain, or more flexibility)
- moderating or buffering the relationship between work/family conflict and well-being.

The idea of support in the work environment is not new to work/family conflict literature. Several studies have looked at the effect of "non-support". Perceived non-support in one's work environment was associated with low levels of marital adjustment and quality of life, as well as high levels of work/family conflict (Greenhaus, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1987). Employees who work in non-supportive environments have been found to be more likely to experience higher levels of stress and lower levels of personal and marital well-being (House, 1981; Jones & Butler, 1980; Quick & Quick, 1984).

The findings that work/family conflict reduction can have an influence on an employee's positive affect are consistent with the theorized effect of organizational family support impacting commitment positively. Instead of focusing on actual

conflict, this study will focus on what organizations are seen as doing to reduce it. By generalizing this idea we may capture a better picture of the mechanisms at work than by looking at the conflict specifically.

One of the most important resources for coping with conflict is social support (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Social support is seen as capable of ameliorating the strain associated with stressors in different domains (Parasuraman, Greenhouse, & Granrose, 1992). Erera (1992) suggests that individuals will increasingly seek and expect social support from the work domain, partly because of a reduction of its availability from the non-work domain. Given these expectations we can predict that organizational support will play a major role in coping with work/family conflict. The literature on support is reviewed next.

Social Support Literature

Definitions

Several definitions of social support are offered in the literature. McIntosh (1991) defines it as resources (actual or perceived) available from others that act to assist the individual in the management of stress. Support is information that leads employees to believe that they are cared for, esteemed, and valued, and that they belong to a network of communication and mutual obligation (Cobb, 1976). House (1981) conceptually divided support into three categories: emotional, instrumental, and informational. This division is similar to Greenhaus and Parasuraman's (1986) notion

of reducing conflict by providing accurate information, greater flexibility, and support services, and Wethington & Kessler's (1986) definition which includes the actual transfer of advice, aid, and affect. These all will be useful in operationalizing the support constructs. Support has usually been thought of as existing in the non-work domain (termed social support), but is increasingly recognized (and increasingly expected (Erera, 1992)) as existing within work.

Perceived vs. Received Support

One point of disagreement in the support literature is the issue of whether social support should be conceptualized as a perception of resource availability, or the actual transfer of advice, aid, and affect (Wethington & Kessler, 1986). Saranson, Saranson, and Shearin (1986) have argued that it is the "knowing" that our well being is the concern of others, rather than the actual aid received that is the essence of social support. This knowledge can come from demonstrations of aid, yet the acts are not the essence.

A number of studies have looked at received vs. perceived support. Many have found that while perceived support is associated with *reduced* stress symptoms received support is related to *increased* stress symptoms (Wethington & Kessler, 1986; Saranson, Shearin, Pierce, & Saranson, 1987; Jayaratne, Himle, & Chess, 1988). One obvious flaw in some of these studies is that the individuals who were studied concerning received support actually needed support (for instance as victims

of a hurricane) while the perceived report subjects were asked about potential use of support. Unfortunately, the work/family conflict studies often have the same flaw, only looking at individuals who experience work/family conflict. Generally, though, it looks as though the perception of support plays a more important role than actual receipt of support.

In relating organizational family support to commitment for all individuals in the organization we are more interested in the message that the employee receives concerning the availability of support. Jayartne et al. (1988) found that individuals were more likely to use sources of organizational support the more they perceived the environment as being supportive. It is not the actual receipt or usage that determines the support/commitment relationship, but rather the perception of availability.

Dimensions of Support

Support, as evidenced by the number of definitions available, is a multidimensional construct. There are two major ways of categorizing and examining the dimensions of support. We can look at *type* of support and *source* of support

We have already discussed the dimensions of this definition, i.e., the breakdown of the support construct into dimensions. These are labeled types of support. There is (a) instrumental support (actual aid and programs), (b) informational support (provision of useful information both about self-help and sources of organizational

help), and (c) emotional support (caregiving/affective concern) (House, 1981; Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1986; and Wethington & Kessler, 1986). Nelson and Quick (1991) have a similar framework that includes emotional support, information support, instrumental support, and adds appraisal support. Appraisal support is affirmations and evaluative feedback.

The other category is source of support. Within the organization there is organizational support, co-worker support, and supervisory support. Cauce and Srebnik (1990) suggest that individuals can readily distinguish between sources of support based on characteristics of the providers and their relationships with the recipients.

Supervisory Support

An organization can have every policy and program in the world, but if an employee's supervisor either does not convey the information properly (or limits the usage of it), the expected outcomes would not materialize. Ellen Galinsky, a researcher on work family issues claims that after a policy has been decided on and implemented within the organization, there is a significant need for supervisor training to insure that the policy is interpreted and followed through at all levels. Managers may not be aware of company policy or may discourage employees from using them (Galinsky, Love, & Hughes, 1987). Levinson (1965) noted that employees tend to view actions by agents of the organization as actions of the organization itself.

A direct supervisor or superior is seen as a primary agent of the organization. Kottke and Sharafinski (1988) noted that employees further differentiate support from the organization as a whole and the support they receive from their immediate supervisor: both would be important in terms of being supportive. As a buttress for these expectations, past research (Greller & Herold, 1975) found that employees value feedback most from supervisors, relying on them for the most information.

The notion of supervisory support has been investigated empirically in the literature. Supervisory support has been found to be negatively related to work/family conflict and absenteeism (Goff, Mount, and Jamison 1990). This field study included 253 employees who were parents of children under five (161 were male, 62 were female). They found that supervisory support (defined as the degree to which supervisors were willing to discuss family problems and be flexible when emergencies arise) was associated with lower degrees of work/family conflict.

Kirmeyer and Dougherty (1988) found that support from superiors moderated the effects of objective and perceived work-load for police dispatchers. Dispatchers with high perceived supervisory support engaged in more coping activities and felt less tension-anxiety than those with lower levels. Additionally, supportive leadership behaviors have been found to correlate positively with commitment (Howell & Dorfman, 1981).

Similarly, Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) found leader supportiveness to predict

job satisfaction. Although satisfaction and commitment are conceptually distinct and separate (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988; Colarelli, Dean, & Kostans, 1987; Mowday et al., 1982) they are related in systematic ways. Satisfaction examines a positive attitude toward the job, while value commitment has a facet of positive attitude toward the organization. It is expected that if supportiveness is positively associated with job satisfaction, one would see a similar relationship with subordinate commitment.

A construct related to supervisory support is supervisory relations (Katz & Kahn, 1978; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). This is a measure of the quality of the instrumental relationship between the supervisor and subordinate that includes quality of communication and encouragement. This, too, has been positively correlated to commitment - specifically, affective commitment (Gaertner & Nollen, 1989). Similarly, Lee and Johnson (1991) reported that positive supervisor-subordinate interactions led to increased subordinate commitment.

Note on Climate/Supportive Climate

The notion of support, as collectively perceived by the individuals in an organization, is related to climate theories. There have been many definitions of climate in the literature since it was first proposed well over fifty years ago (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). Most often it is the collection of perceptions of individuals regarding organizational factors that is often referred to in the literature as an

organizational "climate". Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weick (1970) defined it as a set of attributes, specific to a particular organization, that may be inferred from the way that an organization deals with its members and environment. Koys and DeCotiis (1991) noted that there were 80 labeled dimensions of climate in a review of the literature. Their research produced eight distinct factors, one of which was support.

One point of dissension in the research literature has concerned the appropriate level of analysis. James and Jones (1974) suggest using the term "psychological climate" when referring to an individual unit of analysis, and "organizational climate" when referring to the group, or organization. Field and Abelson (1982) go a step further and claim that an organizational climate only exists when sufficient consensus among individuals occurs.

The relationship between climate and commitment has been studied in the literature (for example, Witt, 1989). A variety of measures for climate and commitment have been used, so it is difficult to make meaningful comparisons. There is, however, evidence that support and supportive climates are associated with higher levels of commitment (e.g., Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). This research is discussed later in this chapter. Relatedly, there has been recent evidence that a supportive work-family culture is positively related to affective commitment (Thompson, Beauvais, & Carter, 1997).

Recently there has been discussion of organizational family support as consisting

of tangible and intangible support (Friedman & Johnson, 1996). Here the two factors of support are thought to comprise a supportive climate. This is a more general factoring of support than House's (1981) instrumental, informational, and emotional view, but not inconsistent. The informational and instrumental factors are tangible, while the emotional factor is intangible.

Organizational Commitment Formation Literature

Definitions

Traditionally, organizational commitment has been viewed as a multidimensional construct. One of the most influential definitions is from the work of Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulain (1974) and Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982): Organizational commitment is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in the organization, including a strong desire to remain in the organization, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values.

Buchanan (1974) defines organizational commitment similarly as a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of the organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth.

More recently, the singular view on commitment has been replaced with a view of the multiple components, a view that recognizes that no one perspective is totally

adequate (Somers, 1995). Two- and three-facet perspectives have been widely accepted (e.g. Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1991). The definitions of each of these aspects are discussed below.

The Interest in Commitment - - Its Outcomes

In the past few years interest in the concept of organizational commitment has been on the upswing. Employers are becoming increasingly interested given the recent evidence of declining employee loyalty. The average employee today will stay in a job about four years (Fowler, 1990). According to U.S. Labor Department statistics the average American will change careers (not jobs), three times in their lifetime (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990). Employers recognize that they must earn and build the motivated commitment of their work force (Schwartz, 1992). Organizational commitment has been viewed as an important job attitude for us to study largely because committed employees are presumed to be more motivated and productive and less likely to leave the organization. We assume that organizations that foster commitment are more likely to have a workforce that is efficient and happy, leading to better organizational performance and quality of work life.

Supporting these notions organizational commitment has been found to correlate negatively with absenteeism (Steers, 1977), and positively with performance (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Organizational commitment has also been found to be a consistent predictor of turnover (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Porter, Crampon,

& Smith, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulain, 1974). Steel and Ovalle (1984) performed a meta-analysis of 154 data sets, and found commitment and turnover to have a strong correlation. A more recent meta-analysis (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) reported a mean correlation between organizational commitment and turnover to be $r = .28$. The turnover findings are clouded somewhat by the fact that some measures of commitment, specifically measures of continuance commitment, are related to turnover by definition (such as a desire to remain component). This scale overlap has been noted by Mathieu and Zajac (1990). A summary is provided in Table 2.1

Unfortunately, research and practice in the area have had a number of problems and inconsistencies. Several researchers have suggested that multiple definitions and operationalizations are part of the problem (Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987; Morrow, 1983; Reichers, 1986). It is useful, therefore, to distinguish the different concepts and facets of commitment.

As noted earlier, it is accepted that there are at least two aspects, or factors of organization commitment: affective and continuance (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Wittig, 1987). Some would argue that there are even more factors involved (Penley & Gould, 1988; Roth, 1992). This is explored next.

Table 2.1
The Consequences of Organizational Commitment

Work Outcome	Association	Authors
Absenteeism	negative	Steers, 1977
Tardiness	negative	Steers, 1977
Performance	positive	Mowday et al., 1979
Pro-social organizational behavior	positive	Brief & Motowildo, 1986; Organ, 1988
Intention to quit	negative	Clegg, 1983; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986
Turnover	negative	Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Porter, Crampon, & Smith, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulien, 1974

The Facets of Commitment

The empirical evidence concerning the consequences of organizational commitment has not always been consistent. One problem is that organizational commitment really has more than one distinct view (Wittig, 1987; Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1991): (a) value or affective commitment - - the strength of the individual's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization (Porter et al., 1974), (b) continuance commitment - - the desire to stay with an organization as a result of individual-organizational transactions where the view is continuation of membership because of the individual's vested interest in the organization (Becker, 1960; Hebliniak & Alutto, 1972),

and (c) normative commitment - - the perceived duty to support the organizations and its activities (Weiner, 1982).

A recent factor analysis (Roth, 1992) showed support for the existence of two of these dimensions, affective and continuance. The case for the third factor, normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991), has also been made. This is the commitment that stems from socialization and feeling that one *ought to* or *should* stay with the organization. Since the two broader categories of affective and continuance are generally agreed upon, have been well studied (especially in formation theories), and have been related to the variables in this study, these alone will be used for the present study, with no further subfactoring. The facets of affective and continuance commitment and the theory behind the present research will be discussed at greater length below.

Both the affective and continuance views of organizational commitment reflect a link between the employee and the organization, but they are different conceptually. Value, or affective, commitment implies a positive orientation toward the organization. It is a person's affective involvement with his/her employing organization. It is concerned with feelings and attachment to the organization at large. Specifically these feelings are expressed in the acceptance of the organization's values and goals, pride in the organization, and willingness of the individual to exert personal effort on behalf of the organization.

Continuance commitment is more of a calculative allegiance born of a need to stay.

This type of commitment is characterized by an individual's appraisal of the employment situation in respect to a cost/benefit analysis. Hrebiniak and Alutto(1972) define it as "the perceived utility of continued participation in the employing organization." Evolving from the inducements/contributions paradigm, continuance commitment is concerned with the level of calculative involvement in the organization.

As might be expected, the outcomes for each type are hypothesized to vary. Meyer, Allen, and Gellatly (1990) claim that this is because employees with a strong affective commitment remain with the organization because they want to, whereas employees with a strong continuance commitment stay because they choose to (i.e., they stay because leaving would be too costly).

Brief and Motowildo (1986) indicate that positive affective definitions of organizational commitment should lead to pro-social behaviors. There is evidence that positive affective forms of commitment are predictive of better work performance (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987), extra-role pro-social behavior and intent to remain with the organization (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Continuance commitment does not appear to be related to extra-role behavior or within-role job performance (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

A comparison of value (or affective) commitment and continuance commitment and their effects on different outcomes showed that continuance commitment is more strongly related to intention to quit than value commitment, while tardiness rates were found to

be significantly correlated with value commitment, but not with continuance commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981). Wittig (1987) found some support for affective (value) commitment being more likely than continuance commitment to inhibit negative emotional experiences in organizations (fewer psychosomatic complaints and less personal alienation).

As is shown later in the chapter, there is reason to believe that both types of organizational commitment may be heightened by family-friendliness: affective commitment is best predicted by work experiences that promote feelings of comfort (Allen & Meyer, 1990) which organizational family support should achieve, and continuance commitment should correlate with measures of potential loss and/or lack of alternatives (which is possible if other organizations could not provide the same level of support). As we will demonstrate later, organizational family-friendly practices should have a stronger effect on value commitment than on continuance commitment.

Commitment Formation Theories

The remainder of this chapter reviews several schools of thought pertaining to organizational commitment formation. For each theory the basic rationale and its empirical support are reviewed, the relevance to organizational family support is established, and the type of commitment most commonly associated with the theory is noted.

Goal or Value Congruence Theory

This theory holds that individuals become committed to an organization to the extent that the organization supports individual's central values. This approach is a type of person/organizational fit theory, the better the fit between the individual and the organization the higher the level of organizational commitment (Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970; Weiner, 1982). The argument is that individuals who value the goals of the organization are more likely to identify with it (Hall, 1976). Support of this theory has been found in studies looking at commitment in U.S. Forest Service employees (Hall, et al., 1970; Hall & Schneider, 1972).

Meglino, Ravlin, and Adkins (1989) reported greater commitment when worker values were congruent with the values of supervisors and concluded that commitment is derived from a match between individual's values and those emphasized in an organization. Reichers (1986) also found congruence between subordinate and managerial goal orientations to be predictive of organizational commitment.

Vancouver and Schmitt (1991) found organizational goal congruence related to commitment of high school teachers and principals. The more they agreed with the goals of the school, the more committed they were to the school.

Schneider (1987) in his development of the attraction-selection-attrition model (ASA), stated that employees are attracted to, selected by, and remain with organizations that have goals to their liking. The degree to which members agree with the priorities of the

organization can have a profound effect on members' attitudes (e.g., Kochan, Cummings, & Huber, 1976).

If employees value the successful combination of work and family and see evidence that the firm values this, or considers this a reasonable goal, then they are likely to be more committed to the organization. Organizational family support offers this kind of evidence. This type of commitment formation is more often associated with affective commitment, the strength of an individual's identification and involvement in a particular organization (Porter et al., 1974).

Needs Satisfaction and Exchange Theory

Individuals who join an organization possess certain needs, desires, and skills and will become committed to the organization to the extent to which these needs are being met, and the extent to which the organization is experienced as rewarding. It is generally argued that higher order needs - relating to job autonomy and job challenge - lead to this type of attachment (Buchanan, 1974; Patchen, 1970). Commitment has also been found to relate to satisfaction of lower level needs (Angle & Perry, 1983), specifically supervision, pay, promotion (Parasuraman, 1982) which is seen as support for this type of formation.

Exchange processes have also been used in the explanation of the effect of organizational characteristics on individuals. For example, characteristics in the leadership environment can make the individual aware of the importance of their

contributions. Illustrating this, supportive leadership behaviors were found to correlate positively with commitment (Howell & Dorfman, 1981).

Employees with family demands enter the organization with the need and desire to combine family and work demands (and those without may carry these needs as a potential). Organizational family support is a way a firm can meet these needs of their employees. It has been hypothesized that as a type of exchange theory this type of commitment formation affects both affective and continuance commitment, with a stronger affective effect. Some support for this has been found (Wittig, 1987).

Reciprocation Theory

The concept of reciprocation was introduced by Angle & Perry (1983) as similar to, but a little more encompassing than, the needs satisfaction theories. It takes the basis of needs theory, but describes a process for commitment formation. It also goes a step further in describing the social relevance of the formation of commitment. Within the general framework of social exchange theory, the mechanism of reciprocation offers an explanation for why positive experiences within the organization lead to commitment. This reaction is activated as part of the psychological contract which the individual forms with the organization. The extent to which the individual has positive experiences with an organization creates a willingness of the individual to reciprocate with commitment.

This is related to the norm of reciprocity, a universal ethic requiring equality between the amount of help received and the amount of help returned (Gouldner, 1960). This

norm serves society by stabilizing mutually beneficial relationships. As implied by the norm, greater amounts of help are associated with greater amounts of returned help (e.g., Greenberg & Frisch, 1972).

The argument could be made that in return for the "help" given to employees with families (in the form of organizational family support) commitment is formed. The greater the family demands, the greater the "help", and the stronger the commitment.

Variables representing the process of reciprocation have been found to make a more sizable contribution to the prediction of affective commitment than continuance (Angle & Perry, 1983). Also Shoemaker, Snizek, and Bryant (1977) established the superiority of using social psychological factors in predicting affective value commitment in comparison to predicting continuance commitment.

Cost-Benefit Analysis Theory

As part of a social exchange framework, the mechanism of cost-benefits analysis has been used to explain commitment formation. Positive experiences would be considered benefits and the negative experiences the costs. Individuals are hypothesized to compare these in order to assess their relationship with the organization (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

This is theoretically related to the inducements-contributions paradigm (Barnard, 1938; March & Simon, 1958), where employees compare the ratio of inducements to stay to contributions. The more favorable the ratio, the greater the commitment. Barnard

indicated that organizational functioning was based on the organization providing inducements in exchange for member contributions, which suggests continuance commitment (and a wide zone of indifference). March and Simon (1958) corroborate and elaborate on this rational exchange relationship in their discussion of motivational constraints and the member's decision to participate.

Research that links positive experiences with increased commitment, and negative experiences with decreased commitment provide some support for this theory. Positive experiences have been found to be positively correlated with commitment: met expectations (Arnold & Feldman, 1982), personal importance and organizational dependability (Brown, 1969). Organizational experiences with cost factors, emotional or otherwise, have been found to affect commitment negatively: stress (Parasuraman, 1982) and role conflict (Morris & Snyder, 1979) have been found to have an inhibitory effect on organizational commitment.

Evolving from an inducements-contributions paradigm, continuance commitment is most strongly related to this type of commitment formation (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972). Organizational family supports could be viewed as an inducement to stay or a benefit of staying, especially if it were unavailable elsewhere. Lack of family support could be a cost to employees with family demands (emotional and financial).

Organizational Support and Commitment Formation

Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa (1986) have suggested that an

employee's organizational commitment is affected by his or her perception of the organization's commitment to the employee. Perceived Organizational Support is theorized as an antecedent to this commitment. They used the social exchange view to explain the perception and its relationship to affective commitment (emotional attachment) and continuance commitment (the desire to remain with one's current employer). Essentially this view suggests that an employee's inferences about the organization's commitment to them contributes to the employee's subsequent organizational commitment. Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) research supports this theory. There is additional evidence for a positive relationship between support and commitment to be found in studies by Fisher (1985) and McFarlane, Shore, & Tetrick (1991).

Eisenberger et al. (1986) theorized that employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which a personified organization values their contributions and cares about their well being. This global perception concept was called Perceived Organizational Support (POS). POS is influenced by various aspects of an employee's treatment in the organization e.g. rewards such as pay, rank, and favorable organizational policies. Positive discretionary actions by the organization that benefitted an employee would be taken as evidence that the organization cared about one's well being and therefore could be counted on in the future (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). This is related to the norm of reciprocity, which was reviewed above. The argument could be made that, in return for the "help" given to employees with families, commitment is

formed.

Support for this was found in a study involving both hourly and managerial employees by Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro (1990). Employees with high perceived support expressed greater affective attachment. This is consistent with the exchange theories of commitment formation.

Orthner and Pittman (1986) in an Air Force study concerning bases that had family support centers, hypothesized that exposure to family support programs (the center) will directly and positively affect perceived organizational support for families. The greater the exposure to family programs the greater the perception that the organization is supportive of families. Orthner and Pittman further hypothesized that perceived organization support will have direct positive effects on job commitment, defined as: morale, job performance, and intent to stay in the military for life. The subjects were male, married officers. The results indicated that there was a relationship between the presence of a center and commitment, as they defined it.

More closely related to the topic at hand, Grover and Crooker (1995) found that employees balance their positive attitudes toward the organization with the benefits they receive. They found that employees of organizations that offer family-friendly policies have stronger affective commitment to their organizations than others, whether they personally benefitted from them or not.

A Note on the Longitudinal Nature of Commitment Formation

In the commitment formation literature, the relationships between support and commitment (affective and continuance) are implicitly viewed as stable over time. Most of the commitment formation theories are based on the individual assessing the levels of the firm's inducements, benefits, needs satisfaction, values and goals, and level of commitment to the employees, and responding with an appropriate level of organizational commitment. This relationship to commitment is assumed implicitly as stable over time. There is, however, little explicit theory or empirical support of this.

Organizational Commitment Formation - A Summary

The literature on commitment formation, as it was relevant to organizational family support, has been reviewed. For each of the major schools of thought, the basic theory and its empirical support was reviewed. The relevance to organizational family support was established, and the type of commitment most commonly associated with the theory was noted. The implied longitudinal nature of commitment formation was noted. Table 2.2 summarizes the commitment formation theories.

Table 2.2
Commitment Formation Theory Summary

Formation Theory	Basic Premise
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Goal or Value Congruence Theory (Hall et al. 1970; Weiner, 1982)	Individuals become committed to the organization to the extent to which the organization supports individuals' central values. (Affective)
Needs Satisfaction Theory (Buchanan, 1974; Patchen, 1970)	Individuals become committed to the extent to which their own needs and desires are being met. (Affective, Continuance)
Reciprocation Theory (Norm of Reciprocity) (Angle & Perry, 1983; Gouldner, 1960)	The extent to which individuals receive help or have rewarding experiences in an organization creates a willingness to reciprocate with commitment. (Affective)
Cost-Benefit Analysis Theory (Inducements to Contributions) (Barnard, 1938; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972)	Employees compare costs and benefits, or ratio of inducements to stay to contributions, the more favorable the comparison or ratio, the more the commitment. (Continuance)
Organizational Support Theory (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa, 1986)	Employees' organizational commitment is formed based on their perception of the organization's commitment to them, demonstrated by Organizational Support of the employee. (Affective)

A Note on Level of Analysis

From a research perspective, level of analysis issues arise when an entity or combination of entities, such as individuals, groups, departments, or organizations, is selected. Furthermore, levels of analysis issues become particularly salient when data collected at a lower level are thought capable of being aggregated to represent a higher level, such as groups (Ostroff, 1993). Research on culture and climate (concepts akin to organizational family support and perceived supervisory family support, as noted earlier in this review) frequently aggregate from the individual to the group-level of analysis. A definition of climate is the common set of perceptions of individuals (Koys and DeCotiis, 1991). Perceived organizational family support and perceived supervisory family support can be similarly hypothesized to exist at the group-level. That is, perceived organizational family support, as a climate variable, is conceptualized as existing at the group-level. Perceived supervisory family support is conceptualized as being the general behaviors of the supervisor towards the whole work group, existing at the supervisory group-level. At least one study examines the cross-level effect of a group variable (unit performance) on individual commitment (Mathieu, 1991). Commitment has also been hypothesized to exist at the group level (Mellor, Mathieu, & Swim, 1994) although, in general, the concept of group variables in commitment is not widely studied (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Researchers are often interested in comparing correlations between variables at different levels of analysis (e.g., individual and organizational) to determine if the same relationships hold across the levels (e.g., George, 1990). Some researchers have begun to hypothesize that stronger relationships between variables may be found at higher levels of analysis (e.g., Schneider, 1985), for a variety of reasons. Some researchers have found stronger correlations at the organizational level (compared to the individual-level) have been found between climate perceptions and context, demographics, and structure (Jones & James, 1979); between satisfaction and performance (Ostroff, 1992); between commitment and turnover (Angle & Perry, 1981); and between job attitudes and stress (Schmitt, Colligan, & Fitzgerald, 1980). More recently, group lateness and group absence have been studied as functions of climate (Blau, 1995; Markham & McKee, 1995). The rationale for this follows.

Ostroff (1993) theorizes that the general hypothesis that the correlations between two variables will hold or be stronger at the group-level than at the individual-level can be interpreted two ways. First is the notion of homology, second is the notion of group processes and interdependencies.

Homology exists when the relationship between two variables is the same at the individual and group-levels of analysis, assuming that the constructs are appropriate to conceptualize at the higher level (George, 1990; Ostroff, 1993). The same processes operate at both levels of analysis, and individual linkages and organizational linkages

parallel each other. Family support is a climate variable that should affect group commitment, much the way it is an individual perception that affect individual commitment.

Additionally, it can be thought that there may be different processes that operate at the two levels (or even, that different constructs are represented, as in the case of individual psychological climate vs. work group climate). A stronger correlation may exist at the organizational level because the results of interdependence could be captured in the organizational variables (Ostroff, 1993). In the case of a family supportive climate, there may be better group communication, group norms of understanding and cooperation, and mutual trust, which all work interdependently to enhance the relationship between family support and commitment.

Theoretically, the notion of support in the individual-level of analysis is treated as the individual's perception of the organizational and supervisory support available to them to help balance their work and family lives. At the group-level, we theorize that there exists a climate of support in which the group of employees work. According to the commitment theories reviewed earlier and, if homology exists, this in turn should lead to a group commitment, or sense of company spirit, loyalty, or morale among members of the group. If there are further group level processes at work, there may be even stronger relationships at this level.

Researchers have also looked at the influence of group-level variables on

individual-level variables (e.g. Tesluk, Farr, Mathieu, & Vance, 1995: effects of participative climate on individual training generalization; Blau, 1995: group lateness on individual lateness; Mellor, Mathieu, & Swim, 1994: union structural features on individual's commitment). Cross-level models serve to specify effects that phenomena at one level have on that of another (Rousseau, 1985). They most often describe the influences group, unit, or organization factors have on individual behavior or attitudes (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994).

Summary of the Literature Review

Overview

This chapter reviewed the following:

- (a) the theories and empirical findings associated with organizations offering organizational family support, including:
 - ◆ the results of specific family-friendly program studies,
 - ◆ work/family conflict theory and studies (organizational family support is aimed at reducing this conflict), and
 - ◆ social support theories and studies of organizational family support as defined as a type of social support;
- (b) commitment formation theory as it relates to antecedents such as organization's policies and practices;
- (c) Additionally some relevant theories and findings concerning -level of analysis

were noted.

Shortcomings of the Research to Date

The literature reviewed above reveals a need to hypothesize more globally about how organizational family support has an impact on individuals in the organization. Single program studies (such as the impact of child-care centers etc.) are too limited in scope. Often the most popular dependent variables (turnover, absence, and tardiness) are spuriously affected by short-term influences. Using the variable of work/family conflict is limited in that it does not account for the possibility of having an impact on employees without family demands (i.e., the fact that these employees, too, get a message of commitment from the firm when it shows organizational family support). Nor does it get at the originating sources causing the conflict, such as policies and family demands.

Clearly there is a need to approach the problem systematically and comprehensively. Research must also demonstrate the value that family support programs can add to the organization's bottom line (Conference Board, 1993).

The literature on organizational commitment formation and support (especially by separating organizational and supervisory support) theories held a lot of promise for formulating a new approach to looking at the impact of organizational family support on employees. The intuitive notion of a relationship between family-friendly policies and commitment, that many employers and advocates expressed in the introduction, is

supported theoretically in the literature on commitment formation and supervisory and organizational support.

This literature review has laid a foundation for a theoretical framework that can solidly predict the formation of commitment based on organizational and supervisory family support.

CHAPTER THREE

Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

This chapter describes the theoretical framework used to guide this research, provides rationales for the variables to be included in the model, and presents specific hypotheses that were tested in this study.

Study Goals

The main goal of the plan and research is to assess the impact of perceived organizational family support on commitment, and the work outcomes commonly associated with commitment. This study goes a step beyond examining the impact of specific programs (or even groups of programs) by actually measuring the level of global family support perceived by the individual. That is, it looks at how family-friendly the employee (and collectively, employees) think the organization is in general. Because supervisory family support has been shown in the literature to be a related, but distinct, variable, it is also examined

The link between perceived organizational support and commitment, as reviewed in the literature, does not presume actual conflict or stress reduction, but rather the perception of the support that is available to the employee. While this support may be geared to reduce conflict and stress, it is not the actual reduction of stress that we are interested in, but rather the perception of available support. Instead of looking at work/family conflict and stress as variables, the goal of the study is to examine the

perception of the support designed to reduce conflict and stress by achieving work and family life balance.

The commitment formation theories support the idea that all employees, regardless of their family situations, will be affected by the knowledge that their organization provides support. As this support becomes more salient, it is expected that the impact will be stronger. Therefore, another goal of this study is to see if family demands and the sex of the individual (both expected to increase the saliency of perceived family support) actually moderate the relationship between perceived family support and commitment.

The Independent Variables

A Note on Perception

As the old marketing adage goes, "perception is reality". The amount of support employees have available to them (and how this influences their commitment) is a matter of what they perceive is available to them. It is their perception of support that is the foundation of the commitment formation theories that form the basis for this dissertation's theory. Perceived organizational family support, and perceived supervisory support, are the constructs of the study.

Perceived Organizational Family Support

Organization Family Support (what we have, until now, called "family friendliness") is a global concept of all the work/family policies and practices; it is the

"big picture" of these policies and practices that communicate the message that the organization is interested in helping the employee to achieve a viable balance between family and work life. By recognizing that employees have other demands (that they are parents or have elder dependents) and offering programs designed to help them combine their family roles with their organizational roles, an organization shows employees that they belong to a network of communication and mutual obligation. At the individual level, this is a psychological climate construct. At the group-level, this is an organizational climate construct.

Support has been theorized as a multi-faceted construct. Family support might be thought of this way also. House (1981) conceptually divided support into three categories: emotional, instrumental, and informational. Emotional support is seen as understanding, empathy, and encouragement. Instrumental support is practical, tangible aid. Informational support (which is tangible also) is providing actual helpful information, or making information about other types of support available. This division is similar to Greenhaus and Parasuraman's (1986) and Wethington & Kessler's (1986) definitions which are respectively: (a) support as a notion of reducing conflict by providing accurate information (informational), greater flexibility (emotional), and support services (instrumental), (b) a definition of support which includes the actual transfer of advice (informational), aid (instrumental), and affect (emotional). All of these theories indicate the appropriateness of three-facet

conceptualization of perceived organizational family support. This will be useful in operationalizing the family support constructs.

The construct of Perceived Organizational Family Support (POFS) is conceptualized as the employee's perception of the assistance available from the organization in the form of instrumental support, informational support, and emotional support.

There are many ways that organizations can demonstrate family support for employees through family-oriented policies that translate into practices. Some examples within each of the three facets of support are: (a) instrumental - adequate leave programs, assistance programs (either provisional or financial for child care and elder care), actual policies that provide flexibility (flex-time or comp-time), (b) informational - referral programs (providing information to help find adequate care), actual communications about family-friendly policies and programs, (c) emotional - encouragement (which might exist in mission statements or other stated goals of family-friendliness), flexibility (in scheduling, or in informal time for outside concerns such as occasional coming in late/leaving early for emergencies), and acceptance (meaning no penalty for having family demands and utilizing company policies and practices).

Perceived Supervisory Family Support

Support is especially salient at the immediate supervisory level. As noted in the

literature review, an organization can have every policy and program in the world, but if an employee's supervisor either does not convey the information properly (or limits the usage of it), the expected outcomes might not materialize. A direct supervisor or superior is seen as a primary agent of the organization. Kottke and Sharafinski (1988) noted that employees, further, differentiate support from the organization as a whole and that of their immediate supervisor: both would be important in terms of being supportive. The extent that a supervisor shows flexibility toward combining organization and family demands (scheduling, time off for sick dependents, occasional coming in late/leaving early for emergencies) and acceptance (meaning no penalty for having family demands and utilizing company policies and practices), would constitute supervisory family support.

Conceptually, supervisory support is most similar to emotional support. This is because this is the type of support that a supervisor is most likely to provide. Supervisory and the emotional facet of perceived organizational support are still conceptually distinct. Organizational emotional support could exist in the absence of supervisory support, or vice-a-versa.

The Moderators

Family Demands

Family demand is a construct related to the demands an individual experiences

from the family domain. It has several facets that together make up total family demands.

Number and age of children

It is recognized that employees without children can still suffer work/family conflict. The degree is usually less severe, though Pleck, Staines, and Lang (1980) reported the results of a national survey which showed that parents experience conflict between work and family more than others. Keith and Schafer (1980) found that having more children at home increased conflict. Others have shown that parents of younger children experience more conflict than parents of older children (Fernandez, 1986; Greenhaus & Kopelman, 1981). There is also some evidence that the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational support is moderated by the presence of children. For example, Grover and Crooker (1995) found that availability of child-care information was more strongly related to organizational commitment for parents than for non-parents.

As Kammerman (1980) pointed out, working parents do not necessarily make only one care arrangement per child, and these plans are often varied and changing. Thus, a source of family demands can come from a configuration of different ages such as infants (under 2), toddlers and pre-schoolers (2-5), and school age (6-12). In a study of child care assistance needs and work-related outcomes, Kossek (1990) theorized that having at least two children in any combination of the three groups - - a mixed-

dependent profile - - was expected to have the most detrimental effects. This was followed by infants only (given the high demands of babies and being first time parents), employees with only toddler/preschoolers were likely to be next, and employees with only school-age children the least.

Recent work on absenteeism has developed a "kinship responsibility scale" that is based on a composite score of the number of children under age seven living at home, the number of individuals (excluding children) who are in need and place demands on one's time on a regular basis, and whether the respondent is married (Brooke & Price, 1989; Curry, Wakefield, Prince, & Mueller, 1985; Price & Mueller, 1981, 1986). Instead of just counting family data or assuming that dependent care responsibilities end when a child enters elementary school full-time (i.e., there are, rather, the responsibilities of before- and after-school, days off, sickness etc.), it is theorized that the juggling of multiple care arrangements is an important negative influence (Kossek, 1990).

Marital status/employment configuration

Marital status and employment configuration is another aspect of family demands. Spouse or partner support has been found to help employees cope with and manage work/family conflict (Ganster, Fusilier, & Mayes, 1986). Single parents lack this and may have no one to share the burden with. Dual-working couples have a spouse but have less support and time than the two-parent household with one employed. Thus,

single parents are likely to experience the most family demands, dual-worker employees the second most, and employees who are part of a two-parent household the least. It was suggested by Kossek (1990) that this is not as finely-tuned an approach as it could be. Further, the amount of responsibility an individual has for each aspect of home and dependent care varies from the individual doing it all to the spouse or hired help doing it all. This should also be accounted for.

Sex of the Individual

There is some evidence that, aside from usually having a higher share of family demands (as expressed in responsibility for care arrangements and percentage of household duties), that women may experience more problems than men even if one holds the amount of demands steady. Many recent studies have indicated that work/family conflict has a differential impact on men and women (DiBenedetto & Kehr Tittle, 1990; Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991; Duxbury & Higgins 1991), with women suffering more negative outcomes from increased work/family conflict. For instance, Duxbury and Higgins (1991) found that this has been attributed to gender expectations that lead women to experience more responsibility and guilt in the family domain. When comparing a male and female with the same amount of demands, a female is likely to feel more pressure and guilt associated with family demands (Gutek et al., 1991). In this study the term "sex" is used as opposed to "gender". Sex is the biological term referring to male or female. Gender refers

behaviorally to degrees of femininity and masculinity.

The Dependent Variables

Organizational Commitment: Affective and Continuance

Organizational commitment, both affective and continuance, are the two immediate dependent variables. Value or affective commitment is the strength of the individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulain, 1974). Continuance commitment is the desire to stay with an organization as a result of individual-organizational transactions where the view is continuation of membership because of the individual's vested interest in the organization (Becker, 1960, Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

Work Outcomes

One advantage of focusing on commitment is the relationship between commitment and certain bottom-line outcomes. Pfeffer (1981) was disturbed by the fact that so much of organizational research is devoted to individual attitudes at the expense of behavior. There would be value added to this research if the dependent variables were behavioral. Therefore, in addition to hypothesizing about commitment, a further step is taken. Several second-level dependent variables will be looked at because of their prior established links to commitment (see literature review): absenteeism, tardiness, turnover, performance, and job search behavior.

Much of the current interest in organizational commitment is attributable to its

theoretical and empirical link (Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) to turnover. Absenteeism and tardiness have also been linked to commitment. These are outcomes that organizations have a definite interest in improving.

Measuring actual turnover alone may not capture the full scope of the potential problem (that is, people who want to get out of their situations may not be able to right now, but will when the opportunity arises). In addition to turnover, we can look at intentions (to stay or quit). However, theory and evidence indicate that job search behavior is a more immediate precursor of voluntary turnover than are intentions (Kopelman, Rovenpor, & Millsap, 1992).

The Theoretical Framework

As illustrated in Figure 3.1, perceived organizational family support and perceived supervisory family support (as expressed by flexibility and acceptance shown by the supervisor) are antecedents to both affective and continuance commitment for individuals. This relationship is moderated by family demands and sex of the individual. Both affective and continuance commitment are seen as antecedents to tardiness, absenteeism, turnover, performance, and job search behavior. The rationale and further details for these relationships are presented in the statement of hypotheses.

Statement of Hypotheses and Rationales

The following section presents the theoretical rationale used in constructing the hypotheses examined in this research followed by the hypotheses themselves. There

are ten basic hypotheses that are examined in a variety of ways. They are presented in four sections, according to how they are examined. The first grouping is the hypotheses for the *individual* level of analysis (Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10). The second set is for the *group* level of analysis (1a, 2a, 3a, 4a, 5a, 6a, and 7a). The third is a set of research questions (1b, 2b, 3b, 4b, and 5b,) concerning the comparison of group and individual relationships (e.g., is the relationship stronger at the group level than at the individual level). A final set of research questions (2c-5c) examine a cross-level analysis, between group-level independent variables and individual-level dependent variables.

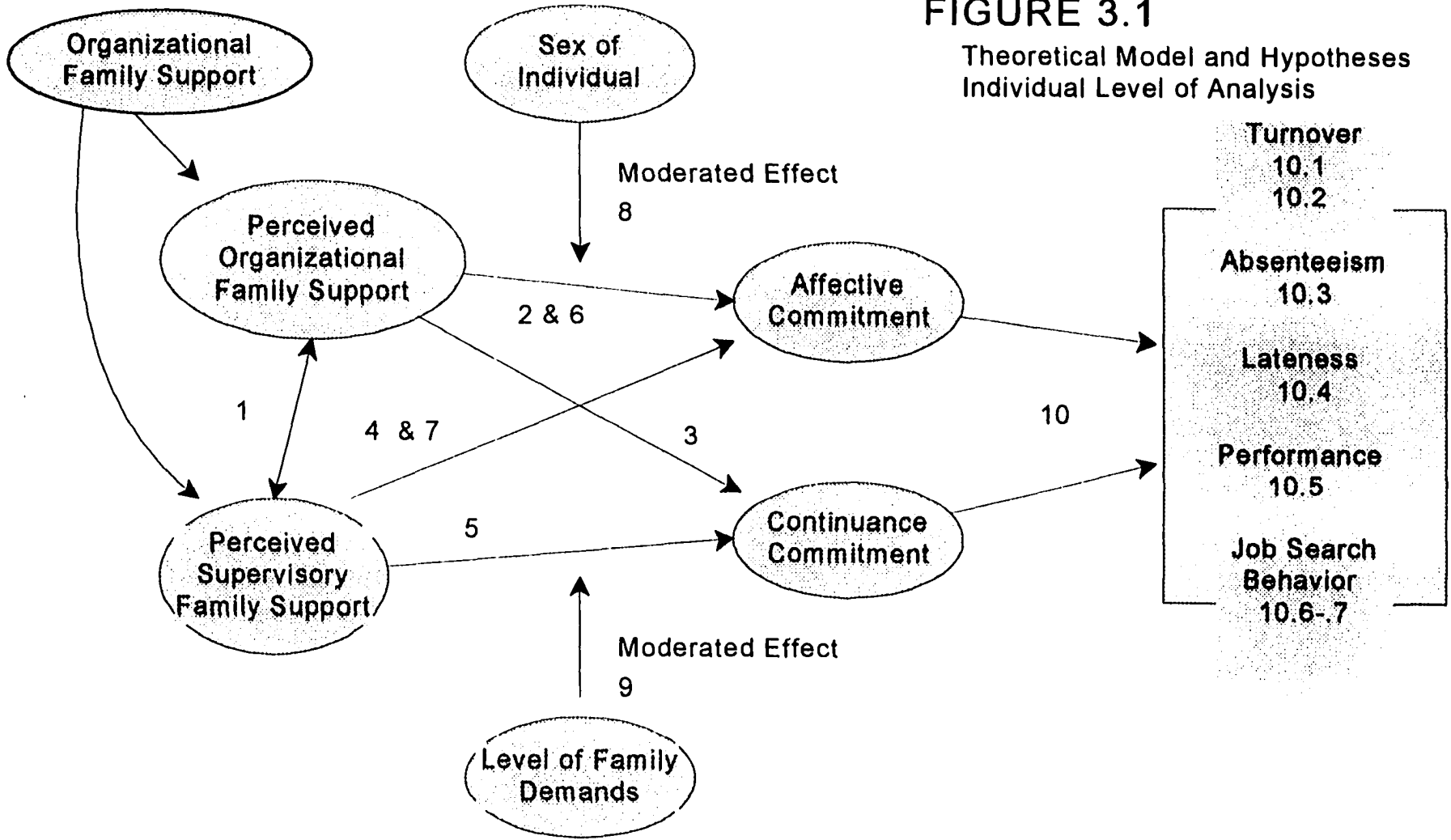
Individual Level of Analysis

The hypotheses for the individual level are presented in the schematic in Figure 3.1.

Hypothesis 1: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to perceived supervisory family support across individuals.

Organizational family support/supervisory family support

Rationale 1: Supervisors act as agents of the organization and are seen as such by employees. As all employees are, supervisors are subject to the organization's policies and practices. There is often supervisory training conducted by the organization which reinforces the organization's policies and practices. It would therefore be hypothesized that:



Perceived organizational family support/commitment

Longitudinal Rationale for Hypotheses 2, 3, 4, and 5: In the commitment formation literature review it was noted that the relationships between support and commitment (affective and continuance) are implicitly viewed as stable over time. Most of the commitment formation theories are based on the individual assessing the levels of the firm's inducements, benefits, needs satisfaction, values and goals, and level of commitment to the employees. Perceived support represents all of these (i.e., it's a benefit, it's an inducement, it represents values and goals of the organization, it shows commitment to the employee), and its relationship to commitment is assumed as, theoretically, stable over time. There is, however, little empirical support of this. This study seeks to examine this by testing a set of longitudinal hypotheses based on the assumption of stability of the support/commitment relationships.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to affective commitment across in individuals.

Hypothesis 2 (longitudinal): Over time (one to two years), perceived organizational family support will be positively related to affective commitment across individuals.

Rationale 2: Perceived organizational family support is related to perceived organizational support (POS) (Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro, 1990) inasmuch as it is the organization's support and acceptance of the employee's family situation. As positive discretionary actions, this support leads employees to believe

Figure 3.2

Commitment Theory	Basic Premise/(Type of commitment)	Relationship to Family Support
Goal or Value Congruence Theory (Hall et al. 1970; Weiner, 1982)	Individuals become committed to the organization to the extent to which the organization supports the individuals' central values. (Affective)	Employees that value the successful combination of work and family see family support as evidence that the organization holds similar values.
Needs Satisfaction Theory (Buchanan, 1974; Patchen, 1970)	Individuals become committed to the extent to which their own needs and desires are being met. (Affective, Continuance)	Employees with family demands have the need and desire to combine work and family life; family support helps to meet these.
Reciprocation Theory (Norm of Reciprocity) (Angle & Perry, 1983; Gouldner, 1960)	The extent to which individuals receive help or have rewarding experiences in an organization creates a willingness to reciprocate with commitment. (Affective)	In return for help, in the form of family support, employees form commitment to the organization.
Cost-Benefit Analysis Theory (Inducements to Contributions) (Barnard, 1938; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972)	Employees compare costs and benefits, or ratio of inducements to stay to contributions, the more favorable the comparison or ratio, the more the commitment. (Continuance)	Family support, as seen as a benefit or an inducement to stay, promotes commitment formation.
Organizational Support Theory (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa, 1986)	Employees' organizational commitment is formed based on their perception of the organization's commitment to them, demonstrated by Organizational Support of the employee. (Affective)	Family support is a type of organizational support demonstrating an organization's commitment to employees.

that the organization values the contributions of employees with family demands and cares about their (and their families') well being. As a parallel to perceived organizational support, perceived organizational family support, too, would be theorized to cause affective commitment. Figure 3.2 summarizes the linkages between OFS and commitment.

Most of our commitment formation theories are based on the individual assessing the levels of the firm's inducements, benefits, needs satisfaction, values and goals, and level of commitment to the employees. As is illustrated in Figure 3.2, several commitment formation theories influence the rationale of this hypothesis:

- **Goal or Value Congruence Theory** (Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970; Weiner, 1982) which states that individuals become committed (affectively) to the organization to the extent to which the organization supports the individuals' central values. As to its relationship to family support, employees that value the successful combination of work and family see family support as evidence that the organization holds similar values.

- **Needs Satisfaction Theory** (Buchanan, 1974; Patchen, 1970) holds that individuals become committed (affectively) to the extent to which their own needs and desires are being met. Employees with family demands have the need and desire to combine work and family life; family support helps to meet these.

- **Reciprocation Theory (Norm of Reciprocity)** (Angle & Perry, 1983; Gouldner,

1960) holds that the extent to which individuals receive help or have rewarding experiences in an organization creates a willingness to reciprocate with commitment (affective). Thus, in return for "help", in the form of family support, employees form commitment to the organization.

- **Organizational Support Theory** (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa, 1986) proposes that employees' organizational commitment (Affective) is formed based on their perception of the organization's commitment to them, demonstrated by Organizational Support of the employee. Family support is a type of organizational support demonstrating an organization's commitment to employees.

This may be seen as being conceptually related to all of these factors

Longitudinal Rationale: In this framework the relationships between OFS and commitment (affective and continuance) are viewed as stable over time, (see preface rationale).

Hypothesis 3: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 3 (longitudinal): Over time (one to two years), perceived organizational family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across individuals.

Rationale 3: Figure 3.2 also summarizes the linkages between Perceived Organizational Family Support and continuance commitment:

- **Needs Satisfaction Theory** (Buchanan, 1974; Patchen, 1970), holds that individuals become committed (continuance) to the extent to which their own needs and desires are being met. Employees with family demands have the need and desire to combine work and family life; family support helps to meet these.

- **Cost-Benefit Analysis Theory (Inducements to Contributions)** (Barnard, 1938; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972), proposes that employees compare costs and benefits, or ratio of inducements to stay to contributions, the more favorable the comparison or ratio, the more the continuance commitment. Family support, as seen as a benefit or an inducement to stay, promotes this type commitment formation.

Perceived supervisory support/commitment

Hypothesis 4: Perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to affective commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 4 (longitudinal): Over time (one to two years), perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to affective commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 5: Perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 5 (longitudinal): Over time (one to two years), perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across

individuals.

Rationale 4 & 5: Perceived supervisory family support can also be thought of as related to the notion of perceived organizational support (as well as the concept of general perceived supervisory support), inasmuch as it is the supervisor's support and acceptance of the employee's family situation. As positive discretionary actions, this support leads employees to believe that the supervisor and the organization values the contributions of employees with family demands and cares about their (and their families') well being. As a parallel to POS, it, too, would be theorized to cause both types of commitment, to a different degree.

Most of our commitment formation theories are based on the individual assessing the levels of the firm's inducements, benefits, needs satisfaction, values and goals, and level of commitment to the employees. Like perceived organizational family support, perceived supervisory family support also can be seen as being conceptually related to all of these factors (i.e., it's a benefit, it's an inducement, it represents values and goals of the organization, it shows commitment to the employee).

Additional evidence for the link between supervisory processes and the development of commitment is provided by the Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) theory of leadership, also known as the Leader-Member Exchange (Graen, 1983; Graen & Cashman, 1975). "Negotiating latitude" is the mutual influence strategies that characterize the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship. Graen (1983)

summarizes "negotiating latitude" as, in part, the subordinate's perception of the supervisor's flexibility. This flexibility is a large part of perceived supervisory family support. Higher "negotiating latitude" leads to increased commitment (Graen & Schieman, 1978).

Supervisors are seen as primary agents of the organization, and as such are relied upon heavily for information and feedback. Climate research suggests that the employees are more affected by processes in their immediate environment than by those at the organizational level. Kottke and Sharafinski (1988) reported that subordinates rely more on their direct supervisors for information and support than the organization as a whole.

As noted earlier, organizational variables are probably transmitted to lower levels that have an impact on the employee's work environment. Shoemaker, Snizek, and Bryant (1977) established the superiority of social psychological factors (such as SFS) over structural factors (such as OFS) as a predictor of commitment.

Affective vs. continuance commitment

Hypothesis 6: Perceived organizational family support will be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment across individuals.

Rationale 6: Perceived organizational family support is a comfort that could be difficult to give up; hence, it is an inducement to stay that leads to continuance commitment (which is why we have predicted the positive relationship). However, the

theoretical workings of the perceived organizational family support/organizational commitment relationship is more akin to the commitment theories that are usually based on affective commitment: e.g., Eisenberger, et al. (1986) see affective commitment forming when an individual senses that the organization is committed to them. Supporting this, Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro (1990) found that employees with a higher perceived organizational support reported greater affective attachment to the organization.

Variables representing the process of reciprocation (in the literature review it is shown how OFS does this) have been found to make a more sizable contribution to affective commitment (Angle & Perry, 1983). Organizational family support can also be seen as a type of needs satisfaction, where the need to balance work and family life either exists currently, or potentially. This needs satisfaction has been found to correlate more positively with affective commitment (Wittig, 1987). Further support for this stronger relationship can be found in the goal-congruence literature. If an employee values the successful combination of work and family and sees that the organization does too, this is a type of value congruence. This type of commitment formation is more often associated with the aspect of affective commitment that represents the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Porter et al., 1974).

Hypothesis 7: Perceived supervisory family support will be more positively related to

affective commitment than to continuance commitment across individuals.

Rationale 7: As noted in Rationale 6, more of the commitment theories that have a relevance to OFS are usually associated with affective commitment. Additionally, perceived supervisory family support can be viewed as leader reward behavior (family support can be likened to a positive reinforcement that the supervisor may give). This reward behavior has been positively correlated with satisfaction with the job and the organization (Szilagyi, 1980). Although distinct and different from OC, the constructs of satisfaction and commitment are usually highly correlated. Angle and Perry (1983) found job satisfaction to have a dominant effect on value or affective commitment, and Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) observed that the effects of satisfaction had a lesser importance in predicting continuance commitment. Shoemaker, Snizek, and Bryant (1977) found that social psychological factors (which SFS is) are good predictors of affective commitment.

In the VDL area of research that was cited above, the findings generally point to High Negotiating Latitude status as resulting in strong affective responses and satisfaction with the work (which has been linked to affective commitment) (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982).

A construct related to supervisory support is supervisory relations (Katz & Kahn, 1978; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). This is a measure of the quality of the instrumental relationship between the supervisor and subordinate that includes quality

of communication and encouragement. This, too, has been positively correlated to commitment, specifically affective commitment (Gaertner & Nollen, 1989).

Moderating effect of sex on support commitment relationships.

Hypothesis 8: Sex moderates the support-commitment relationships in the following manner:

Hypothesis 8.1: The positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and affective commitment will be stronger among females than males.

Hypothesis 8.2: The positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and continuance commitment will be stronger among females than males.

Hypothesis 8.3: The positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and affective commitment will be stronger among females than males.

Hypothesis 8.4: The positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and continuance commitment will be stronger among females than males.

Rationale 8: There is some evidence that, aside from usually having a higher share of family demands (as expressed in responsibility for care arrangements and percentage of household duties), women may experience more stress and coping difficulties than men, even if one holds the amount of family demands steady. This has been attributed to gender expectations that lead women to experience more responsibility for the family domain. When comparing a male and female with the same amount of demands, a female is likely to feel more pressure and guilt associated with family

demands (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991). This greater "felt responsibility" would lead to OFS being perceived as more relevant to females as an inducement, benefit et cetera.

Moderating effect of family demands on support commitment relationships

Hypothesis 9: Family demands moderate the support-commitment relationships in the following manner:

Hypothesis 9.1: The higher the family demand the stronger the positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and affective commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 9.2: The higher the family demand the stronger the positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and continuance commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 9.3: The higher the family demand the stronger the positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and affective commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 9.4: The higher the family demand the stronger the positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and continuance commitment across individuals.

Rationale 9: In keeping with the commitment formation theories that were presented

as rationale to the support/commitment hypotheses each of the commitment/support relationships becomes stronger as the relevance to the particular employee grows. The relevance is hinged on the family demand variable. The higher an individual's family demands are, the more organizational family support and supervisory family support becomes relevant as an inducement, a sign of the firm's commitment to the employee, etc. For instance, Grover and Crooker (1995) found that the availability of child care information was related to organizational commitment more for workers with children than for workers without.

Commitment/work outcomes

Hypothesis 10.1: Affective commitment will be negatively related to turnover.

Hypothesis 10.2: Continuance commitment will be negatively related to turnover.

Hypothesis 10.3: Affective commitment will be negatively related to absenteeism.

Hypothesis 10.4: Affective commitment will be negatively related to lateness.

Hypothesis 10.5: Affective commitment will be positively related to performance.

Hypothesis 10.6: Affective commitment will be negatively related to job search behavior.

Hypothesis 10.7: Continuance commitment will be negatively related to job search behavior.

Rationale 10: Much of the current interest in organizational commitment is attributable to its theoretical and empirical link to turnover, absenteeism, tardiness,

and performance. The literature review noted the theories and studies that have linked commitment to lower absenteeism, tardiness, and turnover, and to higher performance (for example: Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

In addition to hypothesizing about actual rates of turnover as a result of the affective and continuance commitment generated, we can also hypothesize about intentions to stay or quit as a link. In the current economic atmosphere, measuring actual turnover may not be indicative of the potential problem (that is, people who want to get out of their situations may not be able to right now, but will when the opportunity arises). There is a value to examining attitudes and behaviors that are precursors to turnover. Job properties and attitudes toward those job properties have typically predicted turnover with attitudes or reactions to the job properties being superior predictors (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). This influence on turnover, however, is often indirect (Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981). A recently proposed conceptual framework (Kopelman, Rovenpor, & Millsap, 1992) shows that job search behavior a more immediate precursor of voluntary turnover.

Additionally, Pfeffer (1983) is disturbed by the fact that so much of organizational research is devoted to individual attitudes (like commitment) at the expense of behavior. There would be value added to this research if behavioral variables were explored.

The following set of hypotheses set out to replicate previous research in the field of

commitment/outcome relationships:

Group level of Analysis

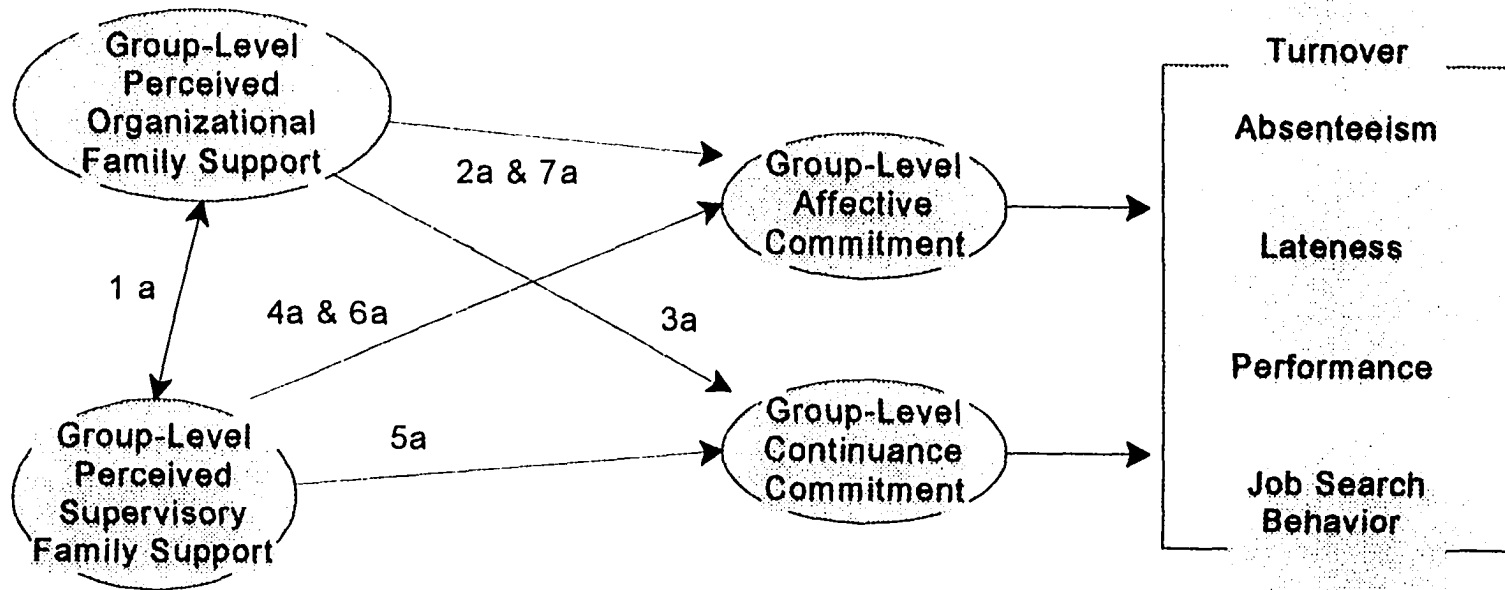
The hypotheses for the group-level are presented in the schematic in Figure 3.3.

The next group of hypotheses parallel the support/commitment relationships of the first set, but the predictions are made at the group level. From a research perspective, level of analysis issues arise when one selects an entity or combination of entities such as individuals, groups, departments, or organizations. Furthermore, levels of analysis issues become particularly salient when data collected at a lower level are thought capable of being aggregated to represent a higher level - such as groups. Research on culture and climate (concepts akin to organizational family support and perceived supervisory family support) frequently aggregate from the individual to the group level of analysis, indeed a definition of climate is the common set of perceptions of individuals (Kouzes and Posner, 1993). Perceived organizational family support and perceived supervisory family support are hypothesized to exist at the group level. That is, perceived organizational family support, as a climate variable, is conceptualized as existing at the group level. Perceived supervisory family support is conceptualized as being the general behaviors of the supervisor towards the whole work group, existing at the supervisory group level.

Researchers are often interested in comparing correlations between variables

FIGURE 3.3

Theoretical Model
and Hypotheses
Group Level of Analysis



at different levels of analysis (e.g., individual and organizational) to determine if the same relationships hold across the levels (for instance George, 1990). Some researchers have begun to hypothesize that stronger relationships between variables may be found at higher levels of analysis (e.g., Schneider, 1985). Indeed, some research has found stronger correlations at the group or organizational level (compared to the individual level) between several related constructs: e.g., climate perceptions and context, demographics, and structure (Jones & James, 1979); between satisfaction and performance (Ostroff, 1992); between commitment and turnover (Angle & Perry, 1981); and between job attitudes and stress (Schmitt, Colligan, & Fitzgerald, 1980). More recently group lateness and group absence have been studied as functions of climate (Blau, 1995; Markham & McKee, 1995). In general group variables have not been investigated widely in commitment research (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Ostroff (1993) theorized that the general hypothesis that the correlations between two variables will hold or be stronger at the group level than at the individual level can really be interpreted two ways. First is the notion of homology, second is the notion of group processes and interdependencies.

Homology exists when the relationship between two variables is the same at the individual and group levels of analysis, assuming that the constructs are appropriate to conceptualize at the higher level (Ostroff, 1993; George, 1990). Homology would

predict that relationships are of similar strength at two different levels. The same processes operate at both levels of analysis, and individual linkages and organizational linkages parallel each other. In the hypotheses presented here (1a-5a), there is the assumption that this is true. Family support is a climate variable that should affect group commitment, much the way it is an individual perception that affect individual commitment.

Additionally, it can be thought that different processes operate at the two levels (or even, that different constructs are represented, as in the case of individual psychological climate vs. work group climate). A stronger correlation may exist at the group level because the results of interdependence could be captured in the organizational variables (Ostroff, 1993). In the case of a family supportive climate, there may be better group communication, group norms of understanding and cooperation, and mutual trust, which all work interdependently to enhance the relationship between family support and commitment. There was insufficient theory in the literature to substantiate making these types of hypotheses. Since relevant data were unavailable, the potential relationships were posed as research questions. This is the second set of statements in this section (1b-5b).

Theoretically, the notion of support in the individual level of analysis was treated as the individual's perception of the organizational and supervisory support available to them to help balance their work and family lives. At the group level we theorize

that there exists a climate of support in which the group of employees work.

According to the commitment theories reviewed earlier, and if homology exists, this in turn should lead to a group commitment, or sense of company spirit, loyalty, or morale among members of the group.

These group-level hypotheses are not meant to supplant the individual-level ones. Those relationships are primary in understanding how an individual responds to support. Rather it is hoped that additional positive information of the work-group level relationships will set the stage for further research into those processes that might be at work.

Hypothesis 1a: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to perceived supervisory family support across groups.

Hypothesis 2a: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to affective commitment across groups.

Hypothesis 3a: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across groups.

Hypothesis 4a: Perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to affective commitment across groups.

Hypothesis 5a: Perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across groups.

Hypothesis 6a: Perceived organizational family support will be more positively

related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment across groups.

Hypothesis 7a: Perceived supervisory family support will be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment across groups.

Individual vs. Group Level of Analysis

As mentioned earlier, in addition to homology (the concept of parallel processes at the individual and group level) there is the possibility of different processes operating at the two levels (or even, that different constructs are represented, as in the case of individual psychological climate vs. work group climate). It is possible that a stronger correlation may exist at the group level than at the individual level because the results of interdependence could be captured in the organizational variables (Ostroff, 1993). For instance, there may be group norms at work that enhance and reinforce relationships between variables. In the case of a family supportive climate, there may be better group communication, group norms of understanding and cooperation, and mutual trust, that all work interdependently to enhance the relationship between family support and commitment. There was insufficient theory in the literature to substantiate making these types of hypotheses. The potential relationships were therefore posed as research questions.

Research Question 1b: Is perceived organizational family support more positively related to perceived supervisory family support across groups, than across individuals?

Research Question 2b: Is perceived organizational family support more positively related affective commitment across groups, than across individuals?

Research Question 3b: Is perceived organizational family support more positively related to continuance commitment across groups, than across individuals?

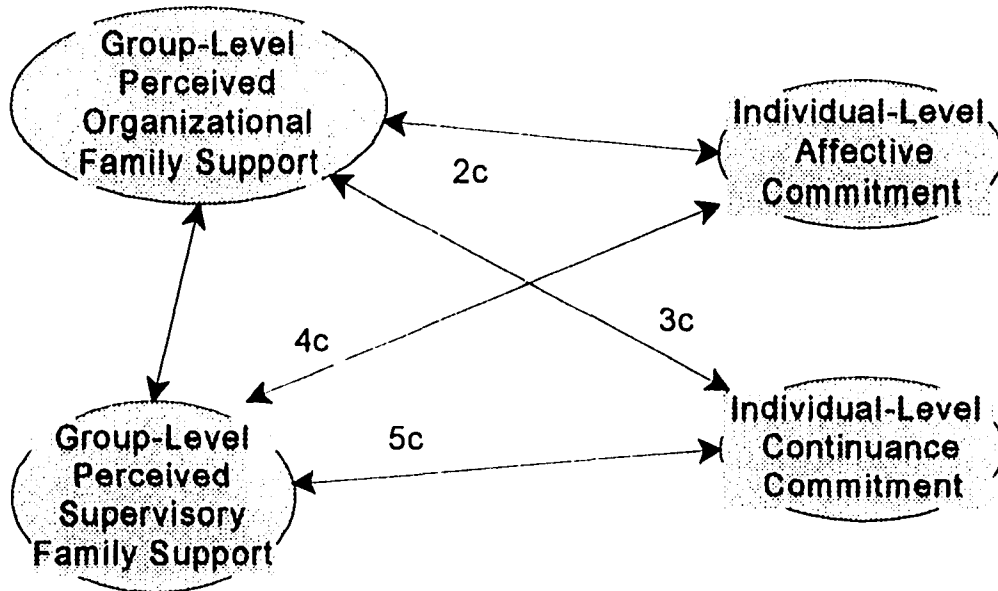
Research Question 4b: Is perceived supervisory family support more positively related to affective commitment, between groups, than across individuals?

Research Question 5b: Is perceived supervisory family support more positively related to continuance commitment across groups, than across individuals?

Cross-Level Analysis

The hypotheses for the cross-level are presented in the schematic in Figure 3.4. The last group of research questions parallel the support/commitment relationships of the previous set, but the predictions are made cross-level, from the group-level support variables to the individual-level commitment variables. As noted earlier, research on culture and climate (concepts akin to organizational family support and perceived supervisory family support) are frequently aggregated from the individual to the group level of analysis. Indeed a definition of climate is the common set of perceptions of individuals (Koys and DeCotiis, 1991). Perceived organizational family support and perceived supervisory family support are hypothesized to exist at the group level. That is, perceived organizational family support, as a climate variable, is conceptualized as existing at the group level. Perceived supervisory

FIGURE 3.4
Theoretical Model
and Research Questions
Cross-Level Analysis



family support is conceptualized as being the general behaviors of the supervisor towards the whole work group, existing at the supervisory group level. This climate not only has an effect on the group as a whole (as in group commitment), but it also has an effect on the individual. It is a group-level variable (climate of organizational support as perceived by the group) having an effect on the individual's commitment. A group level climate of commitment may also influence individual level perception of support, so a reverse cross-level could also be true.

Researchers have looked at the influence of group-level variables on individual-level variables in a variety of studies (e.g. Tesluk, Farr, Mathieu, & Vance, 1995 - effects of participative climate on individual training generalization; Mellor, Mathieu, & Swim, 1994 - union structural features on individual's commitment). Cross-level models serve to specify effects that phenomena at one level have on that of another (Rousseau, 1985). They most often describe the influences group, unit, or organization factors have on individual behavior or attitudes (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994).

At the group level we theorize that there exists a climate of support in which the group of employees work. The individual-level hypotheses are based on individual perceptions of support being associated with individual commitment. The group-level hypotheses are based on a group-level or climate of support being associated with a group-level commitment. At this level, drawing again upon the commitment

formation literature, we are asking if the group or climate variable affects the individual-level commitment. Mathieu (1991) looked at commitment of individuals as influenced by unit cohesion and performance by examining an aggregated individual assessment as correlated to individual commitment. There was insufficient theory in the literature to substantiate making these types of hypotheses. The potential relationships were therefore posed as research questions.

Research Question 2c: Is group-level perceived organizational family support positively related to individual affective commitment? Is the reverse also true (group commitment to individual support)?

Research Question 3c: Is group-level perceived organizational family support positively related to individual continuance commitment? Is the reverse also true?

Research Question 4c: Is group-level perceived supervisory support positively related to individual affective commitment? Is the reverse also true?

Research Question 5c: Is group-level perceived supervisory support positively related to individual continuance commitment? Is the reverse also true?

CHAPTER FOUR

Method

Introduction

Two factors make it difficult to draw conclusions about the relationship of organizational practices and commitment. These are the reliance on individual reports of both commitment and other variables of interest, and the difficulty of drawing samples from a large number of organizations. In the first instance, many studies of commitment potentially suffer from a response-response bias. In a typical commitment study, respondents are asked to provide self-reports of their level of commitment and other antecedent or consequent variables. In addition, because such studies sample subjects from a single or few organizations, many studies are unable to investigate differences in policies and practices across firms. Thus, a large sample of firms is desirable to ensure adequate variation in practices.

The present study is designed with the intent to minimize common method bias that can be problematic in survey-based studies (Abrahamson, 1983) It was also designed to include a large number of organizations. Therefore, the data were collected from two sources: individuals and organizations. At the individual level, data were collected for three individuals within each of 106 work groups so that we would have the ability to analyze their individual reports of organizational and supervisory support for agreement. Whenever possible, the actual organizations provided written

information on policies (representing the instrumental and, partly, the informational components of support).

Procedure

Data Collection from Individuals

The original plan was to enlist the aid of full-time employed graduate students in the Baruch College, City University of New York graduate business programs. Faculty members were contacted directly by the researcher. Individual instructors were solicited for permission to visit their evening classes during regular hours to request volunteers. A standardized description of the research was presented to solicit student participation. Neither this description, nor any of the written materials revealed the substantive hypotheses. Participation was voluntary and the answers were kept confidential.

Students who met the qualifications (of working full-time for more than a year at an organization with more than 50 employees) were asked to take a packet of three questionnaires. They were to fill out one themselves. They were then asked to administer questionnaires to at least two full-time co-workers who shared the same immediate supervisor, and who had also been with the organization for at least a year. They were requested, when possible, to ask a male and female, and to select people having diverse family demands.

The students administered a survey packet that included a questionnaire with a

battery of scales (see Appendix A). The following scales appeared in this fixed sequential order: commitment measures first, job search behavior index, absenteeism, tardiness, performance, Perceived Organizational Family Support and Perceived Supervisory Family Support, and a set of biographic items from which family demands was calculated. The contact student filled out the same survey, and completed a brief information sheet about the organization. The three individually-sealed packets were to be brought in to the next class meeting to be returned to the researcher.

A cover letter giving instructions asked the participants to fill out the survey in sequential order, and not to go back and change any answers. The fixed sequential ordering of the packet was intended to mitigate against one form of response bias: the problem of the subject being sensitized to the area of study. Potentially, this sensitivity could lead subjects to basing their commitment answers on their satisfaction with family programs or supervisory support, in order to remain consistent.

As planned, the researcher secured permission to visit adult business classes, during mid-semester (after the initial flurry of class activity, but before the final stages of paper/project completion and final exam worries). The general purpose of the study was explained to potential respondents, along with a few notes about the background of the researcher. Any details about the variables being studied or hypotheses being

made were avoided to minimize influencing a participant's answers.

The process was explained to the students. Not only were they being asked to fill out a questionnaire, but they would need to ask two or more co-workers, who shared the same supervisor as themselves, to complete a questionnaire. It was also noted that only full-time employees of organizations with more than fifty employees, who had been at their place of employment over a year would be eligible. They were then invited to take a survey packet. The packet contained a cover letter to the participating student, which included instructions and a request for information about their organization. In the packet were three envelopes that contained a cover letter to the participant, a return address label, and the survey. The cover letter instructed participants to complete the survey, fill out the return address label (for a follow-up survey), seal both into the envelope supplied, and return it to the co-worker. All documents, including complete copies of all surveys used are found in Appendix A.

The graduate classes were revisited two more times, at weekly intervals, to collect the packet and to urge students who had not yet completed the survey collection to do so. On the final visit students who still had outstanding packets were instructed to either leave the packet with their professor, to drop it in a Baruch mailbox, or to mail it to the address provided. All materials had phone numbers for all of the participants to call, in case of confusion.

An initial pretesting of the survey was conducted May 1993, with a subsequent

testing of the survey and collection procedures early in the Fall. During the fall pretesting, two classes were visited. The purpose of this was to get information as to the length of time it took to complete the surveys, difficulties encountered in answering the questions and soliciting co-workers, and the overall impression of the researcher's request. Both pretests yielded suggestions regarding the wording of the items. Students were encouraged to write on the survey instrument any comments which came to mind while they were answering the questions. They were also asked to fill out a brief feedback sheet, telling how long it took to complete, and soliciting further comments. Additionally, students were interviewed orally regarding their impressions of the researcher's presentation, and any difficulties they had in carrying out the requests. Wording of instructions was modified; where possible, survey questions were changed to provide more clarity. The Meyer and Allen (1984) commitment scales evoked many complaints about the wording. As this was only a back-up scale it was decided that major changes would interfere with the ability to make comparisons to prior studies that used the scales.

Data collection began in earnest later in the Fall of 1993. Four Baruch evening MBA classes (each consisting of approximately 25 adult students, most working full time) were approached. Three classes each took approximately ten packets, and returned about half of them. One class was mostly foreign students, who were either unable to work, or worked in organizations too small to be considered. The total for

the semester was sixteen completed, usable packets.

With a goal of 100 completed packets (300 surveys) the process needed to be accelerated, and not necessarily limited to student solicitations. A Manhattan-based parent's group was approached in the early spring semester 1994 and a presentation was made at one of the meetings. This resulted in another ten packets completed, nine of which were usable.

Later in the spring semester of 1994 another five Baruch graduate classes were visited, resulting in a total of seventy packets distributed, and forty-two returned. Of these, thirty-seven were usable. New York University's Stern School of Business, Columbia's continuing education school, and a local adult education group were contacted. NYU would make no provisions for data collection among their classes. Columbia allowed one class to be approached, which resulted in one complete survey. The adult education program took eight packets and returned five, all usable.

Also, in the Spring of 1994 two evening undergraduate classes were visited. Fifty-five packets were distributed and thirty-two were returned. Of these, only twenty-five were usable. SUNY Empire (the school of the New York State University system that specializes in adults returning to school), allowed an evening study group to be visited. This resulted in eight more usable packets returned.

In total, one hundred and ninety-seven packets were distributed. One hundred and twenty-one were returned; one hundred and six were usable, yielding a response rate

of fifty-four percent. Reasons for packets being deemed unusable included: less than two complete surveys in the packet, the organization was too small, the subjects worked there for less than a year, or worked part-time. The one hundred and six usable packets were from ninety-eight separate organizations (several packets were from different subunits of the same organization). The packets each had two, three, or four (mostly three) surveys from individual subjects. There was a total of 310 completed individual surveys.

Data Collection from Individuals: Time Two

In May 1995 a follow-up survey was mailed to all participants who had provided a return address (224 out of 310). The follow-up survey included questions about whether they were still employed at the same organization, and their commitment and job search behavior instruments. Some additional information was requested, but kept to a minimum for the sake of brevity. The survey and cover letter are shown in Appendix A. Included in the package was a stamped return envelope. This mailing resulted in 82 usable surveys, 22 surveys returned undeliverable, making a total of 120 outstanding. These 120 individuals were contacted again in November, 1995, with another entire package containing a stronger (and more pleading) cover letter (Appendix A). This resulted in an additional 16 usable surveys, and 10 returned undeliverable. In total, 98 follow-up surveys were obtained, including 24 subjects who had left their organizations, yielding a response rate of forty-four percent. Those

24 returns of the individuals who had left their organizations were used only for turnover data.

Data Collection from Organizations

The cover sheet of the original survey asked for the name and address of the organization for which the three individuals worked. This was provided for 89 of the 98 organizations. A cover letter explaining the purpose of the study and soliciting the help of the organization's human resources department was drafted. A modified version of the policy questionnaire (the Adapted Family Friendly Index) was enclosed. The modifications consisted of eliminating the questions regarding availability, and rewording some of the questions in order to tailor them for human resource professionals.

By using the part of the original survey that asked specific questions about certain organizational policies, the information collected from the individuals could be verified through an outside source (as another attempt to reduce common method variance). It was hoped that this would permit increased confidence in the individual responses.

Human resource professional association directories were consulted to address the letter to a specific individual (when possible). Return address envelopes were included. In total eighty-seven surveys were sent out (two organizations were discovered to be out of business). When possible, a phone call was made to offer to

conduct the survey over the phone. In all, forty-three surveys were returned completed. One was unusable because the organization's name had been obliterated.

To summarize, data were provided from 310 respondents who comprised 106 work groups of individuals sharing the same supervisor. Ninety-six of these groups consisted of three individuals, one group had four, nine only had two. Due to a coincidental duplication of organizations, ninety-eight separate organizations were represented in the 106 work groups. The eight cases that were duplicates were geographically disparate branches or offices of the same large companies. Supplemental data were gathered from 42 organizations, which employed 140 individuals.

Participants: Individuals

Table 4.1 provides a summary of biographic data for the individuals in this study. The 310 individuals, all full-time employees (a prerequisite of the study) were all employed by their organization for at least a year (another prerequisite of the study). The mean years at work was seven, with a range of one to 37 years. Approximately 50% of the sample was employed by their current organization for one to five years, the other 50% over five years, with 10% over fifteen.

Sixty percent of the sample was female, forty percent male. Fifty-four percent described themselves as "married" or "living with a committed partner." The other 46 percent were without a partner, describing themselves as single (33%), widowed

(1.5%), or divorced (10%). The remaining 1.5% declined to answer. Fifty-six percent of the individuals had no dependent children living with them, 15 percent had one, 25 percent had two or three, and the remaining 4 percent had more. Nineteen percent of the sample had children under the age of six at home. Nineteen percent of the sample were single with dependent children. Eight percent of the sample said they were responsible for dependent adults; respondents with elderly dependents were evenly distributed between men and women.

Fifty-seven percent of the individuals described themselves as managers/professionals/administrators. Nineteen percent were clerical and fifteen percent were technical/semi-professional. Less than two percent were craftsmen or operator/laborers, and the remaining seven percent were listed as other or listed no occupation. The only gender differences were that men were more likely than women to describe their occupation as professional (22% vs. 8%), and women were more likely than men to classify themselves as clerical (25% vs. 9%).

Mean household income was approximately \$63,000. Women had a lower mean than men (~\$60,000 vs ~\$66,000) .

Table 4.1
SUMMARY OF DEMOGRAPHICS FOR SAMPLE

Personal Demographics	Total (N=310)
Sex	
Male	125
Female	185
Marital Status	
Married	141
living w/ committed partner	27
Single/Never Married	102
Divorced/Separated	30
Widowed	5
No Data	5
Living Arrangement	
W/Adult & Dependents	75
W/Adult & No Dependents	93
Alone & Dependents	60
Alone & No Dependents	77
No Data	5
Number of Children	
None	175
One	40
Two	44
Three or More	46
Age of Children	
% W/1+ Children < 6 Yrs.	20%
% W/1+ Children < 6-12 Yrs.	36%
% W/1+ Children < 13+ Yrs.	41%
Years at Work	
1-5	50%
6-10	40%
15+	10%
Occupation	
Professional	42
Manager/Supervisor	71
Administrator	65
Clerical	59
Technical/Semi-pro	47
Other/No Data	26
Household Income	
<\$15,000	5
\$15,001-30,000	46
\$30,001-50,000	81
\$50,001-75,000	75
\$75,001-100,000	44
>\$100,000	49
No Data	10

Participants: Organizations

All organizations were located in the greater New York metropolitan area, with 98 percent of them located in one of the five boroughs (90 percent in Manhattan). Table 4.2 provides a summary of the organizations' characteristics.

Table 4.2

Organizational Category	Number
Location	
Manhattan	88
Other Four Boroughs	8
Long Island	1
Westchester	1
Industry Group	
Banking/Finance	26
Service	25
Government Agency	14
Non-profit	13
Miscellaneous	20
Size	
50-100	41
101-500	15
501-1000	24
1001+	18

Twenty-seven percent of the organizations were banking or finance; another twenty-five percent were service (publishing, insurance, consulting, legal, accounting); fourteen percent were government agencies; thirteen percent were non-profits; five percent declined to provide information; the remaining thirteen percent were miscellaneous for-profit business organizations. In total, 66 percent of the

organizations were for profit.

Forty-five percent of the organizations had more than 1000 employees (many were much bigger), fifteen percent had 500-1000, twenty-five percent were 100-500, and ten percent had 50-100 (having more than 50 employees was a prerequisite for the study).

Measures

The variables in this study were mainly operationalized using standard scales for which adequate construct validity and reliability had been established. Descriptions of each of the measures are provided in this section. A listing of all measures used in this study is provided in Table 4.3. For the organizational support measures developed or modified for this research, evidence of construct validity and reliability was collected and is presented in the results section.

All items in the survey can be found in Appendix A, exactly as they appeared to the respondent. The measures in the survey are ordered in the following manner: commitment scales; Job Search Behavior Index; travel, overtime, absence, lateness, and performance; work/family conflict; Perceived Organizational Family Support; Adapted Family Friendly Index; Perceived Supervisory Family Support; biographic data and family demands. As noted above, this order was selected to minimize the possibility of sensitizing the subjects to the area of study before collecting their commitment and other dependent variable data.

Independent Variables

The independent variables included the measures of both perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support.

Perceived organizational family support.

The first measure of perceived organizational family support was a newly developed perceived organizational support measurement instrument, the ten-item Perceived Organizational Family Support (POFS) scale, which used a seven-point Likert scale for responses. It was theorized that the scale would measure three dimensions of support: informational, instrumental, and emotional (House, 1981). There were other measures of perceived organizational support available, such as the survey of perceived organizational support (SPOS) by McFarlane, Shore, and Tetrick (1991), but they were unidimensional and not specific to family support. Three statements about the organization pertained to each dimension, and there was one general statement regarding relative family-friendliness of the organization. Respondents were asked to record their level of agreement with each statement. The statements were worded so that they referred to the general treatment of employees by the organization as a whole (e.g., "My organization has many programs and policies designed to help employees balance work and family life.") The entire scale can be found in Appendix A. Construct validation efforts (including content validity, criterion-related validity, and factor analysis) are discussed in the next chapter. It was

hoped that this new measure could be used as a tool for organizations to assess the general perceptions of their employees regarding overall family support from the organization.

Another measure of perceived organizational family support was a modification of an instrument developed by the Families and Work Institute, the Family-Friendly Index (FFI). The staff at the institute spent well over a year developing this index. The impetus for developing the index came from the 188 companies interviewed for The corporate reference guide to work-family programs (Galinsky, Friedman, & Hernandez, 1991). During the interviews many of the executives voiced frustration with the lack of a benchmarking tool in the field of work and family. This index presents a menu of descriptions (which was formulated through a checklist) as to various relevant policies and practices. As a measurement tool, the FFI index presents the best programs as practiced, and takes away points each time some feature of a program is missing. A score for any one initiative, therefore, defines how close (or far) it is from the current best practice in the field. There are several primary categories: flexible work arrangements, leaves, financial assistance, dependent care services, and work family stress management. The FFI was designed to be filled out by employers who are aware of minor distinctions that employees may not be. Modifications to the Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI), therefore, included some simplification of details, both in deference to time and comprehensibility. The AFFI

was included in the present questionnaire. If the respondent indicated that a certain program was a company policy, they were then asked to assess the actual availability of it to employees, including any sanctions attached to usage in the organization. The availability was assessed through a 5-point Likert scale. The policies were assigned scores ranging from 5 to 25 points as follows: flextime (10, 15, 20, or 25 depending on how wide the band of time - see instrument in Appendix A), comp-time (15), adoption policy (5), part-time work (15), job-sharing (15), flex-place (25), flexible benefits (5), flexible spending accounts (10), leaves (more than twelve weeks (5), more than six months (10)), childcare discount (10), childcare vouchers (10), childcare and eldercare referral (5, 10, or 15 depending on which of three levels), on-site childcare (25), sick childcare (15), afters school and/or summer camp (25), seminars, support groups, family picnics and sick child days (5 each). The scores were reduced according to the availability in the following manner: fully available (no reduction), partially available (3/4 score), somewhat available (1/2 score), partially unavailable (1/2 score), fully unavailable (no score).

The Modified AFFI (ModAFFI), was the version sent to the human resources professionals of the organizations. This was essentially the same as the AFFI, but without the availability scales and with some minor rewording.

Perceived supervisory family support.

The Perceived Supervisory Family Support (SFS) scale was based on a six-item scale developed by Fernandez (1986) which asked parents to indicate the degree to which supervisors are willing to be flexible and understanding when work/family conflicts arise. This research used a 7-point Likert scale with "7" indicating agreement that a supervisor's behaviors were supportive, and "1" indicating disagreement. This scale was worded to direct the respondent to consider the actions of the supervisor toward all employees (e.g., "My supervisor is very understanding if someone has to leave early or come in late due to a family emergency.")

Moderator Variables

The moderating variables included both family demands and the sex of the individual respondents.

Family demands.

The construct of family demands was meant to include most of the demands that an individual has placed on them from family. Beyond the simple notion of child dependents also included in the construct is adult dependent demands, and the notion of shared responsibility (i.e., how much of the demands of caring for the family and household are yours, and how much is shared by others). The Family Demands variable was measured first by asking biographic questions: marital status, number, ages, and health of all dependents and children. Then the respondent answered

questions pertinent to the amount of responsibility for housework and dependent care, and the amount of help they have at home. Scoring was additive based partially on the 'kinship' instrument (Brooke & Price, 1989; Curry, Wakefield, Prince, Mueller, & McCloskey, 1985; Price & Mueller, 1981, 1986) and partially on the family configuration scoring of Kossek (1990): infants (10), children under twelve (5), children 12-18 (2), elder dependents (5), presence of dependents in two age groups (1), handicapped dependents (10).

Sex.

Sex of the individual was determined by a one item check-off, male/female.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables included both affective and continuance commitment, as well as work outcomes (absence, lateness, turnover, and job search behavior)

Organizational commitment: affective and continuance.

Affective commitment is defined as positive, affective involvement with the organization that expresses itself in the individual's acceptance of the organization's goals, and a strong willingness to put forth effort. Continuance commitment is a more calculative construct based perceived utility of continued participation.

The measures used for each type of commitment were: for affective commitment, the nine items in the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) that address affective or value commitment (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982), and for

continuance commitment, a four-item scale developed by Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972).

Traditionally, a commonly used measure of organizational commitment, is the eighteen-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Despite being widely used, there are sections of the questionnaire that have been criticized in regard to construct dimensionality issues (Tetrick & Farkas, 1988) and potential response bias issues (Schmitt & Stults, 1985). It is also possible that, used in its entirety, the OCQ confounds commitment and its consequences (e.g. intent to leave the organization) (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; McGee & Ford, 1987; Reichers, 1985). The subset of this measure, which measures the affective type of commitment is borrowed from the work done by Wittig (1987). The affective commitment measure is a nine-item scale that also employs a 7-point Likert format, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

As stated above, the nine items that measure affective commitment are a direct subset of the Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulain (1974) organizational commitment scale. Evidence from previous research has indicated that when subjected to factor analytic procedures, the Porter scale yields a two-factor solution reflecting a value commitment and a commitment to stay dimension (e.g., Angle & Perry, 1981). Wittig (1987) established a factor structure for her sample using a principal components analysis with varimax rotation. Nine items loaded on the first factor having a factor

loading of .59 or higher, without having a similarly high loading on any other factor. An examination of the content of those items revealed statements which express an individual's identification with and positive affect for the organization. The previously mentioned problems with the OCQ were due to the confusion of the construct of continuance commitment and the intent to leave concept. This is not an issue when the affective commitment subset of the scale is used. As evidence of construct validity Wittig (1987) found this scale to be predictive of organization-serving behavior, intention to stay, and alienation. Consistently, intrinsic satisfaction also correlated highly.

The continuance commitment measure is a modification of a four-item scale developed by Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972). The modifications were minimal and made for consistency (e.g., it was changed to a seven-point scale indicating agreement or disagreement). Hrebiniak and Alutto view commitment as arising from the perceived utility of continued participation; in their view, commitment involves a state of attachment to the organization independent of affect. In the present research, individuals were asked to indicate on a seven-point scale whether they would leave their organization for: (a) a slight increase in pay; (b) slightly more freedom to be professionally creative; (c) slightly more status; and (d) to work with people who are a little friendlier. The unwillingness to leave an organization for these reasons is taken to indicate that the individual is bound to the organization by other accrued

investments and perceived costs of leaving. The authors found that the Spearman-Brown reliability estimate for the four-item scale was .79.

There has been evidence of construct validity for the Hrebiniak and Alutto scale. Consistent with it being a measure of continuance commitment, it has correlated with turnover intentions and turnover behavior (Parasuraman, 1982). Becker's side bet theory predicts relationships between continuance commitment and time-related variables. This measure of continuance commitment correlates with some of these such as: age (Alutto, Hrebiniak, & Alonso, 1973; Hrebiniak, 1974; Stevens, Beyer, & Trice, 1978), seniority (Hrebiniak, 1974), and length of employment (Alutto et al., 1973). These factors indicate that the individual is bound to the organization in a way that makes leaving too costly.

A second set of affective and continuance commitment measures was used, mainly for construct validation. The Meyer and Allen (1984) scales, designed to assess both affective and continuance commitment. Meyer and Allen (1984) developed two scales: the affective commitment scale (ACS) and the continuance commitment scale (CCS). The two scales consist of eight items each, with a seven-point Likert scale indicating agreement or disagreement. Meyer and Allen reported internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) of .87, .88, and .84 for the affective commitment scale in three samples. The continuance commitment scale has exhibited reliability coefficients of .77, .73, and .74. As evidence of construct validity this scale has been

found to correlate with the OCQ (Meyer & Allen, 1984), and confirmatory factor analyses revealed that the ACS and CCS measure different constructs (Meyer, Allen, & Gellatly, 1990).

The Meyer and Allen scales have, like the primary measures in this study, been widely used in other studies. It was therefore decided that for construct validity and comparisons with historical data at a later time, it would be useful to collect such data. With only sixteen additional items it was not considered an onerous burden to the subject. Another advantage of duplicate measures was to support construct validity through replication of results.

Absenteeism and tardiness.

The dependent variables of absenteeism and tardiness were self-report measures. Respondents were asked to report the number of days absent or late, and the reasons for these, during the past year.

Performance.

Respondents were asked what their most recent performance appraisal rating was, and their self-assessment of their own performance. They were also asked about their ability to work late and travel due to family circumstances. The latter measure was for future use, and was not used in testing hypotheses.

Turnover.

Turnover was a one item response included in the follow-up survey, sent out 18

months after the first survey. If the respondents indicated that they had left their company, they were asked to state the reason, and to disregard the remaining questions.

Job search behavior

Job search behavior was measured by the Job Search Behavior Index (JSBI) developed by Kopelman, Rovenpor, and Millsap (1992). Their research found this measure to be psychometrically sound and construct valid. The index is a ten-item list of questions pertaining to the actions a person might logically be expected to take during the job search process. To make measurement more reliable, responses are obtained in terms of the time-defined period of one year. The items are as follows: During the *past year* have you: (a) Read a book about getting a new job? (b) Revised your resume? (c) Sent copies of your resume to a perspective employer? (d) Contacted an employment agency or executive search firm to obtain a job with another organization? (e) Read the classified/help wanted advertisements in the newspaper? (f) Gone on a job interview? (g) Talked to friends or relatives about getting a new job? (h) Sought to transfer to a new job within your organization? (i) Talked to co-workers about getting a job in another organization? (j) Made any phone inquiries to perspective employers?

Additional Measures

Although not used for testing hypotheses, an eight-item measure of work/family

conflict was included for construct validation. This measure includes two four-item scales. Four items were developed by Kopelman, Greenhaus, and Connolly (1983) to assess how work interferes in family (WIF) conflict. Another four items paralleling (and asked in combination with) the WIF items were used by Gutek, Searle, and Klepa (1991) to assess how family interferes in work (FIW) conflict.

Respondents were also asked to indicate years at work and household income level. These were used for partial correlations. Month and day of birth and last four digits of the social security number were collected to help in matching the follow-up surveys.

Table 4.3
Research Variables with Corresponding Measures and Sources

<u>Variables</u>	<u>Measures and Sources</u>
Affective Commitment (1)	Nine-item subscale of the Organizational Commitment Scale (Porter et al., 1974)
Continuance Commitment Scale (1)	Four-item Organizational Commitment Scale (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972)
Perceived Organizational Family Support	Ten-item scale designed for study
Organizational Family Support	Family and Work Institute (FWI) Multi-item Family-Friendly Index (Galinsky et al., 1991) (Adapted and Modified for employees and human resource professionals)
Perceived Supervisory Family Support	Six-item Supervisory Support Scale (Fernandez, 1986)
Family Demands	Demographics questionnaire, scoring based partially on the Kinship Responsibility Scale (Price & Mueller, 1981, 1986) and the configuration profile of Kossek (1990)
Absenteeism and Tardiness Performance	Self report questions. Self reports of last official appraisal and self-assessment of performance.
Job Search Behavior	Ten-item Job Search Behavior Index (Kopelman, Rovenpor, & Millsap, 1992)
Sex	Single item measure
Turnover	Single item self report (at time two)

CHAPTER FIVE

Construct Validation Results

Introduction

This chapter presents the construct validation results. Construct validation refers to the extent to which a test measures the psychological construct that it purports to measure (Cook & Campbell, 1979). Descriptive statistics were calculated for each measurement instrument, as well as internal consistency measures of reliability, where computation was possible. The instruments measuring the major independent and dependent variables were then examined with respect to psychometric adequacy and construct validity. Factor analyses were conducted on the measures of Perceived Organizational Family Support, Supervisory Family Support, and the commitment scales to determine if the survey items loaded on the hypothesized factors. These results are presented as evidence of construct validity.

Organizational Support Measures

To alleviate confusion regarding the measurement of the variables of organizational support a brief summary of the different measures used, and the variable they measured is presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Measures of Organizational Family Support

Variable	Measure	Respondents
Organizational Family Support (tangible)	Modified Adapted Family Friendly Index (ModAFFI)	Human Resource professionals
Perceived Organizational Family Support (tangible)	Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI)	Individual employees
Perceived Organizational Family Support (tangible and intangible)	Ten-item Perceived Organizational Family Support measure (POFS)	Individual employees

The mean of the ten-item Perceived Organization Family Support (POFS) instrument was 3.7 on a seven-point Likert scale. The standard deviation was 1.46. The distribution was normal, between the scores of one and six, with a slight tail equalling five percent of the total scoring over six (see Table 5.2 for data on this, and all other scales).

TABLE 5.2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR STUDY MEASURES

SCALE	N	# Items	Mean	Std.Dev.	Alpha
WORK-FAMILY SUPPORT					
Perceived Organizational Support	310	10	3.7	1.46	0.94
Adapted Family Friendly Index	310	23	69.6	38.8	0.71
Supervisory Family Support	310	6	5.48	1.33	0.91
COMMITMENT					
Affective Commitment I	310	9	4.77	1.41	0.93
Continuance Commitment I	310	4	4.08	1.62	0.87
Affective Commitment II	310	8	4.18	1.32	0.86
Continuance Commitment II	310	8	4.47	1.34	0.85
WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT					
Family interferes with work Conflict	308	4	2.84	1.01	0.75
Work interferes with Family Conflict	308	4	3.24	1.06	0.77
FAMILY DEMANDS					
Family Demand Score (computed using data below)	310	15	7.02	4.84	
Household Work Score	310	7	3.1	1.57	0.63
Dependent Adults	310	1	0.1	0.35	
Number of Children % of Sample Having None % of Sample Having One % of Sample Having Two or More	310	1	1.09 57% 13% 29%	1.51	
Age of Children(# and percent saying yes) 1 or More Child under 1 year 1 or more child 1-3 years 1 or more child 4-5 years 1 or More Child 6-12 Years 1 or More Child 13-18 Years 1 or more child 18 years or Older	310	6	18 34 27 48 35 47	<i>Percent</i> (05.8%) (11.0%) (08.7%) (15.5%) (11.3%) (15.2%)	
OUTCOME MEASURES					
Job Search Behavior	310	10	0.38	0.3	0.86
Turnover	94	1	0.23	0.42	
Absenteeism	310	5	5.42	7.57	
Lateness	310	7	7.02	11.6	

The Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI) mean score was 69.6, ranging from a

low score of 5 to a high score of 196.8. The standard deviation was 38.8 with twenty-five percent of the scores falling below 42.5, and twenty-five percent above 90. The distribution was skewed toward the low end.

The modified AFFI, completed by 44 human resource professionals, had a mean of 115.8. Its scores ranged from ten to 234. The fact that the mean score of the modified AFFI is 46.2 points higher than that of the AFFI was not surprising for these reasons: it was not reduced by an availability scale (the way the unmodified version was), it was expected that the higher scoring firms would be more likely to respond, and it is possible that the human resource department is favorably biased in their evaluation of their organization's family friendliness.

The Supervisory Family Support scale had a mean of 5.48 out of seven, a standard deviation of 1.33, and slightly skewed distribution toward the high end.

There were no discernible differences in any of the measures for men and women. Men and women scored alike on all support scales, as did people with dependents, compared to those without.

Overview of Commitment Measures

The affective commitment measurement instrument used for the study was another seven-point Likert scale. The mean was 4.77 out of seven, and the standard deviation was 1.41. The distribution was somewhat skewed toward higher responses, with forty-eight percent of the scores in the top thirty-four percent of the scale, or a score

above 5 (agree slightly).

The continuance commitment measurement instrument used for the study was another seven-point Likert scale. The mean was 4.08, and the standard deviation was 1.62. The distribution was nearly normal.

**Construct Validity Evidence Pertinent to the
Perceived Organizational Family Support Measure**

Construct validation efforts were conducted to test the newly developed, ten-item Perceived Organizational Family Support (POFS) scale.

During a pre-testing phase of the entire survey instrument subjects were asked to comment on the clarity of the items, and any problems with wording of the instructions, questions, or response alternatives. These comments were written directly on the questionnaire, or at the very end on a comment sheet. This pretesting sample consisted of approximately sixty subjects, all of whom would have qualified for the study sample.

As a new measure, (and as a primary independent variable in this study) assurance was sought that the instrument is psychometrically sound. Establishing evidence for construct validity is a primary step in this process. We have already examined evidence of reliability; Cronbach's alpha was .94 in the present study. Using data collected at a later time (eighteen months), a test-retest reliability correlation of .51 ($p < .001$, $N = 74$) was found.

Content Validity Evidence for POFS

To establish construct validity, evidence of content validation was also sought. Content validity pertains to the conceptual correspondence between the construct and test items in the instrument. It assesses the degree to which a measure's items are appropriate to the theoretical content domain of a construct (Schriesheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner, & Lankau, 1993). By constructing this measure along the three dimensions of House's (1981) definition of support, a theoretical basis for examining content validity was established.

An empirical examination of content validity can be conducted by a panel of experts and quantified by a measure known as the Content Validity Index (Lawshe, 1975). In the case of the POFS measure it was theorized that the scale would measure three dimensions of family support: informational, instrumental, and emotional. A panel of five subject matter experts was asked to evaluate the ten items of the scale in terms of the dimensional categories to which each related. The panel consisted of three human resources professionals, and two instructor/researchers in the field of management. The ten POFS items were tested along with the six items of the Supervisory Support Scale. In this manner there were sixteen separate items for the judges to categorize. This provided the ability to collect content validity data for both the POFS scale and the Supervisory Family Support scale. The raters were asked to sort the 16 items into five categories: supervisory support, general organizational

support, informational support, instrumental support, and emotional support. The CVI is calculated by computing the mean of the Content Validity Ratio (CVR's) of each item. The content validity ratio is represented by the following formula:

$$CVR = \frac{n_c - N/2}{N/2}$$

where n_c is the number of panelists stating that an item belonged in a category, and N is the number of panelists (Lawshe, 1975).

The panel was given definitions of the five types of support that the items would represent: the four organizational support categories, and the supervisory support category. Here the CVI was quite high, as illustrated by the CVR values in Table 5.2. The panel of five correctly sorted all items into the appropriate categories, giving a CVI of 1.0 for both the POFS scale and the SFS scale. Thus, there is some evidence for content validity of the items contained in the POFS.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity Evidence for POFS

Construct validity can be established through criterion-related validity. This is the degree to which a measure yields empirical relationships which are consonant with the theory underlying the construct. Construct validity can also be shown by establishing convergent and discriminant evidence with at least two constructs measured by at least two methods (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Convergent evidence is established when a test is strongly associated with measures of related constructs,

Table 5.2
Number of Panelists Placing Item into Category (n_i) (out of five panelists)

ITEM	1	2	3	4	5	CVR
My organization has a many programs and policies designed to help employees balance work and family life.		$n_i=5$				1.0
My organization makes an active effort to help employees when there is conflict between work and family life.		$n_i=5$				1.0
My organization puts money and effort into showing its support of employees with families.		$n_i=5$				1.0
It is easy to find out about family support programs within my organization.			$n_i=5$			1.0
My organization provides its employees with useful information about how to balance work and family.			$n_i=5$			1.0
My organization helps employees with families find the information they need to balance work and family.			$n_i=5$			1.0
My organization is understanding when an employee has a conflict between work and family.	$n_i=5$					1.0
In general my organization is very supportive of its employees with families.	$n_i=5$					1.0
Employees really feel that the organization respects their desire to balance work and family demands.	$n_i=5$					1.0
My organization is more family-friendly than most other organizations I could work for.				$n_i=5$		1.0
The subordinates in my department feel free to discuss family problems that affect work with my supervisor.					$n_i=5$	1.0
My supervisor is very understanding if someone has to leave early or come in late due to a family emergency.					$n_i=5$	1.0
If I or one of my coworkers needed time to attend to family business (doctor or teacher appointments, school plays etc.) my supervisor is very flexible about working this out.					$n_i=5$	1.0
If one of my supervisor's subordinates missed work due to a sick dependent, my supervisor would understand.					$n_i=5$	1.0
My supervisor supports any company policy that helps employees with families.					$n_i=5$	1.0
My supervisor measures people on their overall productivity, not simply hours spent in the office.					$n_i=5$	1.0

Note: 1 = Emotional, 2 = Instrumental, 3 = Informational, 4 = General, 5 = Supervisory

especially if different methods of measurement are employed. Discriminant evidence establishes that there is a distinction from measures of other constructs.

In connection with the Perceived Organizational Family Support scale (POFS), two measures were used to establish convergent validity evidence: the Adapted Family Friendly Index (adapted from Galinsky et al. (1991) and the modified version of this filled out by a human resource professional in the organization. The former was a similar paper and pencil test (with some Likert scale responses), that assessed the availability of the policies relevant to POFS. It was, however, much longer and contained numerous dichotomous variables. It was considered to measure the same trait because it measures a very similar construct, tangible support and its availability. It is not identical in that the POFS scale also measures intangible support. Nonetheless, the AFFI was expected to have the highest correlation of the measures compared, but it was not expected to be extremely high. The second measure was the Modified Adapted Family Friendly Index (ModAFFI), which differed methodologically because it was answered by human resource professionals as an independent source of information. This scale did not include Likert responses for assessing availability. Yet it does measure tangible support from the organization, so a positive correlation was expected.

Another measure assessed was Supervisory Family Support (Fernandez, 1986 (modified). This construct measures a different, but related, trait by the same method:

it was answered by the same respondent, at the same time, and it was of similar length (6 items) with identical seven-point Likert response categories.

Toward providing *convergent validity*, it was expected that the supervisory family support (SFS) would be positively related to the POFS. Indeed the literature has demonstrated that they are separate, but related constructs (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988; Gooler, 1996).

Toward providing evidence for *discriminant validity*, the following measures were assessed: (a) absenteeism and (b) lateness. These were outcome measures. It was not expected that either of these would have high correlation with POFS. At most, a weak relationship was expected between POFS and these conceptually distinct measures.

Results of the Convergent and Discriminant Evidence for POFS

A review of the data, shown in Table 5.4, suggests that the Perceived Organizational Family Support Scale measures a form of organizational support. As predicted, the alternate measures of support correlated well ($r = .47, p < .001$ for the Family Friendly Index as reported by the same individuals, and $r = .28, p < .001$ for the similar index completed by human resource professionals). As alternate measures of organizational support (albeit only the tangible forms), these results provide evidence of convergent validity. Convergent validity evidence was also provided by the Supervisory Family Support Measure correlation ($r = .40, p < .001$). This is a similar form of support and, as expected, it had a lower correlation than the other

organizational support (same method) measure.

Finally, support was found for the expectation that constructs conceptually different than POFS (absenteeism and lateness) that were measured with alternate methods of measurement would have the lowest correlations with POFS on the Matrix. The absenteeism/POFS relationship ($r = .01$, ns) and the Lateness/POFS relationships ($r = .03$, ns) were as expected.

TABLE 5.4
Correlation Table for Convergent and Discriminant Validity Evidence for the POFS Instrument

Measure	Convergent/ Discriminant	Correlation with POFS	Group-level Correlation
Perceived Organizational Family Support	Convergent	1.00	1.00
Adapted Family Friendly Index	Convergent	.47***	.58***
Adapted Family Friendly Index w/POFS intangible factor	Convergent	.34***	.40***
Modified Adapted Family Friendly Index	Convergent	.28***	.37***
Modified Adapted Family Friendly Index w/POFS tangible factor	Convergent	.31***	.30***
Supervisory Family Support	Convergent	.40***	.46***
Absence Score	Discriminant	.01 ns	.00 ns
Lateness Score	Discriminant	.03 ns	.07 ns

(***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Results of Factor Analyses

Factor Analyses were run on the ten-item POFS measure. It was originally hypothesized that there would be three distinct factors: instrumental support, informational support, and emotional support (House, 1981). A similar model was proposed by Nelson and Quick (1991) which reiterates the three House types of

support (a) emotional, (b) information support, and (c) instrumental support. It also offers an additional factor, appraisal (e.g., affirmations or evaluative feedback). The POFS was designed with ten questions; the supervisory family support construct is more closely related to the appraisal component. The first three items of the ten-item POFS measure related to instrumental support. They concerned the visible policies, effort, and money an organization demonstrates to support employees with families. The second three items concerned informational support regarding the organization's efforts about making information about programs, and other outside forms of support available. The next three items, related to emotional support, were of a less tangible nature, using evaluative terms such as "supportive", "understanding", and "respect". The tenth item was an overall evaluative item "My organization is more family-friendly than most other organizations I could work for." Table 5.5 presents items and loadings.

The three factor hypothesis was later rethought in light of recent work in the field of Family/Work Life Studies (Friedman & Johnson, 1996) that has found evidence that organizational family support consists of two factors, tangible and intangible. More specifically it consists of support policies and a supportive culture or climate. This, a more traditional affective/cognitive dichotomy, is not necessarily at odds with House's classification. Instrumental support is tangible evidence, such as policies, that the organization is making an attempt to provide support. Informational support

TABLE 5.5
FACTOR LOADINGS FOR EXPLORATORY PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL FAMILY SUPPORT

Item Wording	Factor 1 Loading	Factor 2 Loading
My organization has many programs and policies designed to help employees balance work and family life.	.75	.30
My organization makes an active effort to help employees when there is conflict between work and family life.	.59	.48
My organization puts money and effort into showing its support of employees with families.	.72	.42
It is easy to find out about family support programs within my organization.	.82	.23
My organization provides its employees with useful information about how to balance work and family.	.89	.28
My organization helps employees with families find the information they need to balance work and family.	.87	.32
My organization is understanding when an employee has a conflict between work and family.	.25	.87
In general my organization is very supportive of its employees with families.	.33	.89
Employees really feel that the organization respects their desire to balance work and family demands.	.38	.83
My organization is more family friendly than most other organizations I could work for.	.31	.78

NOTE:

Factor 1 = tangible - policies/information

Eigenvalue = 6.37, Percent of variance = 63.7

Factor 2 = intangible - emotional

Eigenvalue = 1.21, Percent of variance = 12.1

relates to facilitating the provision of information about instrumental support, and making information about other types of support more readily available, which can also be evidenced from resource and referral programs, and information dissemination policies. These two would represent the more tangible forms of support. The

emotional support hypothesized by House (1981) would be more like the climate or culture of support discussed by Friedman and Johnson (1996).

An exploratory factor analysis was performed to test the factor structure of the ten-item scale. In this exploratory analysis the first nine items were subjected to Principal Axis factoring with a Varimax rotation. Factors with eigenvalues over one were retained. Because the tenth item related to overall perceived support, it was excluded for the analysis (of all the items, this was the most subjective, [see Table 5.5 for all items]). The factor analysis revealed two factors, the first of which corresponded exactly to the first six items (instrumental and informational/tangible policies) and the second to the last three items (emotional/climate of support type). The two factors accounted for 75.8% of the total variance. When the last item was included in a second run with all ten items, it loaded, quite clearly with the emotional factor. Results of this analysis are found in Table 5.5.

Interrater Agreement as Evidence for Construct Validity of POFS Instrument

The POFS (Perceived Organizational Family Support) scale was also analyzed with regard to interrater agreement. This kind of analysis is often used to validate the aggregation of data. It is used here, to examine further the issue of construct validity. The measure, POFS, was designed to assess, through the employee's eyes, how supportive the organization is to a family/work life balance, viz. the organization's policies and climate of support. Although perceptions differ from person to person,

and we would not expect complete agreement among individuals in the same work group, a serious lack of agreement would challenge the soundness of an instrument.

The significant positive correlation between POFS and the human resource manager's independent index of the policies available to employees ($r = .28, p < .001$) gives us evidence that something real, outside of an individual's psychological climate, affects this perception. Because policies and programs are not the whole story of support, and employee knowledge can be incomplete, this correlation is expected to be imperfect. Also, oftentimes, reality differs from HR policies. Therefore, this is a relatively encouraging relationship.

In addition to a correlation between individual employee perceptions and human resources reports of policies the agreement among individual employee perceptions within work groups was assessed. An indication that employees agree in their perception of an organization's support (through the POFS instrument), would give further evidence of construct validity (i.e., that the instrument is measuring the organization's level of support, albeit through the perception of multiple individuals).

In recent years there have been several important developments in the tools used for assessing agreement between raters. These are discussed in depth in the next chapter, in regard to group level of analysis. Some researchers suggest that the appropriate test for within-setting agreement would be some sort of measure of homogeneity. To determine if consistency of evaluation exists within groups, the $r_{wg(j)}$

coefficient, described in James, Demaree, & Wolfe (1984), can be calculated. This measure determines the proportion of systematic variance in a set of judgements in relation to the total variance in the judgements, while attempting to control for response bias. This interrater coefficient of agreement can be interpreted as similar to a reliability coefficient. It is found increasingly in the literature as the favored test of interrater agreement (George, 1990; Kozłowski & Hattrup, 1992; Lindell & Brandt, 1996). For the POFS instrument 78 out of 106 groups of coworkers had $r_{wg(j)}$'s considered high on agreement (again, details are provided subsequently). This appears to support the notion that a phenomenon (or target) outside of an individual's perceived psychological climate is being measured.

Summary of Construct Validity Results for the POFS Instrument

The instrument developed for this study, the ten-item Perceived Organizational Family Support Scale, appears to be psychometrically sound. In the present research it yielded high Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability (.94), with none of the individual items detracting significantly from this. Response from the pretest indicated the wording was clear and easily understood. The Content Validity Index results gave clear and consistent support, and there was evidence of both convergent and discriminant validity. Especially reassuring was the correlation between POFS and the human resource index of organizational policies. A factor analysis revealed two factors that intuitively correspond with current thinking on what comprises

organizational family support. Finally there exists evidence that agreement generally exists between raters within the same organization, lending further support that they are rating the same thing.

Construct Validity Pertinent to The Supervisory Family Support Measure

Construct validation efforts were conducted to test the supervisory support measure in the study, the six-item Supervisory Family Support (SFS) scale, that utilized a seven-point Likert scale for responses. Construct validity was established for this scale when it was first developed (Fernandez , 1986). The measure was only modified slightly (in order to use a seven-point Likert scale), so the positive results are relevant here (Fernandez, 1986). The data from this study reaffirms the Fernandez's work.

This six-item scale asks parents to indicate the degree to which supervisors are willing to support the subordinate when work/family conflict arises. During pre-testing of the survey subjects were asked to comment on the clarity of the items, and any problems with wording. No problems were reported.

Content Validity Evidence

As we done with the POFS measure, evidence of content validation was sought. A panel of subject matter experts participated in a content validity exercise, the results of which are quantified in terms of the Content Validity Index (Lawshe, 1975). The panel, consisting of three human resources professionals and two

instructor/researchers in the field of management, was asked to sort the POFS scale and the SFS scale items into five categories: supervisory support, general organizational support, informational support, instrumental support, and emotional support. The CVI (calculated by computing the mean of the Content Validity Ratios - - see Table 5.2) of the six supervisory support items was equal to one. All of the panelists correctly sorted all six items into the category defined as supervisory family support.

Convergent and Discriminant Evidence for Construct Validity of SFS

Two measures were used were used to establish convergent validity evidence for the Supervisory Family Support (SFS) measure. They were the Perceived Organizational Family Support scale, reviewed earlier, and the Adapted Family Friendly Index (adapted from Galinsky et al.'s (1991). The first was a similar paper and pencil test, with Likert scale responses. The second was also a paper and pencil tool, assessed the availability of specific policies and were answered by the same individuals who answered the POFS. The latter was, however, much longer and contained numerous dichotomous variables. Both were considered to measure a related trait, so positive correlations were expected.

Toward providing *convergent validity*, it was expected that the Supervisory Family Support would be positively related to the POFS and the AFFI, as the literature has demonstrated that they are separate, but related constructs (Kottke & Sharafinski,

1988; Gooler, 1996). Toward providing evidence for *discriminant validity*, the following conceptually distinct measures were assessed: (a) absenteeism and (b) lateness. These were outcome measures. It was not expected that either of these would have high correlation with SFS.

Results of the Convergent and Discriminant Evidence for SFS

A review of the evidence, shown in Table 5.6, suggests that the Supervisory Family Support Scale is measuring supervisory support. As predicted, a measure of organizational support correlated positively Perceived Organizational Family Support Measure correlation ($r = .40, p < .001$). Convergent evidence was also provided by the Adapted Family Friendly Index completed by the by same individual ($r = .15, p < .01$).

Finally, support was found for the expectation that constructs conceptually different than POFS (absenteeism and lateness) measured with alternate methods of measurement would have the lowest correlations with SFS on the Matrix. The absenteeism/SFS relationship ($r = .03, ns$) and the Lateness/SFS relationships ($r = .02, ns$) were as expected.

TABLE 5.6

Correlation Table for Convergent and Discriminant Evidence for the SFS Instrument

Measure	Convergent/ Discriminant	Correlation with SFS	Group-level Correlation
Supervisory Family Support	Convergent	1.00	1.00
Perceived Organizational Family Friendliness	Convergent	.40***	.46***
Adapted Family Friendly Index	Convergent	.15**	.18**
Modified Adapted Family Friendly Index	Convergent	.04 ns	.05 ns
Absence Score	Discriminant	.03 ns	.06 ns
Lateness Score	Discriminant	.02 ns	.04 ns

(***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Interrater Agreement for SFS

The r_{wg} indices of agreement, explained in the POFS construct validity section, were also calculated for SFS. Supervisors may treat individuals differently, or individual might differ in their perceptions of supervisors, so, once again, complete agreement was not expected. The fact that three individuals were assessing the same target would lead us to expect a general sense of agreement. A high degree of agreement was found among raters within the same supervisory group: 84 out of 106 groups received an acceptably high agreement score.

Summary of Construct Validity Results for the SFS Instrument

The Supervisory Family Support instrument appears to be psychometrically sound. In the present research it yielded a high Cronbach alpha coefficient of

reliability (.91), with none of the individual items detracting significantly from this. Responses from the pretest indicated the wording as clear and easily understood. The measure showed evidence of both convergent and discriminant validity. Finally there exists evidence that there is agreement between raters within the same organization.

Construct Validation of the Adapted Family-Friendly Index

Another primary measure is the Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI) (from Galinsky et al., 1991). Since a moderate amount of change was made to adapt it to be an appropriate employee assessment tool (albeit mostly format and wording change), and since little psychometric data was reported previously, construct validation was performed. Because a yes/no/unsure response was used to assess the employee's knowledge of the existence of various programs, which is subsequently multiplied by an index of assessed availability, it is not quite as subjective as the POFS instrument. Nevertheless assurance of its psychometric soundness was sought. This long and sometimes tedious instrument (according to pretest comments) demonstrated acceptable reliability. The coefficient of reliability, measured by Cronbach's alpha for this study was .71. It, too, was then examined for convergent and discriminant validity.

As to content validity of the items, the original index was developed by field experts at the Families and Work Institute. They developed the items based on the existence (or planned existence) of programs in current organizations. The adapted

survey differed little as to the content (it referenced the same programs, using the same descriptions as the original index). Development and testing of this instrument by field experts suggests some degree of content validity.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

With regard to the Adapted Family Friendly Index, comparisons with several other measures were used to establish convergent and discriminant evidence for construct validity.

Two measures of traits similar to those assessed by the Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI) were: the Perceived Organizational Family Support Scale (answered by the same individuals who answered the AFFI) and the modified AFFI (answered by human resource professionals). The POFS is a paper and pencil test, with Likert responses, described in depth previously, but much shorter than the AFFI. POFS, like the AFFI measures tangible organizational support, but it also includes intangible support. This was therefore expected to have the highest correlation to the AFFI of those examined, but not necessarily extremely high. The second measure, a modification of the Adapted Family Friendly Index (ModAFFI) (Galinsky et al., 1991), differed methodologically because it was answered by human resource professionals as an independent source of information. The ModAFFI did not include Likert responses for assessing availability. Aside from that, the same questions were asked. It measures the same tangible support from the organization, so a positive

correlation was expected.

Another measure that was used for comparison to the AFFI scale was Supervisory Family Support (Fernandez, 1986). The instrument is similar methodologically because it was answered by the same individual, at the same time, and it is of similar length (6 items). It also utilizes seven-point Likert response.

Toward providing *convergent validity*, it was expected that the AFFI would be positively related to the Supervisory Family Support. The literature has demonstrated that organizational and supervisory support are separate, but related constructs (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988; Gooler, 1996).

Toward providing evidence for *discriminant validity*, the following measures were assessed: (a) absenteeism and (b) lateness. These were outcome measures. The behaviors measured were not expected to be directly related to the construct being validated, as they are conceptually distinct. It was expected that both of these would have low correlations with AFFI.

Results of the Convergent/Discriminant Evidence for Construct Validity of AFFI

A review of the correlational data shown in Table 5.6, suggests that the Adapted Family Friendly Index is measuring an aspect of organizational support. As predicted, the alternative measures of support correlated well ($r = .47, p < .001$ for the POFS by the same individual, and $r = .45, p < .001$ for the similar index completed by an

independent source). As alternate measures of organizational support (albeit only the tangible forms), these provide evidence of convergent validity. Convergent evidence was also provided by the correlation between AFFI and the Supervisory Family Support Measure correlation ($r = .15, p < .01$). This is a similar form of support. Since it is related, but distinctly different it was expected to yield a lower correlation than the measures of organizational support.

Finally, discriminant evidence was found for the expectation that constructs conceptually different than AFFI (absenteeism and lateness) that were measured with alternate methods of measurement would have the lowest correlations with AFFI on Table 5.7. The non-significant absenteeism/AFFI ($r = .06, ns$) and the lateness/AFFI ($r = .001, ns$) relationships were expected.

Table 5.7
Correlation Table for Convergent and Discriminant Evidence for the AFFI Instrument

Measure	Convergent/ Discriminant	Correlation with AFFI	Group-level Correlation
Adapted Family Friendly Index	Convergent	1.00	1.00
Perceived Organizational Family Support	Convergent	.47***	.58***
Modified Adapted Family Friendly Index	Convergent	.45***	.51***
Supervisory Family Support	Convergent	.15**	.18*
Absence Score	Discriminant	.06 ns	-.02 ns
Lateness Score	Discriminant	.00 ns	-.03 ns

(***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Overall, the empirical evidence reported in the matrix supports the construct validity of the AFFI.

Summary of Construct Validity Results for the AFFI Instrument

The Adapted Family Friendly Index instrument appears to be psychometrically sound. In the present research it yielded an acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficient of reliability (.71). Development and testing of this instrument by field experts suggests some degree of content validity. Responses from the pretest indicated the wording was clear and easily understood. The empirical analysis showed evidence of both convergent and discriminant validity.

Construct Validation of Commitment Measures

Construct validation efforts were conducted to assess the soundness of the commitment measures chosen. Two instruments were administered: the affective subset of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulain, 1974) commitment scale, and the Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) scale for continuance commitment. During pre-testing of this survey, subjects were asked to comment on the clarity of the items, and any problems with wording. The items, as assessed by the pre-test subjects, were straightforward and easy to understand. The measure for affective commitment, Porter et al.'s (1974) nine-item scale (a subscale of the larger OCQ) fared well in an extensive construct validity study (Wittig, 1987). The measure for continuance commitment was a four-item scale developed by Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972). Each item assesses the willingness of the individual to leave their organization for slightly better conditions (pay, status, etc.) elsewhere.

Extensive construct validation evidence for this scale has been assembled previously (e.g., Hrebiniak, 1974; Stevens, Beyer, & Trice, 1978; Parasuraman, 1982).

Reliability results in this study (see Table 5.2) were acceptable (Cronbach alphas for continuance commitment = .87 and affective commitment = .93). Time-lagged correlations of the dependent commitment measures were performed as a test-retest reliability. Affective commitment, time one was correlated with affective commitment, time two with good results ($r = .81, p < .001$). The continuance measure, correlated at a lower level ($r = .52, p < .001$). Continuance commitment has been associated positively with time on the job, so it is not surprising that it is not as strongly correlated to past measures as affective commitment.

A second set of scales was included in this research to assist in construct validation. Meyer & Allen (1984) developed an affective and a continuance commitment scale, each eight items long. This scale was widely used in the eighties, another reason for its inclusion. The wording of the questions is sometimes obscure, especially on the continuance scale, ("One of the few negative consequences of leaving my organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives" was a favorite complaint among this study's pretest subjects). There were pretest comments regarding the difficulty in understanding the items in the two Meyer and Allen scales. It did not, however, add an onerous burden to the survey taker. Since the data provided an opportunity for monotrait convergent construct validity, they were included.

Results of the Factor Analysis

The pre-test results indicated that the wording of many items in the Meyer and Allen scale was dense and contained confusing double negatives. Some items seemed to relate to personality differences that may confound the issue. For example, the wording "I am afraid . . .", "Too much of my life would be disrupted", "I feel I have too few options", may be measuring fear of change more than investment in the current organization.

On the other hand, the Hrebiniak and Alutto statements concerning willingness to leave for slight improvement in conditions, present a different problem. While an individual with high continuance commitment would be unwilling to sacrifice their time and money investment by leaving an organization for slight improvements, so would an individual who was highly affectively committed. The correlation between this measure and the affective commitment measure was high ($r = .55, p < .001$ & $r = .61, p < .001$). It was still significantly lower ($p < .001$) than the correlation between affective scales reported above ($r = .82, p < .001$). There was still the concern that perhaps the Hrebiniak and Alutto scale was not measuring something distinct from affective commitment. A factor analysis of the four scales was run to test this.

Factor Analyses were run on the 29 items of the four scales. Items were subjected to Principal Axis factoring with a Varimax rotation. Factors with eigenvalues over one were retained. This revealed five factors with Eigenvalues of one or greater, three

of them close to two and over. The first three factors accounted for 56% of the variance, and corresponded well with the scales. The last two factors followed no discernible pattern, had Eigenvalues close to one, and together only accounted for an additional seven percent of the total variance.

When a factor analysis, specifying three factors, was run, the item groupings for the three factors was the same as the top three in the previous run. These results are presented in Table 5.8. Factor one (Eigenvalue 10.44) loaded on sixteen of the seventeen affective items. One item from the affective portion Meyer and Allen scale did not load with the other affective items. This item "I think I could easily become a attached to another organization as I am to my present one" was negatively worded and had caused problems with the pretest.

Factor two (Eigenvalue 3.97) corresponded with the eight items of the Meyer and Allen continuance scale, alone. Factor three (Eigenvalue 1.85) had high loadings from only the Hrebiniak and Alutto continuance items.

Table 5.8
LOADINGS FOR FACTOR ANALYSIS OF COMMITMENT SCALES

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Porter et al. Items (<i>affective commitment</i>)			
1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization to be successful.	0.63	0.17	0.09
2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	0.77	0.04	0.28
3. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.	0.73	0.15	0.27
4. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	0.81	-0.03	0.25
5. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	0.77	-0.01	0.26
6. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for, over others I considered at the time I joined.	0.71	0.02	0.25
7. I really care about the fate of this organization.	0.77	0.10	0.05
8. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.	0.65	0.12	0.43
9. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.	0.67	-0.03	0.35
Meyer and Allen Items (<i>affective commitment</i>)			
1. My organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me.	0.73	-0.05	0.13
2. I really feel as if my organization's problems are my own.	0.56	-0.03	0.01
3. I think I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to my present one.	0.08	-0.02	0.44
4. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.	0.68	-0.06	0.03
5. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with my organization.	0.64	0.07	0.32
6. I feel like "part of the family" at my organization.	0.80	-0.01	0.23
7. I feel "emotionally attached" to my organization.	0.73	-0.01	0.14
8. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	0.80	0.02	0.21

Hrebniak and Allutto Items (continuance commitment)			
1. If I were offered a position with another organization I would leave my organization for a slight increase in pay.	0.39	0.03	0.76
2. If I were offered a position with another organization I would leave my organization for slightly more freedom to be professionally creative.	0.28	0.04	0.82
3. If I were offered a position with another organization I would leave my organization for slightly more status.	0.24	0.00	0.84
4. If I were offered a position with another organization I would leave my organization to work with people who are friendlier.	0.34	-0.01	0.62
Meyer and Allen Items (continuance commitment)			
1. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	0.13	0.63	-01
2. One of the major reasons I continue to work for my organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice - another organization may not match the overall benefits I have.	0.10	0.67	-01
3. I feel I have too few options to consider leaving my organization.	-0.10	0.72	-0.06
4. One of the few negative consequences of leaving my organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	-0.10	0.71	-0.13
5. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization now, even if I wanted to.	-0.04	0.78	0.10
6. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.	0.03	0.74	0.18
7. It would be too costly for me to leave my organization in the near future.	0.06	0.75	0.07
8. I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	0.01	0.57	-0.06

NOTE:

Factor 1 = Affective Commitment (Meyer & Allen) & (Porter et al.) *Eigenvalue* = 10.44, *Percent of variance* = 36.0

Factor 2 = Continuance (Meyer & Allen)
Eigenvalue = 3.97, *Percent of variance* = 13.7

Factor 3 = Continuance (Hrebniak & Allutto)
Eigenvalue = 1.85, *Percent of variance* = 6.4

The results of the factor analysis gives positive indication that the Hrebiniak and Alutto scale measures something distinct from affective commitment. That, coupled with the subjective evaluation of the wording, support the use of the Hrebiniak and Alutto scale.

Convergent and Discriminant Evidence for Construct Validity

Table 5.9 shows the evidence of convergent and discriminant validity for the Porter affective commitment scale, and the Hrebniak and Allutto continuance commitment scales.

Table 5.9
Correlation Table for Convergent and Discriminant Evidence for the Commitment Instruments

Measure	Convergent/ Discriminant	ACI	CCI
Affective Commitment I - ACI (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulain)	Convergent	1.00	.61***
Continuance Commitment I-CCI (Hrebniak and Allutto)	Convergent	.61***	1.00
Affective Commitment II - ACII (Meyer and Allen)	Convergent	.82***	.55***
Continuance Commitment II-CCII (Meyer and Allen)	Convergent	.06 ns	.04 ns
Work in Family Conflict	Convergent	-.13**	-.17**
Job Search Behavior Index	Convergent	-.39***	-.38***
Years at Work	Convergent	N/A	.13**
Family Demands	Discriminant	.02ns	.00ns

(***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$) ACI & ACII = Affective Commitment One & Two
CCI & CCII = Continuance Commitment One & Two

First, the correlations between the two primary scales (affective and continuance), and the Meyer and Allen scales were calculated. For the two affective commitment scales the correlation was, as expected, high ($r = .82, p < .001$). The two continuance commitment scales, however, did not correlate as expected, ($r = .04, ns$). Although the two types of commitment (affective and continuance) are distinct constructs, they are related and some correlation is expected. Mowday, Porter, & Steers (1982) suggested that individuals who feel bound to an organization (through sunk costs etc.) typically engage in some form of psychological bolstering in which they attempt to rationalize their situation. Thus, a high degree of continuance (related to being bound to the organization) commitment could produce affective commitment. It was therefore expected that there would be a correlation between affective and continuance commitment. There is mixed empirical evidence from prior research as to the relationship between affective and continuance commitment. Some studies have reported sizable and significant correlations (e.g., McGee & Ford, 1987); others have not (e.g., Meyer & Allen, 1984). In the present study the Hrebiniak and Alutto continuance commitment scale correlated significantly with both affective scales.

Further convergent validity evidence was found for the Hrebiniak and Allutto scale in its significant relationship to the years at work measure ($r = .13, p < .01$). It was expected that the more years one has at work, the more vested interest one has in staying (such as pension plans), and the more continuance commitment is expected.

Convergent validity of the commitment scales was demonstrated through significant negative correlation with the work family conflict scale for the Porter scale ($r = -.13, p < .01$). Work family conflict has been associated with lower levels of affective response to work.

Convergent validity of the continuance measure was tested by looking at the correlations with the Job Search Behavior Index. Given the nature of continuance commitment a significant negative relationship was expected and found for the scale ($r = -.38, p < .001$) to this measure.

Finally, discriminant evidence was found for the expectation that constructs conceptually different than commitment (family demands) would have the lowest correlations. The non-significant relationship to the affective measure ($r = .02, ns$) and the continuance measure ($r = .00, ns$) were expected.

Summary of Construct Validity Results for Commitment Scales

There was no evidence to contradict the decision to use the OCQ subset scale (over the Meyer and Allen scale) as the main source of data for affective commitment in this study, (all correlations obtained are reported in the appendix), as was the original intent. Both affective commitment measures behaved very much as expected and quite similarly in the analyses.

The Hrebiniak and Alutto scale behaved as expected in the construct validation except that it did not correlate with the Meyer and Allen measure of continuance

commitment. There was other convergent evidence: it correlated mildly with the affective commitment scales (as expected), and had a correlation with Job Search Behavior and years at work, as expected. The factor analysis revealed it as a factor distinct from affective commitment.

Because previous research has provided consistent construct validation for the Hrebiniak and Alutto scale (Hrebiniak, 1974; Stevens, Beyer, & Trice, 1978; Parasuraman, 1982), the decision was made to retain it as the primary measure of continuance commitment in this study. All results are reported in the appendix. Where results were different using the Meyer and Allen scale, this is noted in the main text.

Summary of Construct Validation Results

The key measures used in this study were found to be psychometrically sound. Pre-testing indicated clear, understandable wording. Data from the study produced reliability coefficients that were acceptable. Evidence for construct validity (both convergent and discriminant) was established for the main survey measures.

CHAPTER SIX

Substantive Results

Introduction

This chapter presents the substantive results of the data analyses. After a restatement of the study's hypotheses, the results of hypothesis testing are presented: first at the individual level of analysis (the primary focus), then at the group level of analysis. Correlational analysis and multiple regression were the primary tools of the data analysis. Correlations were computed and compared in order to test the main hypotheses. Multiple regression was used to test for moderating effects of Family demands; subgroup analyses were performed to test for the moderating effects of the subject's sex.

Prior to undertaking an analysis of results at the group level, a justification for aggregation is performed that included examining a one-way ANOVA, along with a calculation of intraclass correlation coefficients and other measures of interrater agreement. That is, measures of interrater agreement and one-way analyses of variance were performed to assess the validity of a group climate assumption, as well as to justify aggregation of the data to a group level. When measures of agreement indicated that it was acceptable to do so, correlations for aggregate data were computed. Following the testing of hypotheses at the group level of analysis, also examined are two small sections of research questions regarding the differences

between the levels and the cross-level analysis. Correlations at the group and individual level were compared to ascertain if there was support for the notion of a group-level interaction effect.

Restatement of Study Hypotheses

The following hypotheses and research questions were tested and are restated below. They were based on the most current research in the work/family and commitment literatures. Prediction was deemed a research question if the relationship was either ancillary to a main hypothesis and therefore not as rigorously pursued, or if current literature did not fully support the predictions. Schematics of the models that yielded hypotheses are shown in Figures 3.1, 3.3, &3.4.

To summarize, the following hypotheses are tested:

Individual Level of Analysis

Hypothesis 1: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to perceived supervisory family support across individuals.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to affective commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 2 (longitudinal): Over time (one to two years), perceived organizational family support will be positively related to affective commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 3 (longitudinal): Over time (one to two years), perceived organizational family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 4: Perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to affective commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 4 (longitudinal): Over time (one to two years), perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to affective commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 5: Perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 5 (longitudinal): Over time (one to two years), perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 6: Perceived organizational family support will be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 7: Perceived supervisory family support will be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 8: Sex moderates the support-commitment relationships in the following manner:

Hypothesis 8.1: The positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and affective commitment will be stronger among females than males.

Hypothesis 8.2: The positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and continuance commitment will be stronger among females than males.

Hypothesis 8.3: The positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and affective commitment will be stronger among females than males.

Hypothesis 8.4: The positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and continuance commitment will be stronger among females than males.

Hypothesis 9: Family demands moderate the support-commitment relationships in the following manner:

Hypothesis 9.1: The higher the family demand the stronger the positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and affective commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 9.2: The higher the family demand the stronger the positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and continuance commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 9.3: The higher the family demand the stronger the positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and affective commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 9.4: The higher the family demand the stronger the positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and continuance commitment across individuals.

Hypothesis 10.1: Affective commitment will be negatively related to turnover.

Hypothesis 10.2: Continuance commitment will be negatively related to turnover.

Hypothesis 10.3: Affective commitment will be negatively related to absenteeism.

Hypothesis 10.4: Affective commitment will be negatively related to lateness.

Hypothesis 10.5: Affective commitment will be positively related to performance.

Hypothesis 10.6: Affective commitment will be negatively related to job search behavior.

Hypothesis 10.7: Continuance commitment will be negatively related to job search behavior.

Group Level of Analysis

Figure 3.3 shows the Theoretical Model and Hypotheses for this set of hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1a: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to perceived supervisory family support across groups.

Hypothesis 2a: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to affective commitment across groups.

Hypothesis 3a: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across groups.

Hypothesis 4a: Perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to affective commitment across groups.

Hypothesis 5a: Perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to

continuance commitment across groups.

Hypothesis 6a: Perceived organizational family support will be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment across groups.

Hypothesis 7a: Perceived supervisory family support will be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment across groups.

Individual vs. Group level of analysis

Research Question 1b: Is perceived organizational family support more positively related to perceived supervisory family support across groups, than across individuals?

Research Question 2b: Is perceived organizational family support more positively related to affective commitment across groups, than across individuals?

Research Question 3b: Is perceived organizational family support more positively related to continuance commitment across groups, than across individuals?

Research Question 4b: Is perceived supervisory family support more positively related to affective commitment across groups, than across individuals?

Research Question 5b: Is perceived supervisory family support more positively related to continuance commitment across groups, than across individuals?

Cross-level of analysis

Research Question 2c: Is group-level perceived organizational family support positively related to individual-level affective commitment?

Research Question 3c: Is group-level perceived organizational family support positively related to individual-level continuance commitment?

Research Question 4c: Is group-level perceived supervisory support positively related to individual-level affective commitment?

Research Question 5c: Is group-level perceived supervisory support positively related to individual-level continuance commitment?

The next section presents the results of the hypothesis testing. The hypotheses concerning the individual level of analysis are presented first, followed by those at the group level, then the results of the research questions comparing the individual and group results, and finally the research questions.

To alleviate confusion regarding the measurement of the variables of organizational support a brief summary is presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Measures of Organizational Family Support

Variable	Measure	Respondents
Organizational Family Support (tangible)	Modified Adapted Family Friendly Index (ModAFFI)	Human Resource professionals
Perceived Organizational Family Support (tangible)	Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI)	Individual employees
Perceived Organizational Family Support (tangible and intangible)	Ten-item Perceived Organizational Family Support measure (POFS)	Individual employees

Table 6.2 presents correlations between all major variables assessed in the study.

TABLE 6.2
Correlations Between All Major Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
1 POFS	1.00																			
2 AFFI	.47***	1.00																		
3 SFS	.40***	.15**	1.00																	
4 Affective C.	.46***	.28***	.40***	1.00																
5 Continunce C	.28***	.12**	.24***	.61***	1.00															
6 AC (M & A)	.40***	.24***	.35***	.82***	.55***	1.00														
7 CC (M & A)	.03	.08	.01	.06	.04	.01	1.00													
8 Job Search B.	-.15**	-.05	-.15**	-.39***	-.38***	-.36***	-.16**	1.00												
9 Absence	.01	.06	.03	-.10*	-.05	-.15**	.12*	-.01	1.00											
10 Lateness	.03	.00	.02	-.04	.03	.06	-.07	.05	.12*	1.00										
11 Performance	.06	.04	.16**	.14**	.10*	.15**	.10	-.09	-.11*	-.07	1.00									
12 Turnover	.00	-.04	.07	-.16	-.15	-.17*	-.15	.20*	.06	-.03	.01	1.00								
13 Fam Demand	.05	.00	.03	.02	.00	.03	.12*	-.09*	.16**	.02	.00	-.01	1.00							
14 Income	.12*	.09*	-.04	.03	.02	.10*	-.01	-.14**	-.06	-.08	.06	-.21*	.03	1.00						
15 Yrs at Work	.12*	.19***	-.05	.05	.13**	.11*	.27***	-.29***	.13**	.00	.02	-.29**	.18***	.19***	1.00					
16 Mod AFFI	.28***	.45***	.04	.24**	.10	.18*	.05	-.10	-.06	-.09	.07	-.05	.05	.31***	.26***	1.00				
17 Sex	.01	.02	.04	.04	.02	.05	.06	-.03	.11*	.03	-.01	.14	.16**	-.07	.00	-.02	1.00			
18 Fam-Wrk C	-.02	-.04	-.05	-.18***	-.16**	-.14**	.11*	.16**	.05	.02	.02	.24**	.11*	-.02	.01	-.10	.01	1.00		
19 Work- Fam C	-.15**	-.04	-.14**	-.05	-.12*	-.06	.03	.10*	-.05	.08	.01	.06	.14**	.02	.26***	-.04	.04	.34***	1.00	

(***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Overall, the correlations presented in this table support most of the hypothesized relationships between the study's variables. More on this follows.

Individual Level of analysis

The first and most extensive set of analyses focuses the individual level of analysis. Figure 6.1 summarizes the findings. The (a) hypotheses 1-10, were investigated at this level.

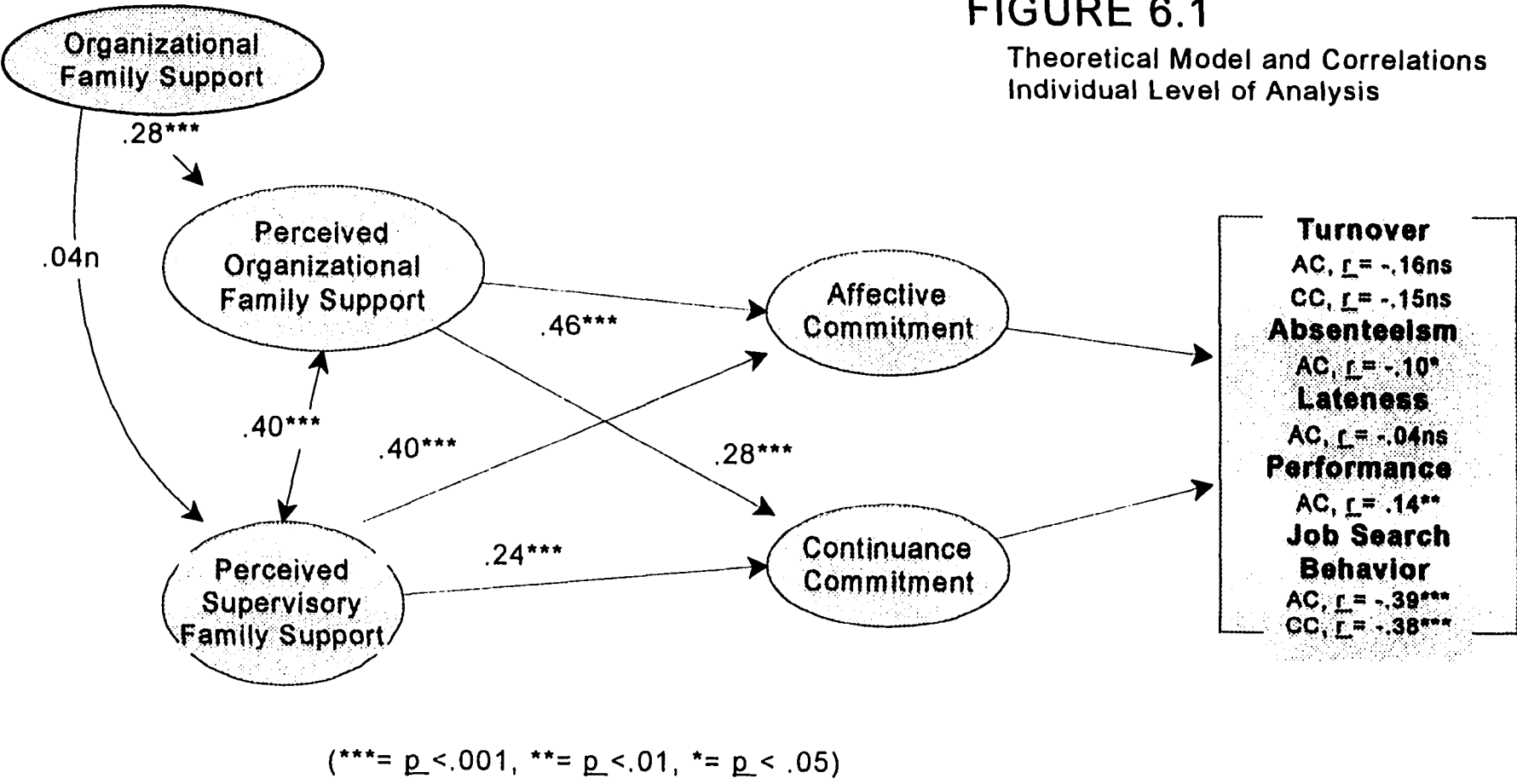
Hypothesis 1 posited that organizational family support would be positively related to Perceived supervisory family support across individuals.

This hypothesis concerns the relationship between organizational family support and supervisory family support (measured by the Supervisory Family Support scale -- SFS) Questions have been raised as to whether or not employees can distinguish between the two, (e.g., Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). Using the results of the present study, this was examined.

The SFS is expected to measure the family support that is demonstrated by the supervisor, and the Perceived Organizational Family Support scale (POFS) should measure family support demonstrated by the organization. If SFS is a distinct construct from POFS, then a factor analysis of all of the items of the SFS and the POFS scales combined, should provide three distinct factors (two factors for the POFS had already been found, and a third factor for SFS was expected).

Factor analysis was performed to test the factor structure of fifteen of the sixteen

FIGURE 6.1
 Theoretical Model and Correlations
 Individual Level of Analysis



Turnover
AC, $r = -.16ns$
CC, $r = -.15ns$
Absenteeism
AC, $r = -.10^*$
Lateness
AC, $r = -.04ns$
Performance
AC, $r = .14^{**}$
Job Search Behavior
AC, $r = -.39^{***}$
CC, $r = -.38^{***}$

items in the two scales (the one general item in the POFS scale was left out). In this exploratory analysis, items were subjected to a Principal Axis factoring with a Varimax rotation. Factors with eigenvalues greater than or equal to one were retained. The analyses revealed three factors. The first corresponded exactly to the first six items (instrumental and informational/tangible policies) of the POFS scale. The second factor contained the three items that corresponded to the intangible/emotional component of the POFS scale. The third factor encompassed the six SFS items. The three factors accounted for 75% of the total variance. All values are shown in Table 6.3.

These results support the conclusion that Perceived Organizational Family Support (POFS) and Supervisory Family Support are distinct and distinguishable constructs. Additionally, this analysis established that supervisory support itself (as measured by the six items) is, indeed, a distinct factor.

The hypothesis was further tested using two measures of perceived organizational support: the Perceived Organizational Family Support (POFS) scale (new in this study), and the more objectively based measure of family-friendly practices, the AFFI. Since the AFFI only measures practices, it is conceptually less complete than the POFS, which also measures intangible/emotional support. The hypothesis received support, with the Perceived Supervisory Family Support scale (SFS) and the Perceived Organizational Family Support scale (POFS) correlating positively ($r =$

Table 6.3
FACTOR LOADINGS FOR FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR POFS/SFS

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
My organization has many programs and policies designed to help employees balance work and family life.	0.770	0.099	0.232
My organization makes an active effort to help employees when there is conflict between work and family life.	0.617	0.188	0.425
My organization puts money and effort into showing its support of employees with families.	0.746	0.192	0.324
It is easy to find out about family support programs within my organization.	0.844	0.085	0.130
My organization provides its employees with useful information about how to balance work and family.	0.910	0.080	0.200
My organization helps employees with families find the information they need to balance work and family.	0.890	0.101	0.232
My organization is understanding when an employee has a conflict between work and family.	0.301	0.257	0.843
In general my organization is very supportive of its employees with families.	0.400	0.245	0.832
Employees really feel that the organization respects their desire to balance work and family demands.	0.455	0.219	0.757
The subordinates in my department feel free to discuss family problems that affect work with my supervisor.	0.111	0.658	0.073
My supervisor is very understanding if someone has to leave early or come in late due to a family emergency.	0.050	0.862	0.146
If I or one of my coworkers needed time to attend to family business (doctor or teacher appointments, school plays etc.) my supervisor is very flexible about working this out.	0.050	0.891	0.217
If one of my supervisor's subordinates missed work due to a sick dependent, my supervisor would understand.	0.038	0.888	0.201
My supervisor supports any company policy that helps employees with families.	0.210	0.800	0.124
My supervisor measures people on their overall productivity, not simply hours spent in the office.	0.193	0.771	0.105

NOTE: **Factor 1** = Instrumental - Informational/Tangible

Eigenvalue = 7.24, Percent of variance = 48.2

Factor 2 = Emotional - Affective/Intangible

Eigenvalue = 3.04, Percent of variance = 20.2

Factor 3 = Supervisory

Eigenvalue = 1.00, Percent of variance = 6.7

.40, $p < .001$). The Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI) also correlated positively but at a lower level ($r = .15, p = .005$). It is noted that this difference could be due to common method variance reduction for the objective AFFI measure, but could also be due to POFS being a measure of a more global aspect of support.

TABLE 1

Hypothesis 1: Perceived Organizational Family Support will be positively related to Perceived Supervisory Family Support across individuals.	Perceived Supervisory Family Support (SFS)
Perceived Organization Family Support (POFS)	.40***
Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI)	.15**
Modified Adapted Family Friendly Index (ModAFFI)	.04 ns

Notes: $n = 310$, (***)= $p < .001$, (**)= $p < .01$, (*)= $p < .05$)

Hypothesis 2 theorized that perceived organizational family support would be positively related to affective commitment in individuals. This was also supported, with the Perceived Organizational Family Support scale (SFS) and the Affective Commitment scale correlating positively ($r = .46, p < .001$). The Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI) also correlated positively with the Affective Commitment scale at a lower level ($r = .28, p = .001$). Again, as POFS is measuring a more global aspect of support, this was expected. These relationships were not significantly affected when possibly confounding factors, years of work and work/family conflict, were controlled for (see Table 2).

Hypothesis 2 (longitudinal): Over time (eighteen months), perceived

organizational family support would be positively related to affective commitment in individuals..

Hypotheses 2-5 were analyzed longitudinally. The longitudinal hypothesis predicted that over time (eighteen months) the relationships between OFS/SFS and commitment (affective and continuance - time one and two) would persist. As noted in the method section, the number of time two responses, despite an arduous effort, was only $n=74$ (less than 25% of the original sample), thus providing reduced statistical power. The POFS, AFFI, & SFS measures were then correlated with the time two commitment scores, in addition to the time one correlations. The corresponding results for 3, 4, & 5 are reported under each hypothesis.

For 2, affective commitment the results were: the POFS/Affective commitment₁ coefficient of correlation and POFS/Affective commitment₂ correlation ($r=.46$, $p < .001$ & $r=.37$, $p < .001$, respectively), were not significantly different. The AFFI/Affective commitment₁ and AFFI/Affective commitment₂ coefficients of correlation ($r=.28$, $p < .001$ & $r=.26$, $p < .01$, respectively), were also not significantly different.

TABLE 2

Hypothesis 2: Perceived Organizational Family Support will be positively related to affective commitment across in individuals. Hypothesis 2 (longitudinal): Over time (eighteen months), Perceived Organizational Family Support will be positively related to affective commitment across individuals.	Affective Commitment (AC) Time One	AC Time Two	AC partial w/ years at work control'd for n = 299	AC partial w/work in family conflict control'd for n = 305
Perceived Organization Family Support (POFS)	.46***	.37***	.45***	.46***
Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI)	.28***	.26***	.27***	.28***
Modified Adapted Family Friendly Index (ModAFFI)	.24**	.09 ns	.23***	.24***

Notes: Time One n = 310, Time Two n = 74, (***)= $p < .001$, (**)= $p < .01$, (*)= $p < .05$

Hypothesis 3 predicted that perceived organizational family support would be positively related to continuance commitment in individuals. This hypothesis was supported, with the Perceived Organizational Family Support scale (POFS) and the Continuance Commitment scale correlating positively ($r = .28, p < .001$). The Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI) also correlated positively with the Continuance Commitment scale ($r = .13, p = .01$). These relationships, also, were not significantly affected when the possibly confounding factors of years of work and work/family conflict, were controlled for (see Table 3).

TABLE 3

Hypothesis 3: Perceived Organizational Family Support will be positively related to continuance commitment across individuals. Hypothesis 3 (longitudinal): Over time (eighteen months), Perceived Organizational Family Support will be positively related to continuance commitment across individuals..	Continuance Commitment (AC) Time One	CC Time Two	CC partial w/ years at work control'd for n = 299	CC partial w/work in family conflict control'd for n = 305
Perceived Organization Family Support (POFS)	.28***	.44***	.27***	.30***
Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI)	.12**	.37**	.12**	.11**
Modified Adapted Family Friendly Index (ModAFFI)	.10 ns	.05 ns	.09 ns	.08 ns

Notes: Time One n = 310, Time Two n = 74, (***=p < .001, **=p < .01, *=p < .05)

Hypothesis 3 (longitudinal): Over time (eighteen months), perceived organizational family support would be positively related to continuance commitment in individuals. For continuance commitment the results were: the POFS/Continuance commitment_t coefficient of correlation and the POFS/Continuance commitment_t coefficient of correlation ($r = .28$, $p < .001$ & $r = .44$, $p < .001$, respectively), were not significantly different. The AFFI/Continuance time one coefficient of correlation and the AFFI/Continuance time two coefficient of correlation ($r = .13$, $p < .001$ & $r = .37$, $p < .01$), was, unexpectedly, significantly different.

Hypothesis 4 posited that perceived supervisory family support would be positively related to affective commitment in individuals. This hypothesis found support, with the SFS and the affective commitment scale correlating positively ($r = .40$, $p < .001$). These relationships, also, were not significantly affected when the

possibly confounding factors of years of work and work/family conflict, were controlled for (see Table 4).

Hypothesis 4 (longitudinal): Over time (eighteen months), perceived supervisory family support would be positively related to affective commitment in individuals. The SFS/Affective commitment₁ and the SFS/Affective commitment₂ coefficients of correlation ($r = .40, p < .001$ & $r = .43, p < .001$, respectively), were not significantly different.

TABLE 4

Hypothesis 4: Perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to affective commitment across individuals. Hypothesis 4 (longitudinal): Over time (eighteen months), perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to affective commitment across individuals.	Affective Commitment (AC) Time One	AC Time Two	AC partial w/ years at work control'd for n = 299	AC partial w/work in family conflict control'd for n = 305
Perceived Supervisory Family Support (SFS)	.40***	.43***	.40***	.39***

Notes: Time One n = 310, Time Two n = 74, (***=p < .001, **=p < .01, *=p < .05)

Hypothesis 5 posited that perceived supervisory family support would also be positively related to continuance commitment in individuals. This hypothesis found support, with the SFS and the continuance commitment scale correlating positively ($r = .24, p < .001$). These relationships, also, were not significantly affected by controlling the possibly confounding factors of years of work and work/family conflict (see Table 5).

Hypothesis 5 (longitudinal): Over time (eighteen months), perceived supervisory

family support would also be positively related to continuance commitment in individuals. The SFS/Continuance commitment₁ and the SFS/Continuance commitment₂ coefficients of correlation ($r = .24, p < .001$ & $r = .29, p < .01$, respectively), were not significantly different.

TABLE 5

Hypothesis 5: Perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across individuals. Hypothesis 5 (longitudinal): Over time (eighteen months), perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across individuals..	Continuance Commitment (CC) Time One	CC Time Two	CC partial w/ years at work control'd for n = 299	CC partial w/work in family conflict control'd for n = 305
Perceived Supervisory Family Support (SFS)	.24***	.29***	.28***	.23***

Notes: Time One n = 310, Time Two n = 74, (***) = $p < .001$, (**) = $p < .01$, (*) = $p < .05$

Hypothesis 6 predicted that organizational family support would be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment across individuals. Results indicate that the correlation between POFS and affective commitment and continuance commitment were respectively ($r = .46$ & $r = .28$). This difference, after performing an r to z transformation, was significant ($p < .01$). Results indicate that the correlation between AFFI and affective commitment and continuance commitment were respectively ($r = .28$ & $r = .13$). This difference, after performing an r to z transformation was significant ($p < .05$). The same was done for the AFFI correlations, with results significant at the $p < .05$ level.

TABLE 6

Hypothesis 6: Perceived Organizational Family Support will be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment across individuals.	Affective Commitm'nt (AC)	Continuance Commitm'nt (CC)	z
Perceived Organization Family Support (POFS)	.46***	.28***	2.58***
Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI)	.28**	.13**	1.91*

Notes: $n = 310$, (***)= $p < .001$, (**)= $p < .01$, (*)= $p < .05$)

Hypothesis 7 predicted that Perceived Supervisory family support would be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment. Results indicate that the correlation between SFS and affective commitment and continuance commitment were respectively ($r = .40, r = .24$). This difference, after performing an r to z transformation was significant ($p < .01$).

TABLE 7

Hypothesis 7: Perceived supervisory family support will be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment across individuals.	Affective Commitment (AC)	Continuance Commitment (CC)	z
Supervisory Family Support (SFS)	.40***	.24***	2.16**

Notes: $n = 310$, (***)= $p < .001$, (**)= $p < .01$, (*)= $p < .05$)

Hypothesis 8 predicted that sex would significantly moderate the support-commitment relationships. This was examined, utilizing subgroup analysis:

Hypothesis 8.1: The correlation between perceived organizational family support and affective commitment will be stronger among females than males. The correlations were calculated with the following results: females POFS/Affective Commitment ($r = .51, p < .001$), males POFS/Affective Commitment ($r = .39, p$

<.001). This difference, after performing an r to z transformation ($z = 1.28$ ns), was not significant, but in the predicted direction. The AFFI/affective commitment correlations (females ($r = .31, p < .001$), males ($r = .20, p < .001$)). This difference, after performing an r to z transformation ($z = 1.02$ ns), was not significant, but in the predicted direction.

TABLE 8.1

Hypothesis 8.1: The positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and affective commitment will be stronger among females than males.	Affective Commitment (AC) Females	Affective Commitment (AC) Males	z
Perceived Organization Family Support	.51***	.39***	1.28 ns
Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI)	.31***	.20***	1.02 ns

Notes: Female $n = 185$, Male $n = 125$, (***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Hypothesis 8.2: The correlation between Perceived Organizational Family Support and continuance commitment will be stronger among females than males. The correlations were calculated with the following results: females POFS/Continuance Commitment ($r = .29, p < .001$), males POFS/continuance Commitment ($r = .27, p < .001$). This difference, after performing an r to z transformation ($z = .18$ ns), was not significant, but in the predicted direction. The AFFI/continuance commitment correlations were (females ($r = .14$, ns), males ($r = .11$, ns)). Again, this difference, after performing an r to z transformation ($z = .30$ ns), was not significant, but in the predicted direction.

TABLE 8.2

Hypothesis 8.2: The positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and continuance commitment will be stronger among females than males.	Continuance Commitment (CC) Female	Continuance Commitment (CC) Male	z
Perceived Organization Family Support	.29***	.27***	.18 ns
Adapted Family Friendly Index (AFFI)	.14ns	.11ns	.30 ns

Notes: Female n = 185, Male n = 125, (***)= $p < .001$. (**)= $p < .01$. (*)= $p < .05$)

Hypothesis 8.3: The correlation between Perceived Supervisory Family Support and affective commitment will be stronger among females than males. The correlations were calculated with the following results: females SFS/Affective Commitment ($r = .49, p < .001$), males SFS/Affective Commitment ($r = .25, p$

TABLE 8.3

Hypothesis 8.3: The positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and affective commitment will be stronger among females than males.	Affective Commitment (AC) Female	Affective Commitment (AC) Male	z
Supervisory Family Support (SFS)	.49***	.25**	2.46**

Notes: Female n = 185, Male n = 125, (***)= $p < .001$. (**)= $p < .01$. (*)= $p < .05$)

<.005). This difference, after performing an r to z transformation ($z = 2.46$), was significant at the $p < .01$ level.

Hypothesis 8.4: The correlation between Perceived Supervisory Family Support and continuance commitment will be stronger among females than males. The correlations were calculated with the following results: females SFS/continuance commitment ($r = .33, p < .001$), males SFS/continuance commitment ($r = .10, ns$).

This difference, after performing an r to z transformation ($z = 2.07$), was significant to the $p < .01$ level.

TABLE 8.4

Hypothesis 8.4: The positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and continuance commitment will be stronger among females than males.	Continuance Commitment (CC) Female	Continuance Commitment (CC) Male	z
Perceived Supervisory Family Support (SFS)	.33***	.10ns	2.07**

Notes: Female $n = 185$, Male $n = 125$, (***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

To summarize, **Hypotheses 8.1&.2** received no support. **Hypotheses 8.3&.4**, received support, with the perceived supervisory family support/commitment correlations found different to a significant level for sex. Women, in this research, have significantly stronger relationships between perceived supervisory family support and commitment. No such differences were found for perceived organizational family support and commitment. All of the differences by sex, though not significant, were at least in the predicted direction of women having stronger commitment/support relationships.

Hypothesis 9 posited that family demands would moderate the support-commitment relationships. First it was established, by examination of the correlations, that family demands was independent of the predictor and criterion variables (a condition for the investigation of moderator variables, (Zedeck, 1971)). The relationships were all low and insignificant, ranging from .02 to .05 (see Table 6.3).

Hypotheses 9.1 & 9.2 predicts that the higher the family demand the stronger the positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and both affective and continuance commitment. **Hypotheses 9.3 & 9.4** predicts that the higher the family demand the stronger the positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and both affective and continuance commitment. In order to test these, two methods were used.

First, an overview was gained by performing a subgroup analysis. This was done by examining the correlational relationships between support and commitment for k subgroups with varying family demands (the predicted moderator variable). In addition, hierarchical multiple regression was performed. The hierarchical regression offers the advantages of: using all the data, thus escalating the statistical power; eliminating the problem of doubtful results from arbitrary cutoff points, and potentially revealing non-linear moderator effects.

Subgroup Analyses

For the subgroup analysis, family demands was categorized into quartiles. Correlational analyses were performed for all four relationships (POFS/Affective, POFS/Continuance, SFS/Affective, SFS/Continuance) within each of the four levels of family demands. None of the differences in the relationships across subgroups was significant. Because these findings were unexpected, and given that the family demands measure is a complex score based on several factors, exploratory subgroup

analyses were run on the several components of family demands, such as: number and age of dependent children, adults, single parents/married, and married vs. unmarried. The only analysis to reveal a significant difference in correlation was the married vs. unmarried POFS/Continuance Commitment correlation. The married group had a POFS/continuance commitment correlation of ($r = .35, p < .001$); the unmarried group had a POFS/continuance commitment correlation of ($r = .20, p < .01$). The difference between correlations of .15, after performing an r to z conversion $z = 1.57$, was significant at the $p < .05$ level.

A second type of subgroup analysis was done based on alternate family structures (Schneer & Reitman, 1993). These researchers suggested that a useful typology would describe the marital and parental status of the employed individual, as well as the employment status of the spouse. Six subgroups can result: 1) single, no children, 2) married, no children, spouse not employed, 3) married, no children, spouse employed, 4) single, children, 5) married, children, spouse not employed, 6) married, children, spouse employed. The results are shown in Table 9. The small sample size of two of the groups failed to produce significant relationships. The results are similar to the other sub group analysis in that the biggest and only significant difference is between the continuance commitment correlations for one of the married versus one of the unmarried subgroups. The married with children and spouse employed group had a POFS/continuance commitment correlation of ($r = .43, p < .001$); the unmarried,

no children subgroup had a POFS/continuance commitment correlation of ($r = .21, p < .05$). The difference between correlations of .22, after performing an r to z conversion $z = 1.95$, was significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Table 9
Subgroup Analysis

Subgroup (N)	POFS/ Affective Commitment	POFS/ Continuance Commitment
Single, children (47)	.32*	.16 ns
Married, children, spouse not employed (12)	.35 ns	.39 ns
Married, children, spouse employed (76)	.56***	.43***
Single, no children (95)	.45***	.21*
Married, no children, spouse not employed (10)	.30 ns	.23 ns
Married, no children, spouse employed (70)	.48***	.31***

Notes: Married $n = 168$, Unmarried $n = 142$, (***)= $p < .001$, (**)= $p < .01$, (*)= $p < .05$)

Moderated Multiple Regression

To examine the question more fully, hierarchical multiple regression analyses (Cohen & Cohen, 1983) were used. Results are found in Tables 9.1-9.4. Asserting that family demands would moderate the effect of support on commitment is to predict that there is a significant interaction between the type of support (organizational or supervisory) and family demand. Moderated multiple regression using product terms (support multiplied by family demand) was the analytic model used to test the hypotheses. Moderated multiple regression examines the increase in

explained variance attributable to the introduction of an interaction term (independent variable * moderator).

Four hierarchical regression analyses were run: (a) with POFS, the family demand, and the POFS/family demand interaction term product regressed on affective commitment, and then on (b) continuance commitment as the dependent variables, (c) with SFS, the family demand, and the SFS/family demand interaction term product regressed on affective commitment, and then on (d) continuance commitment as the dependent variables. No significant interactions of the predicted moderators were found. The results are presented in Tables 9.1, 9.2, 9.3, 9.4.

TABLE 9.1

H9.1: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Family Demands as a Moderator of the Perceived Organizational Family Support - Affective Commitment Relationship

Variable	Affective Commitment				
	Cumulative R	Cumulative R ²	Amount of Increment in R ²	Percentage increment in R ²	F (310)
POFS	.4621	.2136			34.61***
Family Demands	.4626	.2165	.0025	.012	1.00 ns
POFS * Family Demand	.4653	.2140	.0004	.002.	1.16 ns

(***=p < .001, **=p < .01, *=p < .05)

TABLE 9.2

H9.2: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Family Demands as a Moderator of the Perceived Organizational Family Support - Continuance Commitment Relationship

Variable	Continuance Commitment				
	Cumulative R	Cumulative R ²	Amount of Increment in R ²	Percentage increment in R ²	F (310)
POFS	.2834	.0803			6.81**
Family Demands	.2837	.0805	.0002	.002	.11 ns
POFS * Family Demand	.2841	.0807	.0002	.002.	.07 ns

(***=p < .001, **=p < .01, *=p < .05)

TABLE 9.3

H9.3: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Family Demands as a Moderator of the Perceived Supervisory Family Support - Affective Commitment Relationship

Variable	Affective Commitment				
	Cumulative R	Cumulative R ²	Amount of Increment in R ²	Percentage increment in R ²	F (310)
SFS	.3992	.1594			20.57***
Family Demands	.4006	.1604	.0010	.006	.30 ns
SFS * Family Demand	.4012	.1609	.0005	.003	.18 ns

(***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

TABLE 9.4

H9.4: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Family Demands as a Moderator of the Perceived Supervisory Family Support - Continuous Commitment Relationship

Variable	Continuance Commitment				
	Cumulative R	Cumulative R ²	Amount of Increment in R ²	Percentage increment in R ²	F (310)
SFS	.2433	.0592			6.68**
Family Demands	.2435	.0593	.0001	.002	.05 ns
SFS * Family Demand	.2438	.0594	.0001	.002	.05 ns

(***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

In none of the analyses did the proportion of explained variance rise significantly with the introduction of the interaction variable. This was somewhat surprising, for, as stated earlier, it was expected that individuals who are more in need of this type of support would have a greater appreciation, and for many reasons previously discussed, be more strongly committed.

Work Outcomes Results

One of the reasons that commitment is a useful dependent variable to study is because it has been consistently associated with bottom-line work outcomes that policy makers can relate to: turnover, absenteeism, lateness, and performance. The survey afforded the opportunity of requesting self-reports on these items, so it was decided to attempt a replication of past results. This was not intended as the primary focus of this study. There can be problems associated with self-report measures. This section is offered as replications of previously established findings..

Hypothesis 10.1 & 10.2 predict that affective and continuance commitment will be negatively related to turnover. The sample was small, $n=97$ (turnover data was collected at time two), with 24 subjects actually having left the firm. The relationships were negative, but did not reach levels of statistical significance (affective/turnover $r = -.16$, $p = .062$, continuance/TO $r = -.15$, $p = .081$).

TABLE 10.1&10.2

Hypothesis 10.1 & .2: Affective and Continuance Commitment will be negatively related to turnover	Turnover
Affective Commitment (AC)	- .16 ns
Continuance Commitment (CC)	- .15 ns

Notes: n =97, (***=p < .001, **=p < .01, *=p < .05)

Hypothesis 10.3 posited that affective commitment would be negatively related to absenteeism, and this was supported ($r = -.10, p < .05$).

TABLE 10.3

Hypothesis 10.3: Affective Commitment will be negatively related to absenteeism.	Absenteeism
Affective Commitment (AC)	- .10*

Notes: n =310, (***=p ≤ .001; ** =p ≤ .01; * =p < .05)

Hypothesis 10.4 predicted that affective commitment would be negatively related to lateness. This prediction was not supported ($r = -.04, ns$).

TABLE 10.4

Hypothesis 10.4: Affective Commitment will be negatively related to lateness.	Lateness
Affective Commitment (AC)	- .04 ns

Notes: n =310, (***=p < .001, **=p < .01, *=p < .05)

Hypothesis 10.5, stated that affective commitment would be positively related to performance, and it was supported ($r = .14, p = .01$).

TABLE 10.5

Hypothesis 10.5: Affective commitment will be positively related to performance.	Performance
Affective Commitment (AC)	.14**

Notes: n =97, (**= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Hypothesis 10.6.& 10.7, predicted that both affective and continuance commitment would be negatively related to job search behavior, and this was supported(affective/JSB $r = -.39$, $p < .001$, continuance/JSB $r = -.38$, $p < .001$).

TABLE 10.6&.7

Hypothesis 10.6 &.7: Affective and continuance commitment will be negatively related to job search behavior.	Job Search Behavior
Affective Commitment (AC)	-.39***
Continuance Commitment (CC)	-.38***

Notes: n =310, (**= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Summary of Individual Level of Analysis Results

The hypotheses were generally supported. Through correlational analysis, support was found for all hypotheses relating family support to commitment, even when confounding factors of years at work and work family conflict were controlled for. As predicted, organizational family support and supervisory family support were each found to be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment.

As for the longitudinal data results, in summary, the prediction that the

support/commitment relationships would remain stable over time, was generally upheld. The one exception was that the AFFI/Continuance commitment relationship, was stronger at time two than at time one. AFFI is an index of policies, so perhaps another year or two of policy exposure, or even increased opportunity to use such programs and policies, strengthens the tie to continuance commitment.

As for the hypotheses predicting that sex moderates the commitment support relationships (perceived organizational family support/affective and continuance commitment; perceived supervisory family support/affective and continuance commitment), the perceived supervisory family support index correlated with both types of commitment significantly more among females than among males. No support was found for the perceived organizational family support/commitment relationships being different due to the sex of the individual.

The hypotheses stating that family demands would moderate the support commitment relationships (perceived organizational family support/affective and continuance commitment; perceived supervisory family support/affective and continuance commitment) received almost no support through subgroup analysis. The subgroup of married vs. unmarried was the only subgroup with a significant difference. There was no support for these hypotheses from hierarchical multiple regression.

The hypotheses regarding the relationships between commitment and work outcomes were intended to replicate prior research findings. They did, partially. The turnover and lateness relationships were disappointing, but the turnover sample was small, and the lateness was a self-report (which tends to be unreliable). Commitment had small, but significant correlations with absence (affective, only) and performance (affective and continuance). Both of these measures (absence and performance) were also self-report. The relationships of both commitments to job search behavior were significant and sizable.

Organizational/Supervisory Group Level of Analysis

Why Aggregate?

The next group of hypotheses parallels the first set, but predictions pertain to the group level. Researchers are often interested in comparing correlations between variables at different levels of analysis (e.g., individual and organizational) to determine if the same relationships hold across the levels (c.f. George, 1990). Some researchers have begun to hypothesize that stronger relationships between variables may be found at higher levels of analysis (e.g., Schneider, 1985). Indeed some studies which have found stronger correlations at the organizational level (compared to the individual level) have focused on: climate perceptions and context, demographics, and structure (Jones & James, 1979); satisfaction and performance (Ostroff, 1992); commitment and turnover (Angle & Perry, 1981); and job attitudes and stress

(Schmitt, Colligan, & Fitzgerald, 1980).

When data are aggregated from the individual level to the organizational level, special care must be taken to see that this is justified. First there must be a theoretical justification. The assumption is that the aggregated variable represents another form of the construct at a higher level of analysis (Rousseau, 1985). Several authors have proposed rules for judging whether the aggregated variable is a good measure of the organizational construct (James, Demaree, & Wolfe, 1984, 1993; George, 1990; George & James, 1993).

Ostroff (1993) advances a general hypothesis that correlations between two variables will hold or be stronger at the organizational level than at the individual level. She further theorizes that this can be interpreted two ways. First is the notion of homology; second is the notion of group processes and interdependencies.

Homology exists when the relationship between two variables behaves the same, or is predicted to be of the same nature, at the individual and organizational levels of analysis (assuming that the constructs are appropriate for conceptualization at the higher level [Ostroff, 1993; George, 1990]). Homology can explain why a correlation will hold at a higher level. Theoretically, the same processes operate at both levels of analysis, and individual linkages and organizational linkages parallel each other. In the hypotheses presented here (1a-7a) there is the assumption that this is true. Family support is a climate variable that should affect average levels of individual

commitment at the group level, much the way it is an individual perception affects individual commitment. Thus at the group level, predictions are expected to be as strong as at the individual level.

Additionally, it can be thought that different processes operate at the two levels (or even, that different constructs are represented, as in the case of individual psychological climate vs. work group climate). A stronger correlation may exist at the organizational level because the resulting interdependencies could be captured at the organizational level (Ostroff, 1993). In the case of a family supportive climate, there may be better group communication, group norms of understanding and cooperation, and mutual trust, which all work interdependently to enhance the relationship between family support and commitment. There was insufficient theory in the literature to substantiate making these types of hypotheses. Yet, because the data were available, the potential relationships were posed as research questions. Thus, the second set of statements in this section (1b-5b).

These group level hypotheses are not meant to supplant the individual level ones. Individual-level relationships are essential to understanding how an individual responds to support. Rather, it is hoped that additional information at the work-group level may facilitate further research into those group-level processes that might be at work.

Is it Appropriate to Aggregate?

Once a theoretical rationale has been proposed for looking at aggregated data, steps must be taken to confirm that it is statistically appropriate to aggregate. In this study the independent variables were perceived organizational family support (measured by POFS), and perceived supervisory family support (measured by SFS).

Theoretically, the notion of family support at the individual level of analysis was viewed as the individual's perception of the organizational and supervisory support available to them in balancing their work and family lives. At the group level we theorize that there exists a climate of support in which the group of employees works. According to the commitment theories reviewed earlier, this should lead to a group commitment -- a sense of company spirit, loyalty, or morale amongst members of the group.

We need to examine the data to see if aggregation of POFS and SFS scores is justified. According to Lindell and Brandt (1996), it has long been accepted that a necessary precondition for aggregating the ratings of different individuals into an overall evaluation is a confirmation that the raters agree about the object (or construct) being rated, and thus produce similar ratings of such objects. A logical basis for this is provided by Schneider and Bowen (1985) who suggest that similarity within settings is to be expected, but that one must test for *agreement* within settings. If members of groups demonstrate a certain amount of agreement amongst themselves

as to their evaluation of a target (in this case, organizational support and supervisory support), then the target is more likely to be a true group level variable, rather than an individual perception.

Support for the aggregation of the data for the POFS instrument is sought through measures of agreement. It is possible to obtain such agreement because the instruments asked respondents to judge the same targets (organizational family support and supervisory family support). The nature of the commitment instruments is such that individuals were asked only about indications of their own commitment, not to render an assessment of generalized group commitment. Without individual judgements of a single outside target, measures of agreement are rendered meaningless. Our aggregation of the commitment data to a group level, and any conclusions drawn using this aggregation, must therefore be approached with caution. It may approximate the notion of group commitment by aggregating individual scores, but there is no assurance that this is valid to do.

Intraclass Correlation Coefficients

When more than one judge is rating a target, intraclass correlation coefficient measures (ICC's) can be computed to see if consistency exists among the judges. These tests are based on analysis of variance, where the proportion of variance attributable to the target is considered to be the degree of absolute agreement on K (number of judges) measures. Shrout and Fleiss (1979) contend that the proper

method for a series of single targets, rated each by a unique set of K number of raters (this study's design) is the $ICC_{(1)}$, a one-way ANOVA intraclass correlation. Bartko (1976) offers the following formula for the $ICC_{(1)}$, where K is the number of judges:

$$ICC_{(1)} = \frac{(\text{Between Mean Squares} - \text{Within Mean Squares})}{(\text{Between Mean Squares} + [K-1] \text{ Within Mean Squares})}$$

With between mean squares (BMS) and within mean squares (WMS), being obtained through one-way ANOVA.

Mathematically, $ICC_{(1)}$ scores can range from a low of $-1/(K-1)$ (where $BMS = 0$, and $WMS = 1$) to 1.0. It is 1.0 when the within target variance is zero, and the between mean square is greater than 0. A within variance of zero indicates identical ratings for the target, by the raters (i.e. all raters agree) and hence is consistent with a reliability of 1, or perfect agreement.

Shrout and Fleiss (1979) offer a second type of intraclass correlation coefficient, the ICC_K . This is pertains to when the choice of a mean rating, as opposed to individual ratings, is used. In aggregation we are looking at a mean rating (for POFS and SFS) of the three judges (coworkers), as the independent variable. This index is obtained by applying the Spearman-Brown formula to the appropriate ICC index, which is the above stated $ICC_{(1)}$, for this study design. The formula offered by Shrout and Fleiss is:

$$ICC_{(1,K)} = (BMS - WMS)/BMS$$

Because a mean rating of all judges is being used, the K drops out of the formula.

This index will always be greater than the ICC_1 , provided the ICC_1 is positive.

In the present study a one-way analysis of variance was performed for the two independent variables that were used by the groups of three co-workers to evaluate: organizational family support (POFS) instrument and perceived supervisory family support (the SFS instrument). Only the groups that had three raters were run (there were a few with only two), as the formulas were not designed to accommodate varying numbers of raters. It was found that for the POFS measures ICC_1 was .29, and $ICC_{(1,K)}$ was .54. For the SFS measures ICC_1 was .38, and $ICC_{(1,K)}$ was .65. The fact that these numbers are positive and significant in magnitude indicates consistency among judges for the two measures. The magnitudes of the ICC_K 's (.54 and .65) indicate that aggregation might be appropriate.

One recently cited problem concerns group size (Bliese & Halverson, 1996). It was pointed out that a small group of three or four raters can have large variance due to the impact that one individual's scores. Small group size can, therefore, artificially inflate the amount of variance attributable to group properties. As this study has small groups we need to look further for statistical assurance that aggregation is appropriate. For a stronger indication, another type of analysis was performed: the $r_{wg(j)}$.

Interrater Agreement ($r_{wg(i)}$)

Some researchers have suggested that the appropriate test for within-setting agreement is a measure of homogeneity, rather than an index such as the ICC which requires between-setting differences to show significance. It has also been noted that systematic response bias should be accounted for. James, Demaree, and Wolfe (1984; 1993) suggested that ICC's may yield inaccurately low estimates of agreement. To determine if consistency of evaluation exists within groups, the $r_{wg(i)}$ coefficient described in James et al. (1984) was calculated. This measure determines the proportion of systematic variance in a set of judgements in relation to the total variance in the judgements, while controlling for response bias. This interrater coefficient of agreement can be interpreted similarly to a reliability coefficient. It has emerged increasingly in the literature as the favored test of interrater agreement (George, 1990; Kozlowski & Hattrup, 1992; Lindell & Brandt, 1996).

Each of K judges has rated a set of J items that measure the same construct. Two preconditions exist to perform this analysis: (a) the items must be shown to have acceptable psychometric properties (internal consistency and construct validity), and (b) the items are an approximate interval response scale (James et al., 1984). Both preconditions for the POFS and SFS are satisfied in the present study.

Total variance can be decomposed into two components, random measurement error variance, and systematic variance. Systematic variance is further divided into

true variance and variance due to systematic error that reflects a common response bias among judges (which could inflate the index artificially). The computational formula for the mean scores based on J essentially parallel items is:

$$r_{wg(j)} = \frac{J[1 - (\text{mean of observed variance on } J \text{ items/error variance})]}{J[1 - \text{mean of obs. var. on } J \text{ items/error variance}] + (\text{mean of obs. variance on } J \text{ items/error var})}$$

In other words, it is the proportion of non-error variance of the J essentially parallel items, over the proportion of non-error variance plus the proportion of error variance that is present in observed ratings. The error variance is derived from expected error variance, based on a uniform distribution, which in turn is based on the number of alternatives in the response scale.

For interpretation of $r_{wg(j)}$ James (personal communication May 6, 1996) suggests a value of .7 or above is necessary to demonstrate consistency within a group. James (1996) also commented that the problem of having small work group samples (usually only three coworkers or judges) was the potentially high variance within groups, which would lead to a misleadingly low $r_{wg(j)}$ score. High scores could therefore be interpreted as agreement with some degree of confidence; lower scores would be difficult to interpret. His advice was that only the data from groups with $r_{wg(j)} \geq .70$ should be aggregated and used for further analysis. This way there could be some confidence that agreement exists among the groups aggregated.

Lindell and Brandt (1996) further refined the index. While their review of the literature concluded that $r_{wg(j)}$ was based on a sound conceptual foundation as a

measure of agreement, they were concerned about relying on the assumption of uniform distribution as the standard of comparison for the observed distribution of responses. They further noted that, mathematically, the index can have irregular scores due to unexpectedly high variances (numbers over one, and negative numbers), which can be difficult to interpret. Because of the small within-group sample sizes it was expected that there would be large variances (James et al., 1993), so this was especially pertinent to this study. They offered an error term that is based on a maximum dissensus reference distribution, as opposed to the uniform distribution assumed by James. This is based on the maximum amount of variance possible, and thus eliminates the problem of the index landing outside of the zero to one bound. Their index is a general function of the maximum variance of a distribution. It recognizes that scores in a distribution are equally distributed between the upper (X_u) and lower (X_l) extremes of the response scale. The maximum variance distribution is expressed by:

$$s_{mv}^2 = .5(X_u^2 + X_l^2) - [.5(X_u^2 + X_l^2)]^2$$

By using this error term, the "unruly" responses are eliminated, with the value of 1.0 indicating maximum consensus, and 0.0 indicating maximum dissensus. The difficulty of this new measure of $r_{wg(i)}$ lies in finding the correct interpretation of the

value of the index. Lindell (personal communication, June 3, 1996), aided in the interpretation of the $r_{wg(j)}$ scores obtained using the maximum dissensus error term. Given the two scales evaluated for agreement in this study, their numbers of items and potential responses, he suggested cutoff scores of .95 for the POFS scale, and .92 for the SFS scale. These cutoff points were suggested by Lindell (1996) based on his experience and a comparison of the two sets of $r_{wg(j)}$ scores the POFS and SFS measures: one set reached by the regular error term, the other by the maximum dissensus term. For $r_{wg(j)}$ scores of .95 and above for the POFS scale, and .92 and above for the SFS scale, we could conclude that agreement among judges exists. Lindell conceded that cut-off points determined this way are somewhat arbitrary, but generally accepted in usage.

The $r_{wg(j)}$'s were computed for this study, using both methods. Using the error term from James et al. (1984, 1993), the POFS measure indicated that 80 out of 106 groups of judges had $r_{wg(j)}$ scores that fell in the range of .70 to 1.0. The SFS measure had 81 scores in that range. Each had a few negative scores, and approximately a dozen scores greater than one.

The presence of negative scores, and scores exceeding one indicated that the $r_{wg(j)}$'s obtained through the maximum dissensus distribution method would be helpful in examining the present data. The $r_{wg(j)}$'s with the maximum dissensus distribution method were computed, and the cutoffs points of POFS $r_{wg(j)}$'s $\geq .95$, SFS $r_{wg(j)}$'s $\geq .92$

.92 were established using the guidelines by Lindell and Brandt (1996), and Lindell (communication June 3, 1996). For the POFS measure, 78 of the groups' $r_{wg(j)}$ scores fell above this baseline, and for the SFS, 84 also fell above. There were 64 organizations in which both POFS and SFS $r_{wg(j)}$'s were interpretable.

Summary of the $r_{wg(j)}$ Scores

The $r_{wg(j)}$ scores help us to determine if interrater agreement exists among judges of a single target. In this study we evaluated agreement for the target of perceived organizational family support (using the scores of the POFS scale), and also for the target of supervisory family support (using scores on the SFS scale). The $r_{wg(j)}$ scores for each group of judges (who were co-workers in the organization) were computed two ways. First, they were computed using the traditional error term in the formula, based on an assumption of a uniform distribution of error. In the majority (76%) of the groups agreement existed for both scores ($r_{wg(j)}$ equalled or exceeded .70). However, the presence of a significant number of negative scores, and scores exceeding 1.0 not only posed problems in interpreting an average score, but also indicated that uniform distribution was not always a proper assumption. The $r_{wg(j)}$ score was then computed using the maximum dissensus error term (Lindell and Brandt, 1996). Using the suggested interpretation of scores for each scale ($r_{wg(j)}$ POFS = .95, and $r_{wg(j)}$ SFS = .92) it was found that not only did agreement exist in the majority of groups for both scores, but also the average $r_{wg(j)}$ score for each scale

exceeded the baseline scores established. This can be interpreted as meaning that interrater agreement generally exists among co-workers who are evaluating their organization's level of family support, and their supervisor's level of family support.

Summary of the Interrater Agreement Issue

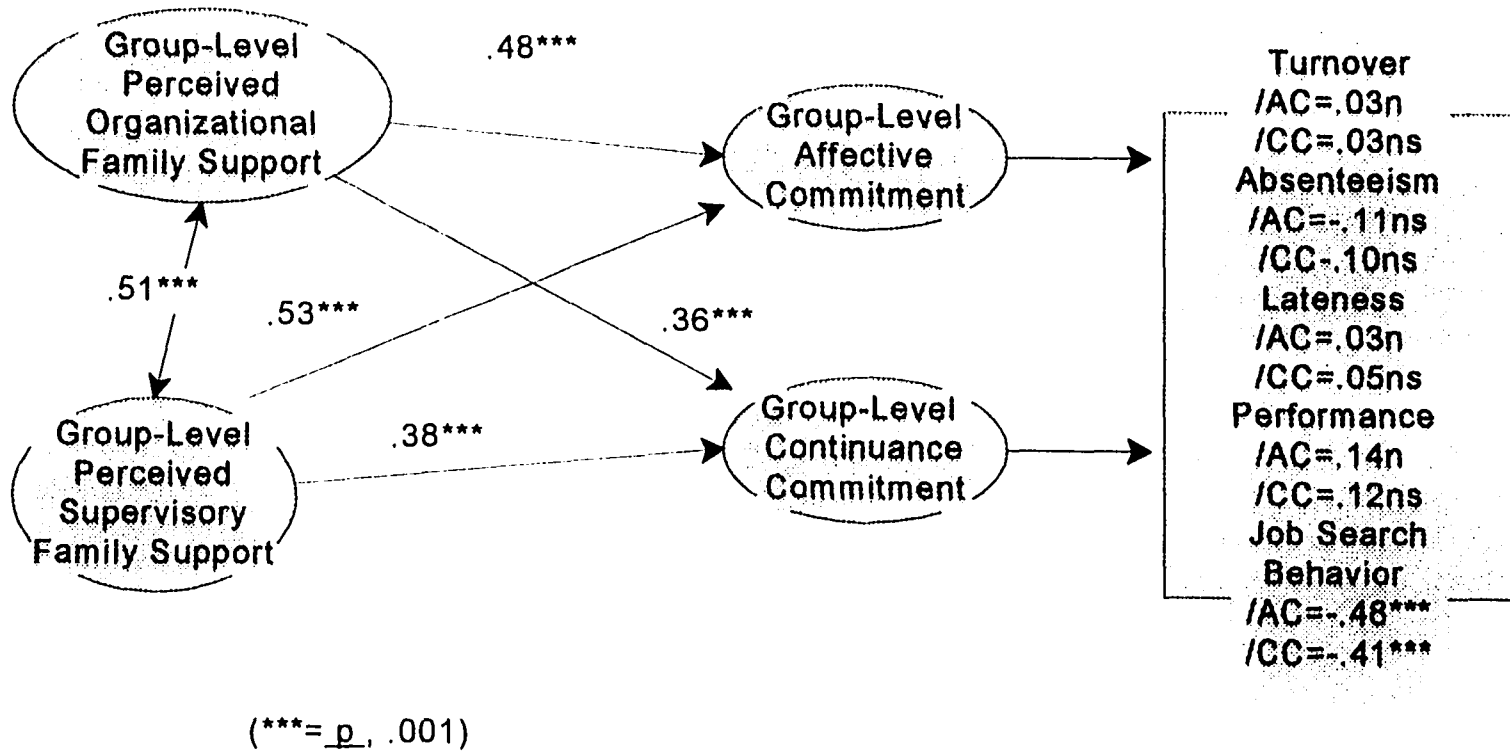
The ICC analyses, with the significant positive results, provided some support for the existence of interrater agreement. The question as to whether aggregation to a higher level of analysis is appropriate was also generally supported.

The $r_{wg(j)}$ analyses provided further, stronger support. In addition, guidelines were provided for choosing which scores to aggregate (i.e., because of the small group size aggregate only those groups whose scores exceeded the established parameters of .92 and .95).

Group Level Hypotheses' Results

The following are the results of testing the hypotheses at the group level. Only data from the groups that had sufficient level of agreement (as based on the $r_{wg(j)}$ maximum dissensus method) were aggregated to test these hypotheses. A summary of the findings is in Figure 6.2.

FIGURE 6.2
 Theoretical Model
 and Correlations
 Group Level of Analysis



Hypothesis 1a predicted that organizational family support would be positively related to perceived supervisory family support across groups. This hypothesis received support, with the Perceived Supervisory Family Support scale (SFS) and the Perceived Organizational Family Support scale (POFS) correlating positively ($r = .51, p < .001$).

TABLE 1A

Hypothesis 1a: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to perceived supervisory family support across groups.	Perceived Supervisory Family Support (SFS)
Perceived Organization Family Support (POFS)	.51***

Notes: $n = 64$, (**= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Hypothesis 2a theorized that organizational family support would be positively related to affective commitment across groups. This was also supported, with the Perceived Supervisory Family Support scale (SFS) and the affective commitment scale correlating positively ($r = .48, p < .001$).

TABLE 2A

Hypothesis 2a: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to affective commitment across groups.	Affective Commitment (AC)
Perceived Organization Family Support (POFS)	.48***

Notes: $n = 78$, (**= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Hypothesis 3a was that organizational family support would be positively related to continuance commitment across groups. This hypothesis was supported, with the Perceived Organizational Family Support scale (POFS) and the continuance commitment scale correlating positively ($r = .36, p < .001$).

Note: these relationships were not significant using the Meyer & Allen scale.

TABLE 3A

Hypothesis 3a: Perceived organizational family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across groups.	Continuance Commitment (CC)
Perceived Organization Family Support (POFS)	.36***

Notes: $n = 78$, (***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Hypothesis 4a predicted that supervisory family support would be positively related to affective commitment across groups. This hypothesis found support, with the SFS and the affective commitment scale correlating positively with ($r = .53, p < .001$).

TABLE 4A

Hypothesis 4a: Perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to affective commitment across groups.	Affective Commitment (AC)
Perceived Supervisory Family Support (SFS)	.53***

Notes: $n = 84$, (***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Hypothesis 5a posited that Perceived Supervisory family support would also be positively related to continuance commitment across groups. This hypothesis found support, with the SFS and the continuance commitment scale correlating positively with ($r = .24, p < .001$).

TABLE 5A

Hypothesis 5a: Perceived supervisory family support will be positively related to continuance commitment across groups.	Continuance Commitment (CC)
Perceived Supervisory Family Support (SFS)	.38***

Notes: $n = 84$, (***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Hypothesis 6a predicted that organizational family support would be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment across groups. An r to z conversion was performed for the obtained correlations. The observed difference was in the predicted direction, but was not significant.

TABLE 6A

Hypothesis 6a: Perceived Organizational Family Support will be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment across groups.	Affective Commitment (AC)	Continuance Commitment (CC)	z
Perceived Organization Family Support (POFS)	.48***	.36***	.90 ns

Notes: $n = 78$, (***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Hypothesis 7a predicted that supervisory family support would be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment across groups. An r to z conversion was performed for the obtained correlations. This difference was in

the predicted direction, but was not significant.

TABLE 7A

Hypothesis 7a: Perceived Supervisory Family Support will be more positively related to affective commitment than to continuance commitment across groups.	Affective Commitment (AC)	Continuance Commitment (CC)	z
Perceived Supervisory Family Support (SFS)	.53***	.38***	.93 ns

Notes: n =84, (**= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Group-level work outcomes

The group-level relationship of affective and continuance commitment to work outcomes was examined. None of the relationships were significant, with the exception of job search behavior. This was related both to affective commitment ($r = -.48$, $p < .001$) and continuance commitment ($r = -.41$, $p < .001$).

Table 10A
Group-Level Relationship of Commitment to Work Outcomes

Group-Level Work Outcomes	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment
Turnover	.03 ns	.03 ns
Absenteeism	-.12 ns	-.10 ns
Lateness	.03 ns	.05 ns
Performance	.14 ns	.12 ns
Job Search Behavior	-.48***	-.41***

Notes: ***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$

Summary of Group Level Hypotheses' Results

In summary, most of the group level hypotheses were supported. The same

predictions that were made at the individual level were supported at the group level.

The directions and the magnitudes of the results were as expected.

Individual vs. Group Level of Analysis

The following research questions were tested by comparing the correlations obtained at the group level of analysis to those of the same work groups obtained at the individual level. Accordingly, only the data for the individuals in the work groups that met the aggregation qualifications were used for these comparisons.

Research Question 1b: Is perceived organizational family support more positively related to perceived supervisory family support across groups, than across individuals?

Research Question 2b: Is perceived organizational family support more positively related to affective commitment across groups, than across individuals?

Research Question 3b: Is perceived organizational family support more positively related to continuance commitment across groups, than across individuals?

Research Question 4b: Is perceived supervisory family support more positively related to affective commitment across groups, than across individuals?

Research Question 5b: Is perceived supervisory family support more positively related to continuance commitment across groups, than across individuals?

In all research questions, 1b-5b, the correlations across groups were greater than the correlations across individuals. None of these differences, tested using an r to z

conversion, was found to be significant. This does not support the notion of an interaction effect.

TABLE 1-5B

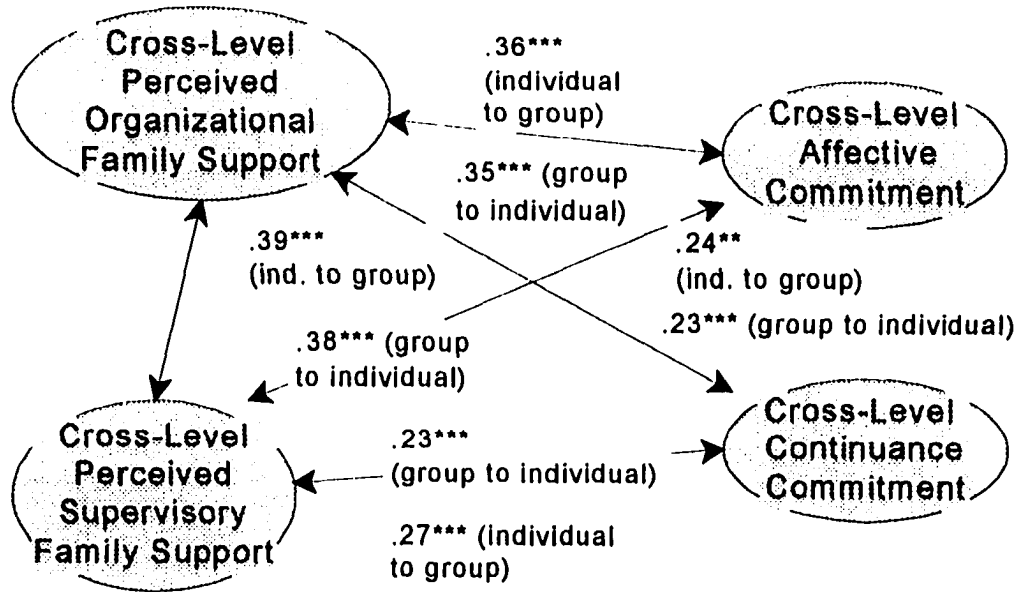
Research Question	Correlation across individuals	Correlation across groups
Research Question 1b: Is perceived organizational family support more positively related to perceived supervisory family support across groups, than across individuals?	.45*** n=190	.51*** n=64
Research Question 2b: Is perceived organizational family support positively related to affective commitment across groups, than across individuals?	.45*** n = 229	.48*** n = 78
Research Question 3b: Is perceived organizational family support more positively related to continuance commitment across groups, than across individuals?	.31*** n = 229	.36*** n = 78
Research Question 4b: Is perceived supervisory family support more positively related to affective commitment across groups, than across individuals?	.36*** n = 248	.53*** n = 84
Research Question 5b: Is perceived supervisory family support more positively related to continuance commitment across groups, than across individuals?	.24*** n = 248	.38*** n = 84

(***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Cross-Level of Analysis

The following research questions were tested by correlating the aggregated support variables obtained at the group-level of analysis to the individual level commitment variables. Accordingly, only the data for the individuals in the work groups that met the aggregation qualifications were used for these comparisons. A summary of the findings for this level is found in Figure 6.3.

FIGURE 6.3
Theoretical Model
and Correlations
Cross-Level Analysis



Additionally it was postulated that there might be another set of parallel relationships. These associate the individual-level support variables with the group-level commitment variables. These are reported as additional findings in italics at the end of each results table.

Research Question 2c: Is group-level perceived organizational family support positively related to individual affective commitment? This was supported, with the aggregated Perceived Organizational Family Support scale (POFS) and the affective commitment scale correlating positively ($r = .35, p < .001$).

TABLE 2C

Research Question 2c: Is group-level perceived organizational family support positively related to individual affective commitment?	Affective Commitment (AC)
Perceived Organization Family Support (POFS)	.35***
<i>Reverse cross-level (individual POFS and group AC)</i>	.36***

Notes: $n = 229$, (***= $p < .001$, **= $p < .01$, *= $p < .05$)

Research Question 3c: Is group-level perceived organizational family support positively related to individual continuance commitment? This research question was supported, with the Perceived Organizational Family Support scale (POFS) and the continuance commitment scale correlating positively ($r = .23, p < .001$).

TABLE 3C

Research Question 3c: Is group-level perceived organizational family support positively related to individual continuance commitment?	Continuance Commitment (CC)
Perceived Organization Family Support (POFS)	.23***
<i>Reverse cross-level (individual POFS and group CC)</i>	.24***

Notes: n = 229, (**=p < .001, **=p < .01, *=p < .05)

Research Question 4c: Is group-level perceived supervisory support positively related to individual affective commitment? This research question found support, with the SFS and the affective commitment scale correlating positively with ($r = .38$, $p < .001$).

TABLE 4C

Research Question 4c: Is group-level perceived supervisory support positively related to individual affective commitment?	Affective Commitment (AC)
Perceived Supervisory Family Support (SFS)	.38***
<i>Reverse cross-level (individual SFS and group AC)</i>	.39***

Notes: n = 248, (**=p < .001, **=p < .01, *=p < .05)

Research Question 5c: Is group-level perceived supervisory support positively related to individual continuance commitment? This research question found support, with the SFS and the continuance commitment scale correlating positively with ($r = .23$, $p < .001$).

TABLE 5C

Research Question 5c: Is group-level perceived supervisory support positively related to individual continuance commitment?	Continuance Commitment (CC)
Perceived Supervisory Family Support (SFS)	.23***
<i>Reverse cross-level (individual SFS and group CC)</i>	.27***

Notes: n = 248, (**=p < .001, **=p < .01, *=p < .05)

Summary of Overall Results

This chapter has presented the substantive results of the study. The measures were previously found to be psychometrically sound (Chapter 5). The hypotheses were generally confirmed; a summary of results appears in Table 12. The Support/Commitment hypotheses were supported at the individual, longitudinal, and group level. The moderating variable of sex was only supported for supervisory family support. The moderating variable of family demands found almost no support. The commitment/work outcomes hypotheses were partly supported: there was no support for the absenteeism or turnover hypotheses, but strong support for the job search behavior hypotheses. The next chapter discusses these results, and their implications.

Table 6.3 - HYPOTHESIS RESULTS

(y=support, n=no support) for I=Ind. level, L=longitudinal, G=Group, X=Cross	I	L	G	X
1: Perceived organizational family support will be + related to perceived supervisory family support.	Y	Y	Y	n/a
2: Perceived organizational family support will be + related to affective commitment.	Y	Y	Y	Y
3: Perceived organizational family support will be + related to continuance commitment.	Y	Y	Y	Y
4: Perceived supervisory family support will be + related to affective commitment.	Y	Y	Y	Y
5: Perceived supervisory family support will be + related to continuance commitment.	Y	Y	Y	Y
6: Perceived organizational family support will be more + related to affective comm.	Y	n/a	N	n/a
7: Perceived supervisory family support will be more + related to affective comm.	Y	n/a	N	n/a
8.1: The positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and affective commitment will be stronger among females than males.	N	n/a	n/a	n/a
8.2: The positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and continuance commitment will be stronger among females than males.	N	n/a	n/a	n/a
8.3: The positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and affective commitment will be stronger among females than males.	Y	n/a	n/a	n/a
8.4: The positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and continuance commitment will be stronger among females than males.	Y	n/a	n/a	n/a
9.1: The higher the family demand the stronger the positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and affective commitment.	N	n/a	n/a	n/a
9.2: The higher the Family Demand the stronger the positive relationship between perceived organizational family support and continuance commitment.	N	n/a	n/a	n/a
9.3: The higher the family demand the stronger the positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and affective commitment.	N	n/a	n/a	n/a
9.4: The higher the family demand the stronger the positive relationship between perceived supervisory family support and continuance commitment.	N	n/a	n/a	n/a
10.1: Affective commitment will be negatively related to turnover.	N	n/a	n/a	n/a
10.2: Continuance commitment will be negatively related to turnover.	N	n/a	n/a	n/a
10.3: Affective commitment will be negatively related to absenteeism.	Y	n/a	n/a	n/a
10.4: Affective commitment will be negatively related to lateness.	N	n/a	n/a	n/a
10.5: Affective commitment will be + related to performance.	Y	n/a	n/a	n/a
10.6: Affective commitment will be negatively related to job search behavior.	Y	n/a	n/a	n/a
10.7: Continuance commitment will be negatively related to job search behavior.	Y	n/a	n/a	n/a

CHAPTER SEVEN

Discussion and Implications

Introduction

To date, most of the literature and research in the area of work/family relationships have focused on conflict between work and personal life and the antecedents and consequences of this conflict. A few studies have looked at the effects of one or a limited number of family-friendly practices, and these studies have generally limited their scope to employees with family demands. Some studies have examined a single organization comprehensively. There is no doubt that work/family conflict, in its many forms, exists and has a strong impact on the individual and the organization. This study, however, attempts to look at the nature of work/family life balance and the role an organization plays in improving it, in a more global manner. By examining the construct of overall organizational support, and relating it to the construct of commitment (which has a previously established value to an organization) a tangible reason for organizations to pay attention is offered.

As shown in Chapter Six, the hypotheses advanced were generally supported. The new measures developed to assess two types of support were found psychometrically sound. There was a correspondence between what human resource professionals said about their organizations, with what employees said about the same organizations. In this chapter, each finding, and its implications, is discussed with attention to both

further research and the practical implications for organizations. The limitations of this study are also pointed out. Future directions for research are suggested.

The Measures of Work-Family Support

This study used four measures to assess organizational and supervisory work-family support. To benchmark, organizations need tools to evaluate themselves and assess their standing in relation to others. The measures used in this study can facilitate this process.

Organizational Family Support Measurement

There were three measures of organizational support used in this study: the ten-item Perceived Organizational Family Support scale (POFS), the Adapted Family-Friendly Index (AFFI), and the modified version of this index (ModAFFI), designed to be answered by the organization's human resource professionals.

The POFS measure appeared to be psychometrically sound in this study. It is easy to administer and quick to complete. Because it assesses the perceptions of individual employees, it can be argued that this limits its usefulness (perceptions can be biased, easily influenced by noise, unique to the individual, etc.). However, it can also be argued that perception is reality, and in this case, a reality that should be acknowledged and addressed. We can find out about the policies an organization purports to offer, but without seeing how it is perceived "in the trenches," we can make no useful conclusions about how these policies affect individuals and groups.

For instance, a company may purport to offer extended leaves, or referral services, but none of the employees may know of it, or take advantage of it, even if offered.

Moreover, in this study, a link between perception and "reality" was sought and found. Not only did the perceptual measure correlate well with the relatively more factual policy measure (AFFI), which was filled out by the same individual, but it also correlated moderately well with the policy measure (ModAFFI) provided by the third-party human resource professional from the organization itself. These latter two scales measured tangible aspects of support, one of the two components of the POFS scale. This finding is significant in because it provides convergent validity evidence and obviates the problem of common method variance. Using measures collected from the same source, Mod AFFI correlated significantly with POFS ($r = .28, p < .001$) and with AFFI ($r = .45, p < .001$). There was an association ($r = .24, p < .01$) between the third party measure of the independent variable (the ModAFFI completed by the human resource professional) and one of the dependent variables (affective commitment). Thus we are provided with some evidence that the results in this study are not simply due to common method variance.

By using specific measures on the POFS scale it was found that most work groups agreed in their perceptions of organizational support. This lends credence to the idea that it is not only the individual's psychological climate that is being assessed, but also a work-group climate.

The POFS measure can be useful to organizations in a variety of ways. It can yield a quick assessment of whether a problem exists in the family-support system; or, organizations that wish to verify that the policies and programs they offer are having the intended effect, can get an idea of this relatively easily. If an organization is aware that a problem exists, this instrument can help them see if it lies more in the tangible/policy arena, or the intangible/culture support arena.

For more specific feedback on employee knowledge and availability assessment of organizational policies, the AFFI could prove useful. This instrument is more time-consuming to fill out, but still not an onerous burden. Organizations could pinpoint areas where there might be a delivery problem, or a lack of information available to the employee.

The modified version of this instrument (ModAFFI) can be used to compare what the human resource people report to what the employees report. Problems could be identified accordingly. Within industry groups, organizations could compare themselves to each other and benchmark.

Perceived Supervisory Family Support Measurement

Several useful concepts concerning supervisory support were supported in this study. The six-item Supervisory Family Support scale (SFS) itself appeared psychometrically sound, and construct valid. Through factor analysis, a distinction between this measure and that of organizational family support was established,

despite a high correlation between them. Since the SFS is asking the individual's assessment of the supervisor's support, it is a perceptual measure. However, this is tempered by the fact that the items are fairly objective because they focus on the supervisor's behavior toward all employees (e.g. "The subordinates in my department feel free to discuss family problems that affect work with my supervisor").

Organizations can easily use the SFS measure to assess the level of supervisory support in general, or in specific work-groups. This information can be used to assess training needs, or to determine if policy changes are needed.

The Constructs of Support

The previous section discussed what was learned from this study about the measurement of family support constructs in the organization. Next, the focus is on what has been learned about the constructs themselves.

Perceived Organizational Family Support

The construct of perceived organizational family support appears to be a two-dimensional construct. Current theorizing, and the present factor analysis, show that individuals seem to distinguish between tangible support (as in policies regarding the work/family interface and the actual implications of these policies), and intangible support (as a climate of support, a notion that the organization is understanding of and flexible about the conflicts that may arise).

The fact that an individual distinguishes between these two facets of support seems

to imply that an organization interested in being perceived as supportive by its employees needs to look beyond the policies it offers. The organization must be aware of how policies translate into practice. Additionally they must be aware that the mere presence of official policies is not enough. A climate of acceptance, support, and flexibility needs to be fostered.

Perceived Supervisory Family Support

There does appear to be a separate construct of perceived supervisory support related to perceived organizational support. It can be inferred that organizations need to pay separate attention to the level of support provided by the supervisor.

Supervisors are first line representatives in the organization and gatekeepers of organizational information. Training this level of employee to provide family support can be a valuable endeavor.

The Relationship Between Organizational and Supervisory Family Support

The two major types of support are correlated, but as seen through factor analysis, distinct from each other. We theorized in this study that organizational support should have a positive influence on supervisory support. This implies that it is not enough for the organization to just set the example (through policies and even a climate of support), and hope for the supervisor to be influenced positively. The organization's management must be sure that the supervisor is reinforcing the policies and climate that the organization wishes to convey.

One of the study's findings was that, despite the fact that three measures of organizational support (POFS, AFFI, Mod AFFI) correlated highly with each other, and the fact that the Perceived Supervisory Family Support measure (SFS) correlated with both the individual perceptual measures (POFS) and the individual's policy index (AFFI), there was no significant correlation between the ModAFFI (answered by the human resource department) and the SFS measure. The AFFI (answered by the individual) was only slightly correlated ($r = .15, p < .01$). The lack of correlation could be attributed to the fact that the ModAFFI and AFFI do not measure the factor of intangible support, or that of a climate of support.

The Support/Commitment Relationships

The fact that all of the hypothesized relationships in the area of family support were positively related to commitment, was very encouraging. This was true for both types of support (organizational and supervisory), and for the two types of commitment (affective and continuance). The results were sustained longitudinally, and at the group level of analysis. The findings give some degree of confidence that an organization that provides family support can expect a more committed workforce.

The only unexpected result in the basic (unmoderated) commitment/support relationships was the longitudinal relationship of the AFFI instrument to continuance commitment. This was found to be significantly stronger at time two than at time one. It might be interesting to consider that, over time, the presence and availability of

certain policies (which is what AFFI measures), become more salient to an individual, as they start to have children or dependent adults. As employees realize that these benefits might not be available elsewhere, this could explain a strengthening of the relationship.

It was predicted that support would be more strongly related to affective commitment, than continuance commitment. This was supported. While both types of commitment are valuable to organizations, the affective commitment of an employee, being of a less calculative nature, may be more elusive to attain, and therefore more valuable.

Concerns have recently been voiced, in popular and academic literature, that there is (or may soon be) a backlash to the attention being paid to employees with families (Jenner, 1994; Williams, 1994). The thought is that employees without many family demands may resent the policies (and inherent resources) that differentially and selectively advantage others who have more demands. While this study does not address this directly, it is assumed that the demonstration of family support in the organization would have a positive influence on the commitment of all individuals. The moderator results support this, lending no support to the notion of backlash.

Again, it will be noted that measures of support did not have the same significant relationships to the secondary measure of continuance commitment (the Meyer and Allen scale) as they did to the primary measure. Although there are sound reasons for

using the primary measure (outlined in previous chapters), this is disturbing. The problems that the wording presented for this particular sample (as attested to by the pretest results), complicated by the fact that the survey in total was long, might have meant that patience with an oddly worded instrument could have been low.

Moderators of the Support/Commitment Relationships

Family demands did not have the moderating effect predicted. There was no evidence that the saliency of the family support strengthened the relationship between support and commitment. The theory behind this hypothesis seemed sound, and it is disappointing to find a lack of evidence to support hypothesized relationships. Nevertheless, it is encouraging to find that the relationship between family support and commitment does not depend on having high family demands. One explanation lies in the possibility that, although this particular sample was not high in actual family demands, it may have been high in interest in family. The sample was of the self-selection nature. Individuals chose to participate based on the knowledge that the general area of research was work and family. I believe this also led to the higher amount of female participation. Grover (1991) and Grover & Crooker (1995) found support for the notion that degree of potential interest in family support (i.e., acknowledging that one day it may be needed) was a stronger moderator of the support commitment relationship, than actual family status.

The sex of the individual was also hypothesized to moderate the support

commitment relationships, with women having the stronger relationships. Through subgroup analysis it was seen that only in the case of supervisory support was positive evidence of this hypothesis found. The basic idea behind this hypothesis was that in our culture, where women have traditionally had the primary responsibility for the family, the presence of family support would be more salient than to men. Perhaps this suggests that the direct effect that the supervisor has on a day to day basis is more salient to women who deal with the day to day conflicts and is most relative to SFS "when the tire meets the road."

Longitudinal Results of the Support/Commitment Relationships

The predictions that the same positive results for the support/commitment relationships would be found at time two were generally upheld. Implicit to the commitment formation theories is an assumption of stability, so it is reassuring to find it in the present study. The one exception was the AFFI/continuance commitment correlation, which was significantly stronger at time two. The AFFI was the policy and availability survey. One explanation could be that over time, individuals learn about these policies, and are later seen more valuable to the employee.

Commitment and Work Outcomes

There is a fair amount of previous research which positively associated commitment to desirable work outcome, and vice-a-versa (which is why commitment was chosen as a primary variable). Replication of the previously established

relationships was undertaken in this study. The work outcome measurement (absenteeism, tardiness, performance, job search behavior, and turnover) instruments were all self-report, with the attending problems, (Crampton, 1994; Johns, 1994; Harrison & McLaughlin, 1996). The time two response rate, (which asked about turnover) was low (less than a third of the original sample). Despite these problems, more than half of the predicted relationships were supported by significant correlations. This reaffirms the notion that commitment has a tangible value to the organization.

Group-level Effects

The design of this study allowed us to look at work groups within a variety of organizations. We could find theoretical justification for hypothesizing that a relationship could exist between a group-level construct of support -- a climate for the work group -- and a group-level notion of commitment -- a morale or group spirit sense of commitment. Homology, where relationships that exist at the individual-level are replicated at the group-level, was theoretically supported. Any other interactions at the group-level that might reinforce or strengthen the commitment/support relationship, were not evidenced.

As noted in the results section, support for the aggregation of the data for the POFS and the SFS instruments was found through measures of agreement. It was possible to use these because the design required multiple individuals to judge the

same targets, organizational support and supervisory support. However, the nature of the commitment instruments was such that individuals were asked only about indications of their own commitment, not to render an assessment of the outside target of group commitment. Lacking multiple judgements of a single outside target, measures of agreement would have been rendered meaningless. Therefore, the aggregation of the commitment data to a group-level, and any conclusions drawn using this aggregation, must be approached with caution. We hoped to approximate the notion of group commitment by aggregating individual commitment, but there is no reassurance that this is a valid extrapolation.

The results did indicate that there is some support for the hypothesized group-level relationships. The results also indicated support for the hypothesized cross-level relationships. It seems that there may be a relationship between a group-level support (or climate of support) and individual-level commitment.

Without further research we can only say that these are encouraging signs. A lack of support might tell us we were on the wrong track, but given the problems with the measurement of group commitment, we can only safely say that relationships apparently exist.

Another caveat at this level of analysis is that we are not really looking at organizations, per se, but a variety of work groups that share a supervisor, drawn from a large number of organizations. For a meaningful analysis of shared perception in

organizations -- or organizational climate -- one would have to look at several work groups within each organization.

Study Limitations

Some limitations of this study were noted above. Noted were such things as the problems of: possible common method variance with the same source providing data for both independent and dependent variables; using aggregates of measures of individual commitment to approximate group commitment, and the absence of multiple work groups within each organization. In this section we will introduce other limitations that may affect the interpretation of the results.

Sample

The sample in this study was not a random sample of an identifiable population from which generalizations might be drawn. All the respondents were from the New York Metropolitan area. There were more women than men (60 percent vs. 40 percent). One third of the sample were students, albeit working adult students. The overall family demands of the sample were lower than that of the general adult population. In this sample 33% of the subjects listed themselves as not married while 22.9% of the general adult population of the United States in 1995 was listed as not yet married (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1996), . Fifty-six percent were listed as having no children at home. The occupational level of the sample was overwhelmingly white-collar. Many of the respondent chose the

managerial/professional/administrative (62%) category to describe themselves, compared to the general work force of 41% (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1996). As might be expected from the occupational level, the mean family income level was high (\$63,000), vs. figures closer to \$40,000 for the Northeast and New York (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1996).

The sample of organizations in this study was limited to organizations with more than fifty employees (and most organizations were much bigger than this, with 90% of the organizations having more than 100 employees, and 65% having more than 500). Sixty-six percent were for profit (most of these were large corporations), and 27% were government agencies, or non profit organizations. All of them were located in the New York Metropolitan area.

Research Design

This was a survey designed for correlational analysis, and so it brings with it the attending problems of this method. As with all correlational studies, causality is something we can attempt to assess, but not prove. Through sound theoretical grounding we can hypothesize as to the causality, but must exert caution in interpreting results. The findings using the longitudinal data and the data from outside sources for one of the independent variables help to establish that support is causing commitment, instead of the other way around.

Common method variance

The criticism associated with using the same source to acquire data for both the independent and dependent variables, can be applied here. Earlier in this chapter this problem was addressed and, hopefully, somewhat defused. First, the human resource department provided independent verification (ModAFFI) was obtained for the independent organizational support variables (POFS and AFFI). Also, the AFFI was primarily an objectively worded policy survey. Second, the supervisory support variable (SFS) used behavior focused wording concerning the supervisor's behavior toward the group in general. Third, the indications of agreement between group members for both perceptual variables (the POFS and the SFS) were acceptable.

Response Rate

As with any optional questionnaire survey, the response rate (and ensuing sample of respondents) raised additional concerns as to the generalizability of results. This was not a mail survey, but a personal solicitation. The initial response of accepting a packet of surveys (containing one for themselves and two for coworkers) was influenced by eligibility (organization size, length of employment, number of coworkers), and interest. Although most of those who did not accept packages cited ineligibility as the reason, there still exists the possibility that other self-selection factors were at work. About 20% of the students approached accepted packages, and roughly half of those returned them. It is possible that those who accepted packages

or chose to complete them constituted a distinct subset of those who were approached. In fact, the female students displayed more interest, and, quite possibly, this accounts for the sixty/forty ratio of female to male.

The response rate to the survey at the follow-up was 30 percent. In light of mail survey response rates rarely being over 30% percent (Alreck & Settle, 1985, cited in Thompson et al., 1992), this seems acceptable. There is still the question of self-selection. It was easier to return the survey if you had left your job (there were many fewer questions to answer in that case). With 24 out of 98 respondents claiming this, it is safe to guess that ease of responding was an influencing factor.

The response rate for the organizational (human resources) policy survey was approximately 50%. A look at the composition of the sample of organizations that responded reveals that it was mostly the larger corporations. The respondents, not unexpectedly, also tended to be from the higher scoring organizations. It was anticipated that this might occur because it was postulated that an organization with more such policies would be more eager to share information about that fact.

Co-worker Solicitation

Additionally, the students were asked to solicit co-workers. Anecdotal feedback indicated that many of these people worked in groups that consisted of only three or four eligible individuals, so the entire eligible work group likely was solicited. Yet common sense says that there had to be many instances where there was a choice of

individuals. It would be only natural to assume that in those cases students solicited like-minded individuals (who they were friendly with), because they were comfortable asking them to fill out a lengthy survey.

Not only does the problem with soliciting like-minded coworkers compromise the randomness of the sample, but it also may have had an influence on the measures of agreement. If we have high scores on measures of agreement because individuals who think alike were chosen to participate in the study, we may not be as confident in concluding that support is something workers can generally agree upon. Fortunately, anecdotal feedback indicated that many groups were solicited in their entirety (all three respondents were the entire work group). If this is true then it is less likely that the subjects chose like-minded co-workers over those who thought differently from them.

Another issue clouding the assessment of interrater agreement is the number of judges. Three judges (the three work group members) leaves room for a wide amount of variance, which can lead to lower agreement scores. Groups of ten are more desirable for assessing agreement.

Future Research

As with any study of this nature, more questions were raised than answered. Many opportunities for future research exist. Group-level effects need to be explored more, in a research design specifically planned for this purpose. To truly understand group

phenomena, research can be done that includes measures of group commitment, and also other group-level variables. The design should also include several different work groups within organizations.

To explore better the issue of agreement of raters on the topics of organizational support and supervisory support, a study with larger groups of raters could be conducted. The small size of the rating groups underestimates the level of agreement (James et al., 1993). This, presumably, would reduce the large amounts of variance within groups. The issue of agreement as a construct by itself might be worth looking at. For instance, what may be some of the antecedents of agreement concerning organizational and supervisory support.

It might be interesting and useful to explore the circumstances where the influence of supervisory support on commitment exceeds the influence of organizational support (or vice a versa). On the one hand, the supervisor is often regarded as the primary representative of the organization and gatekeeper of information. This might lead us to believe that, in general, the supervisory family support is more influential than organizational family support. Supervisors, however, may come and go, and that they can be overridden by organizational dictates, which might lead us to conclude that organizational family support is more primary to the commitment relationship. Individual personality traits, age, years at work in the organization, and traits of the supervisor might all influence the relative strength of the relationships.

This study could be replicated with different samples. A different geographic area may be worth looking at, or several specific industry groups. A sample that included a greater number of people with higher family demands could also possibly produce useful information.

Most useful to organizations would be research that can help them actually define the factors that can lead to or enhance the culture of support. For instance, what steps can they take? Which types of cultural reinforcements can they use? Answers to these questions would be invaluable.

Implications for Organizations

This study offers some useful implications for organizations, many of which have been addressed earlier in the chapter. The major implications for organizations of this study is that the findings:

- provide a better understanding of what family support is and how it is attained
- clarify the value-added to organizations by family support initiatives.

Better Understanding of Family Support and How it is Attained

The results of this study can be used by organizations to redefine their ideas concerning support. A single policy splash (like a big day-care center or extended leave) may not have the anticipated impact. We can see now that this is because we need to look at the more global concept, the total picture of how supportive the organization is. A single policy is only part of a climate that includes all of the forms

of tangible support, as well as the intangible aspects of support, and the supervisor's support. Organizations need to examine their work/family cultures to identify factors that lead to the perception of support. Simple communication problems might be a possible answer to a mismatch between what an organization thinks it is doing and employees' perceptions.

Organizations are just beginning to grasp the entire concept of family support. Until recently the approach has been piecemeal, program by program, policy by policy, or at best with an index of policies. In this study we found that family support is:

- a measurable climate-type variable which individuals agree about
- comprised of a tangible and intangible component
- positively related to the family programs and policies
- influenced at the supervisory and organizational level

By demonstrating that supervisory support is an important variable, organizations can see the value of efforts to sensitize supervisors and managers to the issues that comprise a family/work life balance. Incorporating appropriate topics in training is one avenue. Keeping supervisors informed of policy availability is another. Sensitizing supervisors to the fact that productivity is not always a function of hours at the desk, or perfect attendance records, would also be beneficial toward promoting an environment of support.

An interesting off-shoot of this study is the link established between employee

perceptions and the reality of the policies an organization has to offer. This is an interesting area of concern (e.g., does such a link exist?) that has been raised recently (Starbuck and Mezias, 1996). They found little or no research regarding the accuracy of employees perceptions of organizational practices. Here is an indication that perceptions have some degree of accuracy.

Clarification of the Value-Added by Family Support Initiative

The commitment/support relationships established in this study offer some tangible, bottom-line reasons for attaining the benchmark of excellence in family support policies and cultures. The fact that the relationships established in this study hold true for individual with low family demands goes a long way toward dispelling the notion that there might be a "backlash" to attaining the goal of family-friendliness.

Organizations seek to justify expenditure of time and money, especially when it seems to be spent on only one class of workers (i.e. employees with families). In a recent issue of Compensation and Benefit Review Lobel and Faught (1996) suggest that there are four methods of demonstrating that work/life interventions add value to the organization by: (a) demonstrating a reduced human or labor cost, (b) emphasizing long term payoffs associated with human investment, (c) identifying benefits to important organizational stakeholders, and (d) demonstrating how family support reinforces business strategy. Table 7.1 shows how the findings of this study help to clarify the benefits of family support.

Table 7.1
VALUE-ADDED TO ORGANIZATIONS
BY FAMILY SUPPORT INITIATIVES

FINDING	HUMAN COST REDUCTION	HUMAN INVESTMENT	STAKEHOLDER BENEFIT	STRATEGIC ADVANTAGE
Family support leads to commitment.		X		
Commitment is associated with lower absenteeism, job search behavior, and better performance.	X			
The findings are true for all employees, not just employees with families.			X (employees)	
There is a link between programs and perceived family support.			X (employees and their families)	
Family support is measurable and these measurements can be used to:				
- benchmark				X
- assess program impact				X
- symbolically communicate the importance of family support in the organization.				X

Organizational Actions

Given the better understanding of both the concept and the potential value-added by family support, this research offers several implications for organizational action.

Table 7.2 presents them.

Table 7.2
Organizational Action

FINDING	ORGANIZATIONAL ACTION
Family support is a measurable climate-type variable which individuals agree about.	Organizations can benchmark and assess program impact. The measures developed and validated here can facilitate the processes of diagnostic self-assessment -- necessary steps to benchmarking and improvement.
Family support is comprised of a tangible and intangible component.	It takes more than money and programs to be family friendly. Organizations need to examine their work/family climate to identify factors that lead to the perception of support. A climate of acceptance, support, and flexibility needs to be fostered.
Family support is positively related to family programs and policies.	Establishing and maintaining good family programs and policies is still an important part of creating family support.
Family support is influenced at the supervisory and organizational level.	Proper supervisory training can add to family support by sensitizing supervisors to the issues that comprise a family/work life balance and keeping supervisors informed of policy availability.

Conclusion

Organizations have much to gain from fostering commitment in their workforces. The issue of employee loyalty (and retention) is widely acknowledged as a desirable goal. By giving serious attention to the family support systems within their organizations management can hope to attain this goal. Family and work life balance is not a fleeting problem to be addressed by patching programs here and there. It is a permanent part of how almost all employees get their work done. By demonstrating a level of support for the employee, by helping him/her achieve this balance, an organization can hope to gain commitment in return.

Cover letter to students who solicited coworkers

Dear Fellow Student,

Thank you so much for agreeing to help me with my dissertation research. As we have discussed, I will be asking you to:

- ◆ fill out a survey and address label yourself (there is an instruction letter attached)
- ◆ ask two or three co-workers (who have the same supervisor as you) to fill out surveys and return them to you sealed in the envelope provided
- ◆ fill out the company information below
- ◆ collect all materials in the manila envelope provided
- ◆ bring them to your next class

I understand that you have a busy schedule, so I appreciate the effort you put into this. It is important that the field of Organizational Studies learn more about the effect of family policies; your participation will be an invaluable contribution. If you don't have all of the surveys ready for next class, you can give them to your instructor or put them in my mailbox (in the adjunct section of the management department). Any unused materials can be returned with the packet. If you have any questions at all, please call me at (212) 677-2844.

Thanks again!

Eileen W. Jahn

Organization Name: _____

Address: _____

Please describe the kind of organization this is:

Approximately how many employees are there? _____

Cover letter to all participants

Dear Participant,

My name is Eileen Jahn and I am a Ph.D. student in organizational policy studies at Baruch College, which is part of the City University of New York. I thank you for agreeing to fill out the attached survey. This survey is part of my dissertation research and your participation is highly valued.

The research I am conducting is about certain policies or programs an organization may have and how these relate to work attitudes held by employees like yourself. You will be asked questions about yourself, your work behaviors, your attitudes towards your company, and the policies your company has.

Your answers will be completely anonymous and confidential. When you are finished you will seal the survey in the unmarked envelope provided and hand this in to your co-worker. This envelope will only be opened by the researcher. You will also be asked to fill out a return address label so that I may contact you in six months for a follow up survey. At that time I hope to provide you with some preliminary results.

This survey will take about 15 minutes to complete. The questions are in a specific order so that your earlier answers will not be influenced by later questions. Please do not read ahead or go back and change previous answers. It is important that all questions be answered, if you are unsure of an answer please respond to the best of your knowledge.

Thank-you once again for your time and cooperation. I will be in touch with you in six months time. If you have any questions feel free to contact me at (212) 677-2844.

Sincerely,

Eileen W. Jahn

The following questions have to do with your attitudes toward the organization you work for. Throughout this questionnaire the term "organization" will be used to refer to the company/employer that you work for, not the department or division. If, as in the case of a wholly owned subsidiary or franchise, you are unsure as to which entity to refer to, please choose the level that decides the majority of personnel policies for the employees. Please circle the response which most closely represents the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about the organization you presently work for. Please use the following response choices:

AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT SCALE II

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree SD	moderately disagree D	slightly disagree d	neither agree or disagree n	slightly agree a	moderately agree A	strongly agree SA

1. My organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

2. I really feel as if my organization's problems are my own.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

3. I think I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to my present one.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

4. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

5. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

6. I feel like "part of the family" at my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

7. I feel "emotionally attached" to my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

8. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT SCALE II

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

9. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

10. One of the major reasons I continue to work for my organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice - another organization may not match the overall benefits I have.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

11. I feel I have too few options to consider leaving my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving my organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

13. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization now, even if I wanted to.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

14. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

15. It would be too costly for me to leave my organization in the near future.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

16. I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT SCALE I

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

17. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization to be successful.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

18. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

19. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

20. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

21. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

22. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for, over others I considered at the time I joined.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

23. I really care about the fate of this organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

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

24. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

25. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT SCALE I

26. If I were offered a position with another organization I would leave my organization for a slight increase in pay.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

27. If I were offered a position with another organization I would leave my organization for slightly more freedom to be professionally creative.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

28. If I were offered a position with another organization I would leave my organization for slightly more status.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

29. If I were offered a position with another organization I would leave my organization to work with people who are a little friendlier.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

JOB SEARCH BEHAVIOR INDEX

The following is a list of activities that you may or may not have engaged in during the **past 12 months**. Please circle **yes** or **no** in response to the next ten statements concerning these activities.

During the **past year** have you....

- | | | |
|---|-----|----|
| 1. ... read a book about getting a new job? | yes | no |
| 2. ... revised your resume? | yes | no |
| 3. ... sent copies of your resume to a perspective employer? | yes | no |
| 4. ... contacted an employment agency or executive search firm to obtain a job with another organization? | yes | no |
| 5. ... read the classified/help wanted advertisements in the newspapers? | yes | no |
| 6. ... gone on a job interview? | yes | no |
| 7. ... talked to friends or relatives about getting a new job? | yes | no |
| 8. ... sought to transfer to a new a job within your organization? | yes | no |
| 9. ... talked to coworkers about getting a job in another organization? | yes | no |
| 10. ... made any phone inquiries to perspective employers? | yes | no |

The following questions concern your work experiences during the **past 12 months**. Please answer to the best of your memory.

TRAVEL AND OVERTIME

1. In the **past 12 months** how many times were you unable to work late when asked to do so?

_____ times

2. In the **past 12 months** how many times were you unable to travel when asked to do so?
 _____ times

ABSENCES

3. In the **past 12 months** how many total work days have you missed due to the following reasons (Two half days equal one work day; do not include vacation days). (Fill in the total number of days for each reason in the blank.)

- ___ Days due to your own illness or injury.
 ___ Days due to the illness or injury of one of your children.
 ___ Days due the illness or injury of one of your other dependents.
 ___ Days due to late or unavailable child or dependent care provider.
 ___ Days due to other reasons.

LATENESS

4. In the **past 12 months** how many days have you been late due to the following reasons? (Fill in the total number of days for each reason).

- ___ Days late due to your own illness or injury.
 ___ Days late due to your own transportation problems.
 ___ Days late due to the illness or injury of one of your children.
 ___ Days late due to the illness or injury of one of your other dependents.
 ___ Days late due to late or delayed child or dependent care provider.
 ___ Days late due to your dependent's transportation problems.
 ___ Days late due to other reasons.

PERFORMANCE

5. How were you rated on your most recent official performance appraisal (in last 2 years)?

- | | |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------|
| ___ Excellent | ___ Slightly below Average |
| ___ Well Above Average | ___ Below Average |
| ___ Above Average | ___ Well Below Average |
| ___ Slightly better than average | ___ Poor |
| ___ Average | ___ None in last two years |

6. How would you rate your job performance during the past year?

- | | |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------|
| ___ Excellent | ___ Slightly below Average |
| ___ Well Above Average | ___ Below Average |
| ___ Above Average | ___ Well Below Average |
| ___ Slightly better than average | ___ Poor |
| ___ Average | |

WORK FAMILY CONFLICT SCALE

These questions ask about how your family and work lives balance. Please answer using the following seven point scale:

1 strongly disagree SD	2 moderately disagree D	3 slightly disagree d	4 neither agree or disagree n	5 slightly agree a	6 moderately agree A	7 strongly agree SA
---------------------------------	----------------------------------	--------------------------------	---	-----------------------------	-------------------------------	------------------------------

Circle the best answer.

1. I'm often too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

2. After work I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

3. On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

4. My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

5. My personal demands are so great that it takes away from my work.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

6. My superiors and peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life at work.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

7. My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with my family.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

8. My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL FAMILY SUPPORT

Please circle the response which most closely represents the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about the organization you presently work for. Please use the following response choices:

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

1. My organization has a many programs and policies designed to help employees balance work and family life.

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| SD | D | d | n | a | A | SA |

2. My organization makes an active effort to help employees when there is conflict between work and family life.

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| SD | D | d | n | a | A | SA |

3. My organization puts money and effort into showing its support of employees with families.

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| SD | D | d | n | a | A | SA |

4. It is easy to find out about family support programs within my organization.

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| SD | D | d | n | a | A | SA |

5. My organization provides its employees with useful information about how to balance work and family.

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| SD | D | d | n | a | A | SA |

6. My organization helps employees with families find the information they need to balance work and family.

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| SD | D | d | n | a | A | SA |

7. My organization is understanding when an employee has a conflict between work and family.

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| SD | D | d | n | a | A | SA |

8. In general my organization is very supportive of its employees with families.

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| SD | D | d | n | a | A | SA |

9. Employees really feel that the organization respects their desire to balance work and family demands.

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| SD | D | d | n | a | A | SA |

10. My organization is more family-friendly than most other organizations I could work for.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

ADAPTED FAMILY FRIENDLY INDEX

The following is a list of policies/programs that an organization may have established for employees. After each description of a policy or program please circle **yes** if your company has it, **no** if not, and **unsure** if you don't know. If you circle **yes**, please answer all questions pertaining to the policy/program and its availability.

1. Does your organization have **Flextime**: A work schedule that permits flexible starting and quitting times, but requires a standard number of hours within a given time period.

no unsure yes - If yes:

This option is (circle most appropriate answer):

- | | | | | |
|---|---|--|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Fully available
to all
with no
constraints | Available
to most or
with some
constraints | Available
to a few or
with many
constraints | Largely
unavailable
or very
constrained
use | Virtually
unavailable
or constraints
prohibitive |

How much of a range of flexibility do you have in choosing your start time (eg. if you can start anywhere between 8:00 a.m. and 9:00 a.m. you have a 60 min. range)?

___ 120 min. or more ___ 60-119 min. ___ 30-59 min. ___ Less than 30 min.

2. Does your organization offer a **Compressed Work Week**: A standard number of hours is specified, but may be worked in fewer days than normal.

no unsure yes - If yes:

This option is (circle the most appropriate answer):

- | | | | | |
|---|---|--|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Fully available
to all
with no
constraints | Available
to most or
with some
constraints | Available
to a few or
with many
constraints | Largely
unavailable
or very
constrained
use | Virtually
unavailable
or constraints
prohibitive |

3. Does your organization have **Compensatory Time**: Extra hours worked may be used as time off?

no unsure yes - If yes:

This option is (circle the most appropriate answer):

- | | | | | |
|---|---|--|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Fully available
to all
with no
constraints | Available
to most or
with some
constraints | Available
to a few or
with many
constraints | Largely
unavailable
or very
constrained
use | Virtually
unavailable
or constraints
prohibitive |

4. Does your organization offer **Adoption assistance**: a subsidy to parents who are adopting a new child?

no unsure yes - If yes:

What is the amount of the subsidy? ___ More than \$2000 ___ Less than \$2000

5. Does your organization offer **Part-time work**: permanent employees can work a specified number of hours below the standard work week on a regular basis?

no unsure yes - If yes:

This option is (circle the best answer):

1	2	3	4	5
Fully available to all with no constraints	Available to most or with some constraints	Available to a few or with many constraints	Largely unavailable or very constrained use	Virtually unavailable or constraints prohibitive

Are full health benefits available for less than 40 hrs/wk? ____

Are prorated health benefits available for more than 20 hrs/wk? ____

Other (explain) _____

6. Does your organization allow **Job sharing**: Two workers can voluntarily share responsibilities of one full-time job with salary prorated?

no unsure yes - If yes:

This option is (circle the best answer):

1	2	3	4	5
Fully available to all with no constraints	Available to most or with some constraints	Available to a few or with many constraints	Largely unavailable or very constrained use	Virtually unavailable or constraints prohibitive

7. Does your organization offer **Flexplace**: Employees can work at home or at a satellite worksite during regular work hours?

no unsure yes - If yes:

This option is (circle the best answer):

1	2	3	4	5
Fully available to all with no constraints	Available to most or with some constraints	Available to a few or with many constraints	Largely unavailable or very constrained use	Virtually unavailable or constraints prohibitive

8a. Does your organization have **Flexible Benefits**: Employees can choose from a menu of benefits that suit their individual needs?

no unsure yes

8b. Does your company have **Flexible Spending Accounts**: allowing employee's dependent care expenses to be paid by pre-tax dollars?

no unsure yes

9. Does your company offer **Leaves: Child care or family leave (unpaid) permitting an extended time off, beyond the period of disability?**

Leave for new mothers Y N How long? ___ under 3 mos ___ 3-6 mos ___ 7-12mos

Leave for new fathers Y N How long? ___ under 3 mos ___ 3-6 mos ___ 7-12mos

Leave for adoptive mothers Y N How long? ___ under 3 mos ___ 3-6 mos ___ 7-12mos

Leave for adoptive fathers Y N How long? ___ under 3 mos ___ 3-6 mos ___ 7-12mos

Leave for sick dependent care Y N How long? ___ under 3 mos ___ 3-6 mos ___ 7-12mos

If yes for any of the leaves above, in general these leaves are (circle the best answer):

1	2	3	4	5
Fully available to all with no constraints	Available to most or with some constraints	Available to a few or with many constraints	Largely unavailable or very constrained use	Virtually unavailable or constraints prohibitive

Do the leaves in your organization include the following:

All or Some Health Benefits? Y N Job Guarantee? Y N Part-time return? Y N

10. Does your organization offer **Child care discounts: reduced rates for employees who use child care centers, arranged by the company?**

no unsure yes - If yes:

This option is (circle the best answer):

1	2	3	4	5
Fully available to all with no constraints	Available to most or with some constraints	Available to a few or with many constraints	Largely unavailable or very constrained use	Virtually unavailable or constraints prohibitive

11. Does your organization offer **Vouchers: Company subsidization of a percentage of parents' child care costs at programs selected by the parent (company may pay provider directly or reimburse parent)?**

no unsure yes - If yes:

___ 50% reimbursement or more ___ Less than 50% reimbursement

12. Does your company offer **Child care resource and referral: information and counseling to employees in need of child care services.**

no unsure yes - If yes:

___ extensive referral system (in-house or vendor) ___ Personal Counseling
___ Directory only

17. Does your organization provide for **Summer camps**: organization establishes or pays for program that serves children during the summer months.

no unsure yes If yes:

This option is (circle the best answer):

- | | | | | |
|---|---|--|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Fully available
to all
with no
constraints | Available
to most or
with some
constraints | Available
to a few or
with many
constraints | Largely
unavailable
or very
constrained
use | Virtually
unavailable
or constraints
prohibitive |

Company-owned Local program subsidized by company

18. Does your organization offer **Caregiver fairs**: company organizes local care givers to distribute information to employees on company premises.

no unsure yes - If yes: How many per year? ___

19. Does your company offer **Work family seminars**: organization sponsors informational sessions where employees discuss and learn about solutions to family and work/family problems?

no unsure yes - If yes: How many per year? ___

20. Does your organization offer **Work family support groups**: Discussion groups run by employees on various family topics.

no unsure yes

21. Does your company have **Family picnics or events**?

no unsure yes - If yes: How many per year? ___

22. Does your company give **Days off for sick child care**.

no unsure yes - If yes: How many per year? ___

23. If you were to consider taking a job with another organization that had **none** of the benefits, programs, or policies, listed above, how much **more money (than you make now)** would you have to earn to feel that it was equivalent.

- My current organization has none of the benefits, programs, or policies listed above
- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Less than \$1000/yr | <input type="checkbox"/> \$1001-2000/yr | <input type="checkbox"/> \$2001-4000/yr |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$4001-6000/yr | <input type="checkbox"/> \$6000-10,000/yr | <input type="checkbox"/> \$10,001-15,000/yr |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$15,001-25,000/yr | <input type="checkbox"/> More than \$25,000/yr(How much \$ _____) | |
- I would not feel it was equivalent for any amount of money

SUPERVISORY FAMILY SUPPORT SCALE

Please circle the response which most closely represents the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about the supervisor you presently work for. Please use the following response choices:

- | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| strongly
disagree
SD | moderately
disagree
D | slightly
disagree
d | neither
agree or
disagree
n | slightly
agree
a | moderately
agree
A | strongly
agree
SA |

1. The subordinates in my department feel free to discuss family problems that affect work with my supervisor.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

2. My supervisor is very understanding if someone has to leave early or come in late due to a family emergency.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

3. If I or one of my coworkers needed time to attend to family business (doctor or teacher appointments, school plays etc.) my supervisor is very flexible about working this out.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

4. If one of my supervisor's subordinates missed work due to a sick dependent, my supervisor would understand.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

5. My supervisor supports any company policy that helps employees with families.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

6. My supervisor measures people on their overall productivity, not simply hours spent in the office.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

DEMOGRAPHICS/BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

The following questions ask about aspects of your personal life.

For each of the following questions please check the ONE response which most applies to you.

1. Your gender: Female
 Male

2. Your household annual income (total of all wage earners in your household):

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Less than \$15,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$50,001-\$75,000 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$15,001-\$30,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$75,001-\$100,000 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$30,001-\$50,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> over \$100,000 |

Cover letter for follow-up survey sent to all original participants who provided return addresses

May 31, 1995

Dear Participant,

My name is Eileen Jahn and I am a Ph.D. student in organizational policy studies at Baruch College, which is part of the City University of New York. About a year ago you took time from your busy schedule to fill out a survey. The survey is part of my dissertation research and your participation was highly valued. I thank you once again.

The research I am conducting is about management policies or programs an organization may have and how these relate to work attitudes held by employees like yourself. Previously, you answered questions about yourself, your work behaviors, your attitudes towards your company, and the policies your company has.

At the time of the original survey I mentioned that I would be doing a briefer follow-up version in a year's time. This follow up survey is attached. Your answers will be completely anonymous and confidential. When you are finished you can return the survey in the stamped addressed envelope provided. This envelope will only be opened by the researcher.

This survey will take about 10-15 minutes to complete. It is important that all questions be answered, if you are unsure of an answer please respond to the best of your knowledge. Your effort in filling out this survey will contribute to the understanding of the interaction of family and work life, an area that deserves further study. I hope you can find the time to fill this out.

Thank you once again for your time and cooperation. This research would not be possible without your help. If you have any questions feel free to contact me at (516) 678-3923.

As a token of my appreciation I would like to send you some subsequent results and a small gift. Just fill out the return address label and enclose with the survey.

Sincerely,

Eileen W. Jahn

Follow-up survey

THANK-YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO FILL OUT THIS SURVEY!

MATCHING INFORMATION:(the following information will allow me to associate your previous answers with your current ones while maintaining your anonymity)

Please write down the last four digits of your social security number and the month and day of your birth.

Last four digits of SS#

Month of birth Day of birth

In order to match your responses to your co-workers, please write down the name of your organization on the following line:

Are you still employed at the same organization you were working for when you filled out the original survey a year to eighteen months ago?

Yes. If Yes, do you still have the same supervisor? Yes No Please turn to next page and continue filling out the survey.

No. If No, please state the reasons why you left on the lines provided and return only this page to me. Reasons for leaving _____

Not Sure. If you are not sure, Please continue to the next page.

The following questions have to do with your attitudes toward the organization you work for. Throughout this questionnaire the term "organization" will be used to refer to the company/employer that you work for, not the department or division. If, as in the case of a wholly owned subsidiary or franchise, you are unsure as to which entity to refer to, please choose the level that decides the majority of personnel policies for the employees. Please circle the response which most closely represents the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about the organization you presently work for. Please use the following response choices:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree	moderately disagree	slightly disagree	neither agree or disagree	slightly agree	moderately agree	strongly agree
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

1. My organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

2. I really feel as if my organization's problems are my own.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

3. I think I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to my present one.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

4. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

5. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

6. I feel like "part of the family" at my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

7. I feel "emotionally attached" to my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

8. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

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

9. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

10. One of the major reasons I continue to work for my organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice - another organization may not match the overall benefits I have.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

11. I feel I have too few options to consider leaving my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving my organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

13. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization now, even if I wanted to.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

14. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

15. It would be too costly for me to leave my organization in the near future.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

16. I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

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

17. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization to be successful.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

18. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

19. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

20. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

21. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

22. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for, over others I considered at the time I joined.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

23. I really care about the fate of this organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

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

24. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

25. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

26. If I were offered a position with another organization I would leave my organization for a slight increase in pay.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

27. If I were offered a position with another organization I would leave my organization for slightly more freedom to be professionally creative.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

28. If I were offered a position with another organization I would leave my organization for slightly more status.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

29. If I were offered a position with another organization I would leave my organization to work with people who are a little friendlier.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

The following is a list of activities that you may or may not have engaged in during the **past 12 months**. Please circle **yes** or **no** in response to the next ten statements concerning these activities.

During the **past year** have you....

- | | | |
|---|-----|----|
| 1. ... read a book about getting a new job? | yes | no |
| 2. ... revised your resume? | yes | no |
| 3. ... sent copies of your resume to a perspective employer? | yes | no |
| 4. ... contacted an employment agency or executive search firm to obtain a job with another organization? | yes | no |
| 5. ... read the classified/help wanted advertisements in the newspapers? | yes | no |
| 6. ... gone on a job interview? | yes | no |
| 7. ... talked to friends or relatives about getting a new job? | yes | no |
| 8. ... sought to transfer to a new a job within your organization? | yes | no |
| 9. ... talked to coworkers about getting a job in another organization? | yes | no |
| 10. ... made any phone inquiries to perspective employers? | yes | no |

The following questions concern your work experiences during the **past 12 months**. Please answer to the best of your memory.

TRAVEL AND OVERTIME

1. In the **past 12 months** how many times were you unable to work late when asked to do so? _____
times
2. In the **past 12 months** how many times were you unable to travel when asked to do so?
_____ times

ABSENCES

3. In the **past 12 months** how many total work days have you missed due to the following reasons (Two half days equal one work day; do not include vacation days). (Fill in the total number of days for each reason in the blank.)

- Days due to your own illness or injury.
- Days due to the illness or injury of one of your children.
- Days due the illness or injury of one of your other dependents.
- Days due to late or unavailable child or dependent care provider.
- Days due to other reasons.

LATENESS

4. In the **past 12 months** how many days have you been late due to the following reasons? (Fill in the total number of days for each reason).

- Days late due to your own illness or injury.
- Days late due to your own transportation problems.
- Days late due to the illness or injury of one of your children.
- Days late due to the illness or injury of one of your other dependents.
- Days late due to late or delayed child or dependent care provider.
- Days late due to your dependent's transportation problems.
- Days late due to other reasons.

PERFORMANCE

5. How were you rated on your most recent official performance appraisal (in last 2 years)?

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="text"/> Excellent | <input type="text"/> Slightly below Average |
| <input type="text"/> Well Above Average | <input type="text"/> Below Average |
| <input type="text"/> Above Average | <input type="text"/> Well Below Average |
| <input type="text"/> Slightly better than average | <input type="text"/> Poor |
| <input type="text"/> Average | <input type="text"/> None in last two years |

6. How would you rate your job performance during the past year?

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="text"/> Excellent | <input type="text"/> Slightly below Average |
| <input type="text"/> Well Above Average | <input type="text"/> Below Average |
| <input type="text"/> Above Average | <input type="text"/> Well Below Average |
| <input type="text"/> Slightly better than average | <input type="text"/> Poor |
| <input type="text"/> Average | |

Please circle the response which most closely represents the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about the organization you presently work for. Please use the following response choices:

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

1. My organization has a many programs and policies designed to help employees balance work and family life.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

2. My organization makes an active effort to help employees when there is conflict between work and family life.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

3. My organization puts money and effort into showing its support of employees with families.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

4. It is easy to find out about family support programs within my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

5. My organization provides its employees with useful information about how to balance work and family.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

6. My organization helps employees with families find the information they need to balance work and family life.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

7. My organization is understanding when an employee has a conflict between work and family.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

8. In general my organization is very supportive of its employees with families.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

9. Employees really feel that the organization respects their desire to balance work and family demands.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SD	D	d	n	a	A	SA

10. My organization is more family-friendly than most other organizations I could work for.

Second follow-up letter

November 30, 1995

Dear Participant,

My name is Eileen Jahn and I am a Ph.D. student in organizational policy studies at Baruch College, which is part of the City University of New York. About a year ago you took time from your busy schedule to fill out a survey. The survey is part of my dissertation research and your participation was highly valued. I thank you once again.

In May I sent you a follow-up survey that is crucial to completing my research. If you did return that survey, I thank you for your part in this tremendous undertaking. Although there were many of you who responded enthusiastically, I also had many returned unmailable. This has made the outstanding surveys all the more critical to completing my work. For that reason, I am remailing the entire package. I would be most grateful if you could take a few minutes right now to get this back to me.

The research I am conducting is about management policies or programs an organization may have and how these relate to work attitudes held by employees like yourself. Previously, you answered questions about yourself, your work behaviors, your attitudes towards your company, and the policies your company has.

This follow up survey is attached. Your answers will be completely anonymous and confidential. When you are finished you can return the survey in the stamped addressed envelope provided. This envelope will only be opened by the researcher.

This survey will take about 10-15 minutes to complete. It is important that all questions be answered, if you are unsure of an answer please respond to the best of your knowledge. Your effort in filling out this survey will contribute to the understanding of the interaction of family and work life, an area that deserves further study. I hope you can find the time to fill this out.

Thank you once again for your time and cooperation. This research would not be possible without your help. If you have any questions feel free to contact me at (516) 678-3923.

As a token of my appreciation I would like to send you some subsequent results and a small gift. Just fill out the return address label and enclose with the survey.

Sincerely,

Eileen W. Jahn

***Cover letter to human resource professionals in participant's organizations
(personalized when possible)***

February 29, 1996

Dear Prospective Participant,

My name is Eileen Jahn. I am a Ph. D. student in Organizational Policy Studies at Baruch College. I am asking that you take a few minutes from your busy schedule to fill out a brief questionnaire concerning your organization's Work/Family policies (the record time so far is 4.5 minutes).

Because this information is an important part of my dissertation research, I would be personally very grateful for your help. The research that I am conducting concerns how organizations are helping individuals to balance their work and family life. As a human resource professional, I'm sure that you can appreciate the need for this kind of research.

Your answers will be held in the strictest confidence, with responses seen only by me. Your organization will never be identified; only aggregate data will be used. You do not need to identify your company by name, as there is a code number that allows me to anonymously match the information to other data.

In return, I will gladly provide you with a scoring key and the range of scores so that you are able to determine where your company stands. If you have any questions, I can be reached at (516) 678-3923.

With much appreciation for your kind assistance,

Eileen W. Jahn

MODIFIED ADAPTED FAMILY FRIENDLY INDEX
Organizational Family Support Questionnaire for human resource professionals

The following is a list of policies/programs that your organization may have established for its employees. After each description of a policy or program please circle **yes** if your company has an official company wide policy, **no** if not, and **unsure** if you don't know. If you circle **yes**, please answer all questions pertaining to the policy/program. If it is official policy to allow these arrangements, but only at the managers discretion, please answer **yes**, but elaborate as to how wide spread actual practice is.

FLEXIBILITY IN HOURS AND PLACE

1. Does your organization have **Flextime**: A work schedule that permits flexible starting and quitting times, but requires a standard number of hours within a given time period.

no unsure yes - If yes:

How much of a range of flexibility do you have in choosing your start time (i.e. if you can start anywhere between 8:00 a.m. and 9:00 a.m. you have a 60 min. range)?

___ 120 min. or more ___ 60-119 min. ___ 30-59 min. ___ Less than 30 min.

2. Does your organization offer a **Compressed Work Week**: A standard number of hours is specified, but may be worked in fewer days than normal.

no unsure yes - If yes:

3. Does your organization offer **Part-time work**: permanent employees can work a specified number of hours below the standard work week on a regular basis?

no unsure yes - If yes:

Are health benefits available for less than full time? ___ if yes, please explain.

4. Does your organization allow **Job sharing**: Two workers can voluntarily share responsibilities of one full-time job with salary prorated?

no unsure yes - If yes:

5. Does your organization offer **Flexplace**: Employees can work at home or at a satellite work site during regular work hours?

no unsure yes - If yes:

TIME OFF AND LEAVES

6. Does your company give **Days off for sick child care**.

no unsure yes - If yes: How many per year? ___

7. Does your organization have **Compensatory Time**: Extra hours worked may be used as time off?
 no unsure yes - If yes:

8. The Family Leave Act established a twelve-week unpaid leave for employees under certain circumstances. Does your company offer **any time, paid or unpaid in addition to this?** (Circle the type of additional leave offered)

ADDITIONAL LEAVE TYPE	#Extra Wks.	Paid?		Benefits?		Part-time Return?	
		Y	N	Y	N	Y	N
NEW MOTHERS		Y	N	Y	N	Y	N
NEW FATHERS		Y	N	Y	N	Y	N
ADOPTIVE MOTHERS		Y	N	Y	N	Y	N
ADOPTIVE FATHERS		Y	N	Y	N	Y	N
SICK DEPENDENT CARE		Y	N	Y	N	Y	N

BENEFITS

9. Does your organization have **Flexible Benefits**: Employees can choose from a menu of benefits that suit their individual needs?

no unsure yes

10. Does your company have **Flexible Spending Accounts**: allowing employee's dependent care expenses to be paid by pre-tax dollars?

no unsure yes

11. Does your organization offer **Adoption assistance**: a subsidy to parents who are adopting a new child?

no unsure yes - If yes:

What is the amount of the subsidy? ___ More than \$2000 ___ Less than \$2000

DEPENDENT CARE

12. Does your organization offer **On- or near-site child care centers**: Child care sponsored by the company (it may be owned and operated by the company, a consortium of companies, a vendor, or a third party).

no unsure yes - If yes:

Is there a company subsidy? Y N

13. Does your organization offer **Child care discounts**: reduced rates for employees who use child care centers, arranged by the company or **Vouchers**: Company subsidization of a percentage of parents' child care costs at programs selected by the parent (company may pay provider directly or reimburse parent)?

no unsure yes - If yes:

___ 50% reimbursement or more ___ Less than 50% reimbursement

14. Does your company offer **Child care resource and referral**: information and counseling to employees in need of child care services.

no unsure yes - If yes:

extensive referral system (in-house or vendor) Personal Counseling
 Directory Caregiver Fair

15. Does your organization offer **Elder care consultation and referral**: information and counseling to employees in need of elder care services.

no unsure yes - If yes:

extensive referral system (in-house or vendor) Personal Counseling
 Directory Caregiver Fair

16. Does your organization offer **Sick/emergency child care programs**: the organization provides help or cost-coverage to pay for child care when dependent is sick, or regular care is unavailable.

no unsure yes - If yes:

Check the type of care the company provides:
 In home health workers Sick bay at child center or hospital Company subsidy

17. Does your organization provide for **After school programs**: organization establishes or pays for programs that help school-age children after school.

no unsure yes - If yes:

Company-owned Local program subsidized by company

18. Does your organization provide for **Summer camps**: organization establishes or pays for program that serves children during the summer months.

no unsure yes If yes:

Company-owned Local program subsidized by company

WORK FAMILY SUPPORT

19. Does your company offer **Work family seminars**: organization sponsors informational sessions where employees discuss and learn about solutions to family and work/family problems?

no unsure yes - If yes: How many per year?

20. Does your organization offer **Work family support groups**: Discussion groups run by employees on various family topics.

no unsure yes

21. Does your company have **Family picnics or events**?

no unsure yes - If yes: How many per year?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME! If you would like a scoring key and range of scores, please provide a name and address either here or on a separate label.

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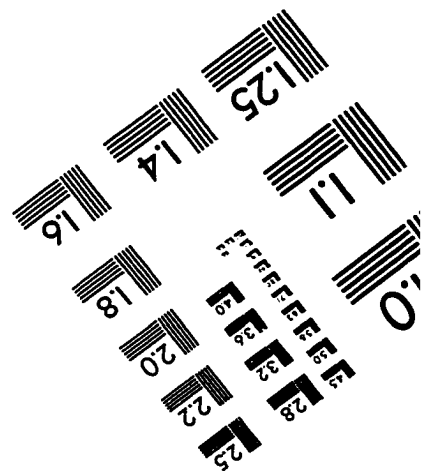
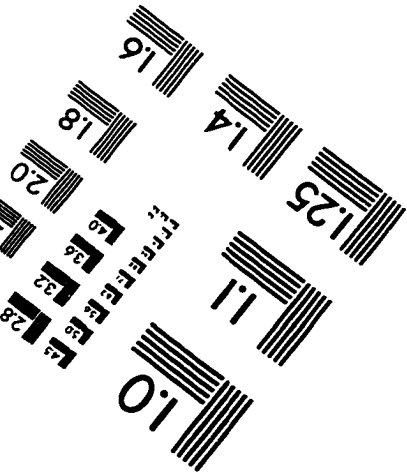
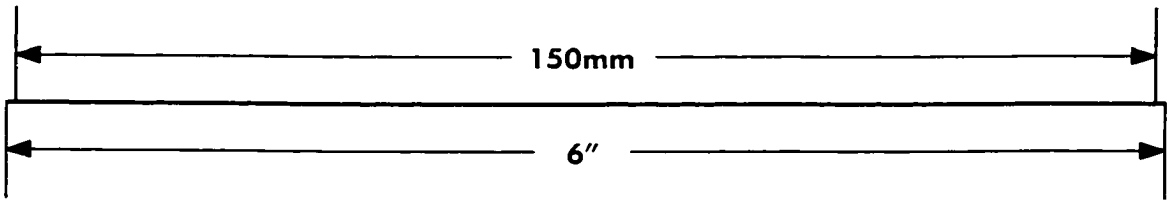
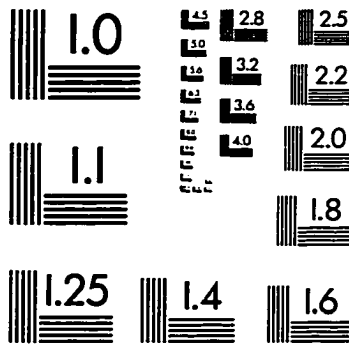
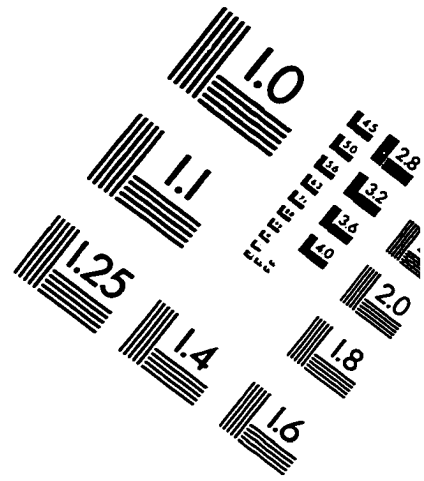
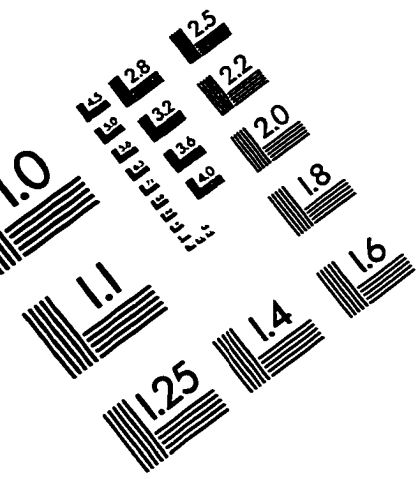
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IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



APPLIED IMAGE, Inc
1653 East Main Street
Rochester, NY 14609 USA
Phone: 716/482-0300
Fax: 716/288-5989

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