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EFFECTS OF EMPLOYER-SPONSORED WORK/FAMILY POLICIES AND PROGRAMS ON COMPANIES, CAREERS, AND FAMILIES

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the relationships between employer-sponsored work/family policies/programs and outcomes of importance to companies (i.e., dependability, job performance, organizational commitment), to employees' careers (i.e., job satisfaction and progress, work hours and schedule satisfaction, and work role conflict), and to families (i.e., marital satisfaction, parental satisfaction, family free-time conflict, and family scheduling conflict). Included in the conceptual model developed for this study is the proposition that the effects of policy/program usage will vary according to individual's degree of dependent care responsibility within their own family as well as the informal climate of the organization, specifically, whether co-workers and supervisors are supportive of work/family policy and program usage.

All U.S. based employees of a company considered to be among the most family-friendly companies in America were surveyed electronically at each of the company's job sites in the Fall of 1997. The analyses for this study are based on the responses of 545 employees with children ages 6 through 12 (for analyses involving flexible schedule supports) and 389 employees with children under the age of 6 (for analyses involving child care service supports).

The findings indicate that flexible supports have a greater effect on the outcome measures than service supports. However, rather than the greatest impact on outcomes coming from the policies/programs themselves, the largest direct effects came from co-worker and supervisor supportiveness, and these effects were observed for 8 and 9 of the 10 dependent variables. The conditional model received modest support, primarily with

regard to the varying effects of formal policies/programs according to the degree of informal supportiveness of the respondent's work environment. However, when interaction effects were observed, it was the case that formal supports were of greatest benefit when informal supports were absent rather than when the climate for use was supportive. These findings have implications for those concerned with work/family policies and programs and organizational climates, and point specifically to the need for greater attention toward co-worker and supervisor awareness and support of employees' responsibilities both as workers and as parents, in addition to instituting formal work/family policies and programs.

EFFECTS OF EMPLOYER-SPONSORED WORK/FAMILY POLICIES AND PROGRAMS ON COMPANIES, CAREERS, AND FAMILIES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Employer-sponsored work-family initiatives, from on-site child care centers to flexible work schedules, are promoted as the means by which employers may adapt to a workforce that is soon to be 50 percent women. Becoming "family-friendly," it is thought, will position an employer to attract, retain, and get the most from valued employees, both the women in their workforce as well as the men who are, by choice or necessity, more accountable for the day-to-day needs of the family as their wives are more accountable for the family's economic well-being. Yet thus far, most instances of policy advocacy, implementation, and presumed benefits appear to be based more on well-meaning intentions and assumptions and less on theoretically-grounded and empirically substantiated evidence. The lack of empirical analyses makes it difficult to draw accurate conclusions and give direction to further efforts. With the goal of understanding how employers may adapt their organization to reflect the realities of the present workforce, and thereby promote compatibility between productive employment and responsible parenting, the present study attempts to empirically assess outcomes associated with an array of work-family policies and programs. The work-family initiatives of a company that is considered to be one of the most family-friendly companies in America are examined for their effects.

Although work-family policies and programs are often undertaken with the goal of favorable outcomes for employers in mind, additional contenders have a stake in work/family policy outcomes. Families stand to gain a great deal from policies and programs which would allow job-protected leave, provide child care, and allow for flexible schedules and localities. Likewise, work-family policies and programs may ultimately influence the degree of equitable standing for women in the workplace. Thus, to understand the outcomes associated with today's best work-family policies and programs, it is essential to ask how the employer fares, how families experience the initiatives, and how careers are affected.

Work/Family Policy: An Issue for Parenting, Equality, and Labor

Women's entry into the paid labor force, especially vigorous over the previous few decades, has produced one of the major social changes of this century. No longer are most employed women young and single working for a time prior to marriage, nor are they predominantly racial-ethnic minorities or working-poor. Instead, they are women of all ages, races, and classes, married or not, and many with children in the home. In fact, among households consisting of a married couple and children, 70 percent of the women are employed (Casper, Hawkins, and O'Connell, 1994). The growing number of women working for wages has implications for society's ideas about parenting, especially motherhood, for equality between women and men, and for the structure of the American employment system.

Parenting and Family Life. Gender aside, a high labor force participation rate is desirable, both for a country as well as for individual citizens. But in the case of women, the desirability of their employment is viewed as somewhat problematic. The primary reason for such concern is directly tied to gender role expectations and, more specifically, to the ideology of motherhood, each of which imply and prescribe specific places, activities, and duties considered appropriate and proper for women and mothers. These socially prescribed, institutionalized roles, though shown to be malleable given the changes that women have made, have also proven to be highly resistant to change, since women have largely added to their responsibilities rather than redistributed them. Specifically, women remain responsible for the primary care of children and the home, while in many cases also acting as exclusive or co-breadwinner.

Although both mothers and fathers may work outside the home, concern with parental absence typically is limited to that of mothers. Since the early days of middle class mothers' labor force participation, researchers have pursued the question of whether maternal employment is harmful to children (see for example, Nye and Hoffman, 1963). Evidence from decades of studies by scholars from a number of disciplines suggests that maternal employment is not inherently harmful to children; instead, positive and negative outcomes to children are linked with maternal employment indirectly through a number of important factors (e.g., Lerner, 1994; Lerner and Galambos, 1991; Parcel and Menaghan, 1994). Yet the employment of women with children remains perhaps the most openly debated aspect of women's employment and that which draws the most criticism to women.

As it stands, the structure of employment reflects a workforce assumed to be made up largely of men, men with wives at home to tend to the needs of family members, not a workforce of dual-earners or single-parents. Work/family policies and programs are a first step toward acknowledging present-day workforce demographics enabling these workers to be effective employees without incurring an exorbitant cost to their families and to their children's childhoods.

Gender Equality and Career Progress. In addition to being an issue of importance to parenting and children's well-being, women's employment has also been an issue intimately linked to equality for women. Since the modern women's movement of the 1960s and 1970s, removing the obstacles to women's full and advancing employment has been a major focus of feminists. Though deeply embedded inequities remain in the employment system, such as the wage gap and occupational segregation, paid labor is seen as an essential mechanism through which women may make gains in all areas of their lives (Beeghley, 1989). Employment gives women not only access to resources, but also control over those resources, potentially putting them on more equal footing with men in personal relationships, in society, and offering the option of autonomy over dependence.

The downside of employment undertaken in conjunction with parenting, results from the overload and stress of carrying out work demands and family responsibilities simultaneously. Having these two full-time "jobs," can hinder women, as well as possibly those men who are more actively involved in the daily care of their children. The paradox is that while employment supports families through the provision of wages, it also competes and interferes with families, primarily in terms of diminished time and increased stress. Yet despite the problems and feelings of overload that combining employment with parenting can create, the net psychological affect of employment is usually found to be positive for women (Spitze, 1988). Work/family policies and programs potentially help buffer against work/family conflict that can hinder career progress and that can impede the successful carrying out of the simultaneous demands of family and work. For example, helping parents locate and purchase child care or create work schedules and work locales that fit well with those of other family members may enhance job satisfaction and job performance.

Labor. As well as an issue for parenting and gender equality, the growing labor force participation of women has become an increasingly important issue for employers. Though white males historically have had the best jobs reserved for them, and still hold a majority of the highest positions in both the public and private sectors, almost half of the total workforce is now made up of women. The available labor pool and predicted demographic trends have made many employers more dependent on the labor women provide. In attempt to attract and retain the best employees, some employers have begun to explore issues pertaining to the hospitable and equitable nature of their workplace to women. To some extent, this involves giving thought to the reality that will face the vast majority of women employees: pregnancy, childbirth, and parenting, and to the reality that each of these may be undertaken today with more involvement on the part of men.

Attention to these issues has led some employers to institute work/family policies and programs. Though the number of employers who have developed formal initiatives in this area is small, employer-sponsored policies and programs are the location of the most promising and involved approaches at this time. Since work/family policies and programs are still cutting-edge employee benefits, they potentially provide employers with a means of attracting and retaining desired employees, supporting employees in performance of their jobs, and making them an employer in-demand.

Typically, work/family initiatives are borne out of a labor perspective with the primary expectation of benefits to the employer in the way of increased retention and productivity, and a favorable public image. However, as the previous passages have argued, work/family policies and programs have important three-dimension implications: (1) from a labor perspective there are implications for employers, (2) from an equality perspective, the policies and programs have implications for employees' careers, and (3) from a parenting perspective the initiatives have implications for families. From each of these dimensions, the new policies and programs raise a number of important questions. For instance, what do the policies mean for employers' ability to attract, retain, and nourish the job performance of their employees; what do the policies mean for women's standing in their organization of employment and the progress they (and all policy users) are able to make in their careers; and what do these policies mean for employed parents' ability to carry out their parental responsibilities and to create a balanced, satisfying home and work lives?

Statement of the Problem

Employer-sponsored work/family initiatives are commonly advocated in the popular and business literature, as well as promoted by government leaders. Employers who implement work/family policies and programs are thus widely praised in the literature and are heralded as employers who are friends to families (e.g., Atkins, 1993; Laabs, 1993; Matthes, 1992). Interspersed among these articles, however, are papers that report on the low usage of the policies among employees, even when the need for child care supports is recognized as a pressing problem for employed parents (e.g., Saltzman, 1993; Solomon, 1994). In addition, some commentators question the actual benefits of the policies (e.g., Aldous, 1990; Christensen and Staines, 1990; Hall and Parker, 1993; Kingston, 1990; Lambert, 1993; Saltzman, 1993; Sharpe, 1994). This skepticism is due to the concern that while employer-sponsored initiatives are very likely to be beneficial to employers since that is what they are designed to do, the risk is that they can possibly create more problems, especially for parenting and gender equity, in addition to possibly generating increased inequality between parent and non-parent employees. Along such lines, some worry that the implicit goal is to reduce the amount of interference of personal/family life into the job rather than to promote a work/family balance (see for instance Lambert, 1993).

From both camps, both supporters and skeptics, there is common ground in the recognition that very little data exist to establish the effects of various policies, which is one of four main weaknesses in this area. Additional common ground exists between policy advocates and policy skeptics in their recognition of the importance of the organizational culture. Although it is generally recognized that formal policies, in and of themselves, are not enough to make an organization family-friendly, rankings and classification of companies as family-friendly tend to rely almost exclusively on the written policies of the organization without giving attention to other important indicators of the degree of actual work/family supportiveness, creating a second weakness in work/family research. Work/family supportiveness is created not only by the policies that exist on the organization's books, but importantly by the attitudes of supervisors and co-workers toward such policies and toward the people who use them.

Of the few studies that measure the effects of work/family policies, most concentrate on outcomes pertinent to employers, such as productivity, absenteeism, recruitment, and retention. While favorable outcomes in these areas are crucial to the existence of employer-sponsored work/family initiatives, they leave out consideration of policy effects on employees' careers and on families, areas that clearly are important to consider, especially since the initiatives are framed in "family-friendly" terms. Thus, in addition to taking a labor management perspective by asking whether the policies and programs create favorable outcomes for organizations, work/family initiatives also should be viewed from a parenting perspective as well as from an equity perspective by asking whether the initiatives create favorable outcomes for the families of employees and for employees in their jobs. For example, do the policies make employees more satisfied with their jobs, and do employees feel that the presence of such policies enables them to better perform their job and progress in their career? Similarly, do the programs make it easier for employed parents to balance the demands of work and family life, and do they feel less stressed and overloaded than employed parents without the benefit of such programs? Do the policies and programs enhance marital and parenting satisfaction and reduce the conflict that job demands can have on family life? The little attention paid thus far to policy outcomes to parties besides the employer is a third weakness of the current work/family empirical base.

Work/family policies and programs consist of an array of approaches, from flexibility supports such as flextime, telecommuting, and job sharing, each of which assist with parenting and child care more indirectly, to the more direct service supports of on-site child care centers, and child care subsidies, for example. Thus, when assessing outcomes of programs, both service and flexibility supports should be considered and compared. A body of knowledge is needed which considers not only the outcomes to all concerned parties as mentioned previously, but also the outcomes associated with each type of approach. This limitation constitutes a fourth weakness of work/family policy knowledge. For example, it might be found that flexible schedules are the best approach for reducing tardiness, work/family stress, and maximizing job satisfaction, while service supports are best for reducing absenteeism and increasing employees' career progress.

In sum, the present study attempts to address these four main deficiencies in the employer-sponsored work/family policy literature: (1) the general lack of empirical research in this area, (2) research that considers only formal, written policies leaving out consideration and assessment of the organizational culture and work/family climate created by supervisors and co-workers that exists alongside the policies, (3) research that tends to consider the policy outcomes only for employers rather than including outcomes to employees' careers and families, and (4) research that has not included assessments of the differential effects of the various types of policies, both service and flexibility supports.

Investigation of the Problem

Chapter two begins by exploring the work/family relationship from historical to present patterns. The most common conceptual frameworks used to describe the connection between work and family are then discussed, specifically the multiple roles, job demands, and spillover perspectives.

Chapter three includes a description of family policy at both the public and private levels and poses an explanation for the attention to these issues that is occurring at the employer level.

Chapter four investigates specific employer-based work/family policies, discussing what is known about the types of employers involved, their motivations, and the extent of employer involvement. The currently available policies and programs related to work and family concerns are described, along with an examination of those companies considered to be the most family-friendly. Chapter four also includes a discussion of the role of organizational culture and work/family climate within organizations. Finally, the possible benefits and potential drawback to work/family policy formulated by employers are discussed.

Chapter five presents the methodology, describing the proposed study and the guiding conceptual model. Research questions and a brief statement of the proposed analytic strategy are then presented. Following these are descriptions of the sampling and data collection procedures and the measurement of the variables.

Chapter six presents the results of the analyses concerning the relationships between service supports and flexibility supports and several outcomes of concern to employers, to employees' careers, and to families.

Chapter seven presents the conclusion by summarizing the findings and discussing the implications for policy and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II

THE WORK/FAMILY RELATIONSHIP

From Historical to Present Patterns

Current trends in the employment of women with children are accurately recognized as a recent and distinctive form of the work/family relationship. Yet, the common practice of using the 1950s family as the frame of reference for comparing today's patterns gives a distorted contrast, because in reality, the family form, work pattern, and resulting work/family relationship of the 1950s breadwinner/homemaker family are a greater historical anomaly than the work/family patterns seen today. A look back at the ways in which families were living and working during pre-industrial and industrializing America may provide a more realistic context through which to view the work/family trends occurring today.

Pre-Industrial Work/Family Arrangements. Prior to industrialization, agrarian farm life required both women and men to labor diligently to provide for their families. In his classic work on the mid-western farm family of the 19th century, John Mack Faragher (1979) vividly describes the labor of the pre-industrial family. Similar to that often seen in the division of household labor today, a rather strict division of labor by sex existed. A man's work consisted largely of plowing, planting, and harvesting crops. He also tended some of the family's animals and was responsible for construction work and repair of fences and tools. In contrast to what women's labor in the home was to become post-industrialization, women's labor under agrarian conditions was more directly associated with providing subsistence for the family. She was responsible for several cycles a year of planting and harvesting the domestic garden, which consisted of about an acre of land near the house. She also tended the chickens and dairy cows, gathering eggs and making milk, butter, and cheese. In addition, she was responsible for carrying water, preparing three meals a day, keeping the house clean, and helping her husband in the fields when the need arose. She manufactured cloth and sewed, washed, and repaired the clothing for the family. These tasks were accomplished as she birthed and cared for children, a new one arriving about every two-and-a-half years.

Faragher notes that men were by no means the breadwinners in this economy. Women produced at least half of the subsistence for the family in addition to their other chores which were of a much greater variety than men's, working two or three hours more each day. In fact, the first report by the Department of Agriculture described the travails of the farming wife's labor and considered her workload excessive. The report berated men for their insensitivity and their failure to give their wives the respect they deserved, and encouraged men to take over some of the women's chores, such as laundry during conditions of extreme heat and cold, and chopping firewood and hauling water. The report also called on men to consider hiring hands to help women with their chores rather than hiring hands to help with the crops. Though a sex-based division of labor existed, "women's work" was clearly as critical to the family as was "men's work" and both women and men traded the proceeds from their labor. Men traded corn and wheat and other surpluses in the marketplace, and women commonly traded eggs, butter, milk, cheese, vegetables, and homespun cloth. Yet, her proceeds generally went for the needs of the family while his generally went to purchase land or equipment for his use.

In sum, agrarian life was characterized by co-production between husbands and wives and very visible labor. The contribution of both, as well as the labor of children, was important to the survival and maintenance of the farm and family. Likewise, both women and men traded the proceeds from their home-based labor with agents outside the family. However, despite the equal and essential contribution made by women, inequality in terms of rights, authority, and responsibility existed. Although paid work today generally occurs away from the home, and the necessary adjustments resulting from the separation of family members in space should not be minimized, women today have similar overall responsibilities to women of preindustrial times. Women's predicament today of trying to "do it all," although "doing it" under very different circumstances, was the predicament of agrarian women who were faced with the need to contribute to the subsistence of their family while also raising children.

Industrialization and the Ideology of Separate Spheres. As industrialization began to spread from Europe to America in the 19th century, the lives of people, both as laborers and family members, changed dramatically. For the first time in history, large numbers of parents began daily leaving their families to sell their labor outside the home for wages. Typically, the parent who left was the father. The precise reason for his exit is debatable and complex, yet one common explanation, and one which fits well with the sex-based division of labor that existed prior to industrialization, involves the childbearing responsibilities of women. On the farm, birthing and nursing children made it less feasible for women to be away in the fields, far from the homestead. Thus, with industrialization, it was considered appropriate that men join the factories and other industries while women confined their labor to the home where they could be close to their children.

Perhaps as significant as the changing labor of men and women brought about by industrialization, was the ideological change toward labor that occurred. Historian Jeanne Boydston (1991) discusses the way in which the sex-based division of labor expanded to create a notion of separate spheres and an ideology of domesticity and motherhood. As labor began to be purchased with wages and occurred outside the family, the idea that work and family were separate, distinct, and contrasting spheres arose. According to Boydston, women and home came to be identified as the antithesis to the values and behaviors of men and the marketplace. The marketplace was characterized as competitive, cruel, and unjust while the home became defined as a haven and sanctuary. Critical to the ideology of the separate spheres was that the two remain separate so that the marketplace would not corrupt the home. As such, men became linked to the marketplace, or public sphere, and women to the private sphere of the home. This ideology not only served as a means of portraying women, mothers or not, as out of place in the labor market, but also obscured and made invisible the labor that went on within the home (Boydston, 1991). The home-as-haven image was described in literature and other writings as rejuvenating for women. Boydston writes that this romanticized view meant that the labor within the home came to be portrayed not as labor but as leisurely activity in a pastoral setting. The labor that had previously been so essential to the family was now becoming devalued for its practical contribution and valued instead for its aesthetic and ideologically sacred nature.

Despite the promulgation of the separate spheres notion and the consequent "breadwinner" role that emerged for men, not everyone's life conformed to this image. Consequently, the workforce had a significant number of women. In 1925, more than 8 million women were employed (Kessler-Harris, 1975). Most of these women were young, single, and immigrants who were employed primarily in unskilled textile and garment industries and as domestics (see for example Meyerowitz, 1988). In addition to domestic and factory work, women earned money by doing industrial piecework in their homes and taking in boarders. Many wage-earning women, however, were working-class married women and single mothers whose income was essential for the survival of many families. In fact, while about half of children today spend part of their childhood in a single-parent home, as many as one in three children a century ago did as well (Cherlin, 1996). The causes are different; today single-parent homes result mainly from divorce, while in earlier times shorter life expectancies and higher mortality rates were the cause. During the difficult and unstable conditions associated with early industrialization, more than one-third of Americans lived below the poverty line in 1910 (Kerber and DeHart, 1991). Regardless of their specific employment, women's labor was of the lowest pay and often of the poorest working conditions. Employers came to depend on having a group of workers to whom they could pay such low wages, a situation which worked to the benefit of owners and industrial expansion.

The presence of women in the marketplace, seen as threatening to the emerging middle-class's values associated with domesticity, also was a symbolic threat to the authority and position of men as the sole wage-earners. This was the case even though for the most part employed women were not competing with men for jobs; most often, they were employed in jobs that were in keeping with traditional gender-role expectations and responsibilities. Nonetheless, the perceived competition of women, coupled with the economic instability that characterized early industrialization, led to men's call for a "family wage;" that is, a wage high enough to enable men to support their families without women earning wages. The call for a family wage has had the long-lasting effect of sustaining and justifying wage differentials between women and men as well as fostering the assumption the men's wages go to support a family whereas women are financially supported by men, both of which assumptions often are erroneous (Evans, 1989; Kessler-Harris, 1975).

Despite the family wage which emphasized the motherhood role as primary and attempted to keep women out of the labor force, and despite the low pay and difficult working conditions, women remained wage earners throughout industrialization and many sought to improve their situation through unionization efforts (Kessler-Harris, 1975). The many obstacles that stood in the way of successful unionization led some to embrace protective legislation to improve employment circumstances. The passage of the legislation had the immediate effect of improving working conditions for women by establishing minimum wages, a maximum number of working hours, weight restrictions for lifting, and restrictions against night work. Yet, protective legislation also had many drawbacks which made some feminists adamantly opposed to the legislation (Evans, 1989). For instance, by applying only to women, it institutionalized legal discrimination.

Further, the legislation made women unable to compete for certain jobs and likely contributed to the occupational segregation that remains today (Evans, 1989).

While the ideal of separate spheres, in which women and children were in the home and men in the workplace, was permeating the middle- and upper-classes, the working poor, many of whom were immigrants, had neither the ideology nor the practical means to live according to this standard. Thus, just as many families relied upon the wages of women for their survival, many families, especially those where fathers were absent, relied on the labor of children, both paid and unpaid forms. In her studies of working-class families in industrializing, urban America, Christine Stansell (1982) writes that "in contrast to their middle- and upper-class contemporaries, the working poor did not think of childhood as a separate stage of life in which girls and boys were free from adult burdens, nor did poor women consider mothering to be a full-time task of supervision.... Raising one's children properly did not mean protecting them from the world of work; on the contrary, it involved teaching them to shoulder those heavy burdens of labor which were the common lot of their class, to be hardworking and dutiful to kin and neighbors" (p.136).

Some of the economic contributions made by children came from their work in the streets, the "most accessible employer of children" (Stansell, 1982). Street-selling, scavenging, peddling newspapers and other wares, making deliveries, shining shoes, and at times the more disrespectful means of gaining economic livelihood such as theft and prostitution, were some of the ways that children of the working poor helped their families (Nasaw, 1985). To middle-class reformers, however, the street activities of children and the lifestyles of these families were abhorrent. Stansell writes that the emerging middle-class was creating a distinct identity, central to which was the value of domesticity. To middle-class reformers concerned with the street life of the poor, the ills associated with poverty, unemployment, and overcrowding were due to a lack of proper family values. Specifically, they saw the behavior of children on the streets as one cause of urban problems, rather than the result of them (Stansell, 1982).

Both girls and boys of the urban working class in the late 19th and early 20th century engaged in the street life, but girls to a lesser extent than boys. The primary work of young girls was through their role as "little mothers," feeding, diapering, bathing, and looking after their younger siblings (Nasaw, 1985). In addition, they commonly assisted their mothers with cooking, cleaning, laundry, and sewing, all of which increased when boarders were taken in, and with industrial piecework, two other important means of earning a living. The division of labor between girls and boys, then, in some ways mirrored that between women and men. The labor of girls, like much of the work of their mothers, was unpaid. When wages were earned, they were considered the province of the family. In contrast, boys' labor was compensated and, like their fathers', a portion was available for use at their discretion. Boys, then were able to derive some freedom, accomplishment, and tangible rewards from their work, which were absent for girls (Nasaw, 1985).

Though perhaps seemingly a world apart, historian Elliott West (1989) paints a picture of childhood on the frontier that in many ways resembles that of the urban poor. Though industrialization had come to America, it had not yet reached many parts of the country. Thus. frontier life during the time of industrialization remained much like pre-industrial, agrarian patterns. Frontier children performed a multitude of duties helping their overburdened families. Not only that, because their parents were usually consumed with endless responsibilities, the children had a good deal of freedom to be on their own. As with urban children, reformers worried about their upbringing because it, too, did not fit the middle-class ideal (West, 1989).

A striking difference between urban and frontier children, however, is that there was no real gender division of labor for girls on their frontier. Regional variations in the demands of life seem to have taken precedence over gender for those settling the new frontier. According to West, girls as well as boys would herd sheep and cattle, often spending as many as 12 hours on horseback. They milked the cows and even hunted small animals. West explains that work in the home, like that all across America, was the domain of women, but the younger children, both boys and girls, participated more in outdoor labor. As the girls approached womanhood, however, the rules changed. Fulfilling the prescriptive ideals became more important than the "manly" labor they had been performing. Girls were expected to go from the fields into the home, a move West claims invoked emotional confusion and restfulness among the girls who preferred the often exhilarating and challenging outdoor activities to the isolated drudgery required of their mothers. Stansell (1982), Nasaw (1985), and West's (1989) accounts demonstrate important class and regional variations in the work/family relationship as well as the gendered division of labor.

In sum, an ideology of separate spheres arose with industrialization whereas prior to this time, a closer mesh had existed between work and family. Labor outside the home became considered "productive" and was exchanged for wages, whereas labor within the home was now considered "unproductive," with a host of consequences for gender relations and family life. This new ideology meant that work and family were to be separate and distinct, and occupancy of each sphere was determined by gender. The sphere of the home was defined by an ideology of domesticity and motherhood which came to be seen as a private and sacred institution, "presided over by women, inhabited by children, frequented by men" (Stansell, 1982: 134). For many families during industrializing America, meeting the harsh demands of life did not afford the luxury of the separate spheres and ideology of domesticity permeating the middle- and upper-classes, yet they still were held to these newly created standards.

Effects of Industrialization on Women's Lives. Industrialization brought a host of problems for women, especially by assigning wage labor the highest status, by making labor within the home invisible, and by assigning women either to unpaid labor or labor of the lowest pay and conditions. Moreover, the notion of separate spheres, the family wage, and protective legislation meant that men were the designated wage-earners, further entrenching male authority in both the public and private spheres.

Yet, industrialization also created many opportunities for women. First, women, who had already begun to limit their fertility (the fertility rate declined from around 7 in 1800 to a rate of 3.5 by 1900), now had less of their lives taken up by bearing and raising children and, consequently, had more time available for other pursuits. Moreover, industrialization meant that children were becoming an economic liability rather than the economic asset they had been under pre-industrial conditions, a fact which encouraged smaller families. Second, though standards have increased which create additional demands associated with housework, the technological advances of industrialization helped to reduce the strain and the extent of time required for domestic labor. Third, the ideology of separate spheres and women's link to the private world had the ironic effect of actually enhancing women's public role during this time (Evans, 1989). Women became active in charitable and voluntary organizations and reform movements, such as the temperance and abolition movements. Through their involvement in these reform movements, women increased their knowledge of societal conditions and acquired a greater awareness of their own living conditions as they became more aware of the conditions of others, especially in advocating freedom and rights for blacks. Women's activity in these movements also gave them knowledge of organizing and social change, and led directly to the women's movement of the late 19th and early 20th centuries, and eventually to the women's movement of the latter 20th century. Through these movements, women were able to overturn coverture laws, acquire education and employment opportunities for women, and gain voting rights, to name a few of their accomplishments. Finally, although men became the designated breadwinner, the labor force was never without significant numbers of women. Industrialization gave women, initially young, single, immigrants, and the poor, the ability to earn wages for their labor. Though the conditions were often brutal, industrialization eventually increased women's options, their opportunities for economic independence, and allowed them to achieve some degree of autonomy.

Post 1950s: Women's Labor Force Participation. In the early decades of the 20th century, more women were attending college, as well as postponing marriage and seeking what employment opportunities were available. Among married women, however, labor force participation remained at low levels. At the turn of the century, just 6 percent of married women were employed (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992). By 1930, the rate had doubled to 12 percent (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992). During the 1940s, the profile of the employed woman began to change, and each subsequent decade ended with almost 10 percent more married women employed than when the decade began (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992). While it had not been uncommon for women to be employed while they were unmarried, World War II created a great demand for workers to fill the jobs left by soldiers, and married women for the first time participated in the employment system in large numbers. Though they were encouraged to give up their jobs and return home following war's end, and many, in fact, did lose their well-paying defense jobs, nonetheless, many women remained employed in some capacity.

Even though the labor force participation rate of women was growing, the ideology of domesticity was flourishing as well. In fact, due in large part to the end of World War II and the great economic prosperity that followed, the 1950s was an historical anomaly in several ways. Nineteen-fifty's adults married at the youngest ages (i.e., median age of 22 for men and 20 for women compared with 26 men and 22 women in 1890 and 26 men and 24 women today) and had more children (i.e., an average of 4 compared with

3 at the beginning of the century, 2 during the Depression, and 1.9 today) than any other 20th century generation. Economic prosperity, plentiful jobs, and low-interest loans for veterans enabled millions not only of the middle-class but also of the working class to marry, have children, and own their own home. All of these factors led to the peak of the breadwinner-homemaker family in 1960 when just under 60 percent of American children lived in such a home. Today, approximately 20 percent of children live in this type of family structure, which is about the portion living in such an arrangement in the mid-1800s when this type of family structure began to rise (see Cherlin, 1996).

Yet, the 1950s life situation was less than satisfying to many. Betty Friedan's best-selling book (1963), considered "a volume that launched a major social movement," struck a cord with many women who identified with her concept of the "feminine mystique," the idea that women can be completely fulfilled by existing exclusively as wives and mothers. This image of women was promoted in many circles, including the media. American women were said to be the envy of women the world over, and were encouraged to bask in their femininity. Friedan argues that the public image of women replaced the private image of women, who began to look to the media and to experts for the "right" desires, needs, and goals to have. The image of women, which she argued disguised immaturity as femininity, was legitimized by scholars. Functionalism, the dominant theoretical perspective in sociology at the time, advocated the "instrumental," task-oriented role for men and the "expressive," socioemotional-oriented role for women, arguing that they were natural and functional for society (see Parsons and Bales, 1955). Likewise, Freudian psychology gave attention to neuroses peculiar to women which were said to arise from feminine nature rather than from societal conditions.

Though most American children were now living according to the standard of being home-based consumers as opposed to laborers, problems observed among children were receiving increasing attention from experts in psychology, child development, and pediatrics, most of whom considered mothers responsible (Friedan, 1963). Friedan writes that everything from bedwetting to thumbsucking to reading deficiencies to delinquency were said to result from maternal failure. Friedan did not attempt to contradict this relationship; instead she argued that these outcomes were inevitable, given that women had nothing of substance to which to aspire. Thus, they overidentified with their children, smothering them and absorbing the child's personality. Excessive dependency in male children and other behavior problems, she wrote, improved not with psychotherapy, but only after mothers acquired interests and activities of their own. Friedan's proposed solution to the problems of children and the mystique of femininity centered on increasing the experiences of women through education and paid labor. Like other feminists before her, she used the responsibilities associated with motherhood not as a drawback to her claims, nor as responsibilities to be shed, but rather as justification for expanding the lives of women.

The women's movement that followed in the 1960s and 1970s led to an expansion of opportunities and roles for women, among which were higher rates of labor force participation. Between 1960 and 1980, the proportion of married women who were employed rose from less than one-third to more than half. The most dramatic increase in women's employment occurred among mothers. In 1950, only 12 percent of married women with children under age 6 were employed. By 1980, this had jumped to 54 percent, and by 1990, up to two-thirds (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1988). Similarly, 28 percent of married women with children ages 6 through 17 were in the paid labor force in 1950; by 1980, 68 percent, and by 1990, the figure had climbed to three-quarters (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992). Not all of this growth is attributable to the self-improvement desires or quests for equality among women. The rising divorce rate and the number of single mothers have been important factors. And, especially today, few women have the luxury of working for reasons beyond economic necessity, married or not.

Though women largely share the breadwinner responsibilities with men as they now make up almost half of the workforce, men's roles and society's institutions have been much slower to change, instead remaining largely based on the separate spheres breadwinner/homemaker assumption. The prevalence of traditional gender-role norms and the deeply ingrained ideas about proper motherhood means that women have essentially added to their responsibilities rather than redistributed them. Thus, women remain the parent responsible for most of the work within the home and for most of the care of children, both in ideology and in practice, while also bringing in income for the family.

Post 1950s: Child Care Arrangements. While in most families women once again are essential co-producers along with men as they were during pre-industrial times, children remain exclusively consumers rather than laborers, or what Viviana Zelizer (1981) calls "economically worthless" but "emotionally priceless." Since productive labor today usually requires parental absence from the home, most children spend significant proportions of their childhood in the substitute care of adults other than their parents. For gradeschool-age children (ages 5-11), about 7.6 percent (1.6 million) spend part of the time during their mother's workhours in self-care in 1991. Among children ages 12-14, the proportion climbs to 16.8 percent spending part of the time in self-care (Casper, et al., 1994). As for children under age 5, the most common supplemental care arrangements are of three primary forms. Care may be supplied in the child's own home, either by the child's parents, a relative, or less commonly, a nonrelative. Young children also frequently are cared for in another's home, either by a relative but typically by a nonrelative who may also be caring for other children as well. This type of arrangement is referred to as family day care. Preschoolers also may be placed in some type of organized group-care facility such as a day care center, a nursery school, or a preschool. Though nursery schools and preschools have traditionally been of shorter daily duration than day care, the line between these types is somewhat ambiguous. While preschools tend to emphasize educational experiences, day care centers often provide some type of instruction as well (Casper, et al., 1994). Among organized facilities are for-profit centers and nationwide chains as well as nonprofit centers, often affiliated with universities, churches, and other organizations.

The greatest proportion of children (35.7 percent) are cared for in their own home by a relative. After this, children are most likely to be cared for by a family day care provider (31 percent), followed by center-based care (23 percent). The data show some variation in these compositions based on the age of the child. More than 80 percent of the 1.7 million infants with an employed mother are cared for in a home setting. By the time they reach ages 3 and 4, the proportion drops to 56 percent and center-based care rises from slightly over one-tenth of infants to more than one-third of 3- and 4-year-olds (Casper, et al., 1994). The form of this distribution likely is due to a combination of parental preferences for home settings for their infant children and the relatively few centers which accept infants.

As the numbers of middle-class women and mothers in the labor force has grown, so too has concern with the consequences that their employment would have for their children. The study of the effects of maternal employment on children has become a research area which continues to attract the attention of scholars in a variety of disciplines. The most important finding from decades of research by scholars from a variety of disciplines is that maternal employment is not inherently harmful to children. In fact, it is associated with a number of favorable outcomes associated with raising family income, providing a cognitively-enriching home environment, and fostering greater educational achievement and educational and occupational aspirations for daughters (e.g., Lerner, 1994; Lerner and Galambos, 1991; Parcel and Menaghan, 1994). However, the quality of substitute care that children receive, as with the quality of their home environment, are crucial for the well-being of the child (Cost, Quality, and Child Outcomes in Child Care Centers Executive Summary, 1995; Gottfried, 1991; Hayes, Palmer, and Zaslow, 1990).

Post 1950s: The Overlapping Spheres of Work and Family. Implicit in studies of the effects of maternal employment on child outcomes and on marital relationships is the recognition that work and family no longer are the separate worlds that they may have been for a substantial number of middle-class Americans living during the first half of the

20th century. Both prior to that time and subsequent to that time, the two spheres have overlapped for most families. Most of the overlap between the spheres has come to women, who were primarily responsible for the duties within the home while also making economic contributions. Overlap, however, can occur for men also, who remain primarily responsible for the family's economic well-being, if not always in practice at least in ideology, while also having involvement with their families that extends beyond the breadwinning role.

The problematic nature of integrating work and family and the source of much work/family conflict for individuals originates in trying to successfully merge two spheres, each of which was structured under the assumption of its separateness from the other. In other words, the structure of the workplace and the norms surrounding work roles were created under the assumption of a male employee with a wife in the home taking care of the family's needs. It was not structured around the idea that both adult family members (in a two-parent household) would be full-time employees. Trying to manage the full-time responsibilities of parenting with the full-time responsibilities of employment has far-reaching effects in the lives of people as family members and as employees, some of which may be positive, and others of which are conflictual and stressful. If the number of women in the paid workforce is used as an indicator, women's ability to combine paid employment with parenting has largely been demonstrated. However, the conflict that women experience in trying to balance these two realms is well-chronicled (e.g., Hochschild, 1989). Even many of the most highly educated professional women, who might be expected to have more resources at their disposal, find it extremely difficult to strike a balance between their career and their family life. They consider that the conflict between the two often exacts a heavy price (Swiss and Walker, 1993).

Current estimates suggest that the average employed adult in the United States, either male or female, works approximately one month more per year, or about 160 hours based on a 40-hour work week, than she or he did 20 years ago (Schor, 1991). For the first time since perhaps the 1920s, a majority of Americans say they would give up a day's pay to have an extra day off (Schor, 1991; see also Moen and Dempster-McClain, 1987). For employed women with children, the difficulties are compounded. Despite the greater sharing of the responsibilities of breadwinning, men have been much more resistant to sharing the labor within the home (e.g., Acock and Demo, 1994; Hochschild, 1989). In a given year, employed women with children work an extra month more of twenty-four-hour-days than their male counterparts (Hochschild, 1989).

As recognition of the interrelatedness of the spheres of work and family for so many adults today has grown, researchers have proceeded to expose the myth of the separate worlds (Kanter, 1977) and formulated various perspectives concerning the ways in which people's membership in one sphere affects them in the other sphere. The following section discusses the main perspectives that social scientists have employed to guide them in their study of the relationship between work and family.

Conceptual Frameworks of Work and Family

Since work/family research began in earnest in the latter half of this century, a large amount of data and research findings has been generated. While conceptual perspectives are commonly employed in work/family research, studies have tended to progress "down an atheoretical path" (Kingston, 1988: 56). Thus, rather than being theory driven, work/family research typically is problem driven. Yet, Kingston notes that although theory is greatly needed which more precisely guides and explains various work/family relationships, undertaking studies that arise from social problems is not altogether undesirable in that the latter are both important and socially consequential (Kingston, 1988).

Susan Lambert (1990) has recently reviewed the three most common frameworks used to explore the link between work and family: the segmentation, compensation, and spillover perspectives. The segmentation perspective was the earliest view taken toward work and family. This notion considered the two as separate spheres and unrelated. This perspective was justified on the grounds that the two realms were separated by time and place, behavior and purpose; consequently, the occurrences in one sphere were believed to be unrelated to the occurrences in the other sphere. In contrast to the once fairly common practice of role specialization according to gender, the two spheres are again intertwined, practically speaking, as people have begun to take on roles in both spheres. However, according to some scholars, the possibility of segmentation remains, psychologically speaking, in that workers may "actively attempt to separate work and family life in order to deal with work-related stresses" (Piotrkowski, 1979:98).

A second commonly used perspective for examining work and family linkages is the compensation perspective (Lambert, 1990; Zedeck, 1992). Statistically speaking, compensation theory would predict an inverse relationship between work and family

(Zedeck. 1992). This view posits that individuals attempt to compensate in one area for what is lacking in the other area. In other words, individuals may become more involved in their work or in their family life when they are unsatisfied with their life in the other sphere (Lambert, 1990). In her most recent work, The Time Bind (1997), Arlie Hochschild speaks of a work/family relationship she observed which is consistent with compensation theory. In her study of a Fortune 500, family-friendly company, Hochschild speaks of finding a reversal of social worlds in which work is becoming more of a haven than home to some people, a reversal that she says is predominant in about a fifth of families and an important theme in more than half of them. In describing this reversal, she writes, "In this new model of family and work life, a tired parent flees a world of unresolved quarrels and unwashed laundry for the reliable orderliness, harmony, and managed cheer of work" (p. 44). Although men may have found a haven at work for a much longer period of time, she writes that "The news of this book is that growing numbers of working women are leery of spending more time at home as well. They feel torn, guilty, and stressed out by their long hours at work; but they are ambivalent about cutting back on those hours" (p. 246). The reason for this is that "Women fear losing their places at work, and having such a place has become a source of security, pride, and a powerful sense of being valued. ...women are just as likely as men to feel appreciated at the workplace,... [and] underappreciated at home" (p. 247). This finding supports compensation theory's prediction of the relationship between work and family.

The most common perspective used to consider the relationship between work and family is that of spillover (Lambert, 1990; Pleck, 1995). From this view, the behaviors, skills, attitudes, and emotions, both positive and negative, present within individuals at work will carry over into the home, and vice versa. The precise ways in which spillover occurs, however, are often unspecified and untested (Lambert, 1990). Statistically speaking, spillover theory predicts positive relationships between work and family variables such that positive experiences at work lead to positive experiences at home, and negative experiences at work lead to negative experiences at home (Zedeck, 1992). In addition to experiences, attitudes are presumed to spillover as well. Most research into this theory assumes the direction of influence to be from work to family (Zedeck, 1992).

Although these conceptual perspectives are typically used by researchers as competing explanations, some contend that because the linkages between work and family are so diverse, it is likely that some aspects of work and family may be characterized by segmentation, while others by compensation, and others by spillover (Lambert, 1990; Zedeck, 1992). Moreover, Lambert contends that available evidence suggests that multiple processes occur within single individuals. Thus, rather than viewing the perspectives as competing explanations, Lambert suggests that studies allow for the possibility of each.

According to Lambert (1990), a shortcoming of the spillover perspective is that often "the causal paths through which work and home may spill over into the other are not clearly specified (p. 244). For example, characteristics of work life may spill over both directly and indirectly into family life. Direct spillover occurs, for example, "when the objective conditions of work life affect family life regardless of how the person subjectively experiences these work conditions" (p. 245). In contrast, indirect spillover occurs "when the objective conditions of work, or family, have an effect on the other sphere only through the subjective reactions of the person to these conditions" (p. 245). Most studies, she notes, have tended to assume that spillover occurs indirectly without testing this relationship. This is so in the case of the limited research on work/family policies as well as in the tendency of researchers to evaluate the policies by asking workers their opinions of the policies rather than assessing the possibility that outcomes result from the objective conditions themselves (Lambert, 1990).

In sum, a sizable amount of research has been undertaken in recent decades which attempts to understand work and family linkages. Much of the research has been formulated to address specific problems, a format that has been useful and appropriate in many situations, but which has typically lacked a comprehensive work/family theory to inform and guide. Instead, most research has used a single conceptual perspective, often in the tradition of segmentation, compensation, or spillover to predict relationships. While these are distinct perspectives with differing predictions, because the relationship between work and family is so complex with many forms and interrelated connections, one perspective by itself is unlikely to explain the multiplicity of associations between work and family lives. Rather, it is likely that some characteristics of work and family spill over into the other, while some may be compensated for, and others kept separate. In addition to allowing for the possibility of different types of linkages for different work and family relationships, research is needed which examines the process through which these linkages may occur, testing how spillover from work to family or family to work, for example, occurs. The present study may help inform understanding of work/family linkages by exploring how organizational involvement through policy and program initiatives influences work and family lives.

Conceptual Perspectives and Work/Family Policies. The absence of an overarching work/family theory is not the only consideration Kingston (1988) discusses in his review of work/family research. He also raises the concern, as do others, that policy prescriptions are put forth as remedies or improvements while adequate empirical, rigorous research to support policy recommendations is lacking. Thus, on the one hand Kingston notes that research is bountiful concerning a number of aspects of the work/family relationship even though most of the research is problem-driven rather than theory-driven. On the other hand, other aspects of the work/family relationship have not been sufficiently addressed and are lacking adequate empirical knowledge even though specific reforms are promoted which are thought to remedy these understudied phenomena (Kingston, 1988; Lambert, 1993). The former point becomes relevant to the latter point when studies are formulated to assess policy-relevant questions while lacking overarching work/family theories to draw upon. Lambert's (1990) critique of current perspectives and recommendations for future research provide important suggestions for gaining greater understanding of the processes through which work and family are linked by assessing the outcomes of work/family policies.

Because of the increasing recognition of the integration of work and family for so many individuals today, a number of employer-sponsored work/family policies and programs have been proposed, and some enacted, in hope of making the integration of spheres a smoother, more harmonious one. Yet this is one area of work/family research without an adequate research base (Aldous, 1990; Raabe, 1990). Little is known about the effects that various policies have on work and family outcomes. Instead, remedies tend to be proposed based on common sense assumptions that flexible work schedules or child care provisions will automatically be beneficial to everyone involved. Yet Kingston cautions that "the act of chronicling what is happening in our society with the tools of rigorous social science is indispensable, especially because 'common wisdom' is so often distorted" (Kingston, 1988; 57). In the same vein, Lambert (1993) states that "solutions have been developed before the problems have been fully understood" (p. 241). Addressing these shortages and deficiencies is the purpose of the present study.

Summary

Despite the common assumption that work and family are separate and distinct entities, historical review shows that this has rarely been the case. Prior to industrialization, work and family demands were commonly integrated, especially for women, who functioned as essential laborers both within and outside parenting and housework responsibilities. With the rise of industrialization and the removal of economic labor from the home, an ideology of separate spheres arose which separated the two worlds of work and family in terms of functions and features. Yet the ideology did not fit with the practical realities for many Americans, most assuredly when race, ethnicity, and social class were considered; thus, the actual division between the spheres has not been as demarcated as the beliefs and assumptions about such separateness. Since the latter half of the 20th century as women have proceeded to now make up almost half of the paid workforce. the reality of separate spheres has been exposed as myth and researchers have devoted much attention toward understanding the linkages between people's work lives and their home lives. Theoretical development remains in preliminary stages although research efforts in the general area of work/family have been substantial. Yet research has not progressed uniformly over all work and family associations and instead some connections have been explored much more than others. Research is needed which allows for the possibility that certain aspects of work or family life may be kept separate, may be compensated for, or may spillover into the other sphere. In addition, research is needed which tests the ways in which these associations between work and family may occur (e.g., directly or indirectly). One way of addressing these needs is to explore work/family relationships by examining the understudied though important social and policy relevant matter of employer-sponsored work/family policies and programs. Attention to organizational involvement in work/family issues through various policy and program initiatives and through the organizational culture may inform work and family outcomes and linkages. The next chapter explores the public and private sectors' history with family policy and the current rise in employer-sponsored work/family initiatives in order to provide a context for understanding the work/family policies and programs being advocated and gradually adopted today.

CHAPTER III

FAMILY POLICY

The term "family policy" refers to an array of behaviors and circumstances ranging from teen pregnancy to women's employment, from abortion to domestic violence, from child support payments to child care, from homelessness to health care, to name a few (Zimmerman, 1995). What all of these have in common is that they refer to problems that families may be experiencing. When these and other issues make it onto the agenda of public policy makers, as policy they will represent a course of governmental action intended to accomplish some goal (Zimmerman, 1995). Family policy expert Shirley Zimmerman notes, however, that although a great deal of public policy affects families in some way, the United States has very few policies which can be called "family" policy. That is because explicit family policy can be defined as policy which has family well-being as its end goal. Much public policy, then, is implicit family policy which influences families primarily through latent effects (Zimmerman, 1995). This may be, in part, because "family well-being" has vastly different meanings to different people, and since most everyone is a member of a family, all of society is a stakeholder in such policies.

As far as work and family are concerned, child care remains a critical issue for families and a potential issue for public policy. Unlike most other industrialized nations, however, the United States has largely avoided involvement in this area. In the following section, the history of child care at the federal government level will be briefly described, followed by possible explanations for the unique absence of governmental involvement and support in child care for American families.

Government-Level Child Care Policy

By and large, "child care has been provided by government to certain families only when it is linked to larger social problems of unemployment, disadvantage, or disaster" (Auerbach, 1988); thus, even in child care policy, child care has been a means rather than an end. For example, public child care was generated during the Great Depression in order to create jobs for out of work adults in teaching, nursing, nutrition, and janitorial fields rather than for the express purpose of providing child care services for children or for employed mothers (Auerbach, 1988). Similarly, the Lanham Act of 1941 allocated a limited amount of federal and state funds for the temporary establishment of child care centers in defense plants employing women for the purpose of keeping up production during World War II (Auerbach, 1988). Explicit government involvement in the care of children came closest to being realized in 1971 when both houses of Congress passed the Child Development Act (see for example Giele, 1978; Joffe, 1983; Rothman, 1973). This bill would have allocated two billion dollars for the creation of child care facilities, mandatory in communities with populations greater than 10,000. Also included in the bill were comprehensive child development services to children, as well as prenatal care. A sliding scale for payment was proposed based on income, with services free for some families. President Nixon, however, vetoed the bill on the grounds that group day care would "diminish both parental authority and parental involvement with children" by lending government support to "communal approaches to childrearing over against the family-centered approach" (Congressional Record, 1971). President Nixon's comments reflect the sentiments of many today and illustrate the way in which values about the family, about motherhood, and about the role of government figure into child care debates.

The most stable factors associated with child care in America is that it has continually been an emotionally charged, controversial issue. Some individuals are opposed to the substitute care of children arguing that mothers' absence from young children weakens the mother-child bond and threatens traditional family values (Hayes, et al., 1990). Similarly, some argue that the care of young children is the responsibility of their parents and that they alone must be responsible for providing for them. Yet, this argument is restricted to the youngest children because few would argue for the elimination of public support for the education of kindergarten through twelfth grade, or for the elimination of public support for college education. Moreover, few parents would be able to finance the education of their children without public support. In contrast, others believe that the demographic trends including women's labor force participation, gender equality, changing family forms, and economic conditions are a reality in American life; thus, public policy should optimize the well-being of children who must receive substitute care while their parents work (Hayes, et al., 1990). Still others contend that public policy should support the employment of women by assisting with child care (Hayes, et al., 1990). This argument is most relevant to the calls for women to be off of the welfare rolls after two years. In order that women not require AFDC assistance, they must have some access to affordable child care in order that they may be employed. In addition, some argue that comprehensive child care programs providing not only substitute care but also health care, education, nutrition, and social services should be provided to children of low income families so that they may receive the care they need and also be prepared to enter the public education system (Hayes et al., 1990).

In addition to the ideological debates over child care, there also are debates about the form child care would take if it were publicly supported. Child care arrangements in America today are of diverse forms of providers and program types, including child care centers, nursery schools and preschools, Head Start programs, family day care homes, and before and after school programs, as well as relative care, in-home babysitting, and nanny care (Hayes, et al., 1990). Disagreement exists among child development professionals, parents, and social welfare planners as to the types of care that are best for children. Relatedly, there is concern over whether government child care programs would limit parental choice in the matter. Existing research shows that parents often have differing ideas from child development professionals as to what constitutes quality care; moreover, though data are available showing what arrangements parents use, little exist to show what arrangements parents would prefer. For instance, parents may be using what arrangement is available and affordable to them, and their use may or may not accurately reflect their actual preferences. Thus, more research is needed on the child care preferences of parents.

Government's role today in child care is very limited. Some support is provided for a few low-income families, including the preschool Head Start program. Though the program has been well-received and is considered highly beneficial to the children, only one in six eligible families can be served under existing funding (Kamen, 1991). Further, even this program may be in jeopardy as part of cuts in social programs. Limited tax breaks for child care are also available which assist primarily middle-class families (see Sidel, 1992). The government is also responsible for the licensing of child care facilities, but this occurs at the state level and there is great variation in terms of standards and quality. Researchers have found that in quality environments, children can benefit from a preschool experience. This has been found most dramatically among at-risk children. Quality of care generally refers to low child/caregiver ratios, small groups, well-educated and trained caregivers, caregiver warmth, and low staff turnover. Yet unfortunately, high quality care is infrequently found. A recent study of child care centers by researchers from four major universities reports that although there are wide variations, "most child care is mediocre in quality, sufficiently poor to interfere with children's emotional and intellectual development," and that only one in seven centers provides good-quality care (Cost, Quality, and Child Outcomes in Child Care Centers Executive Summary, 1995: 1). Of prime interest to those concerned with quality of care is day care's high staff turnover rate of nearly forty percent, four times the average rate for all occupations, and a characteristic considered detrimental to children (Noble, 1993; Whitebook, Howes, and Phillips, 1989). Typically found responsible for the high turnover is the pay that day care providers receive: staff wages were found to be among the highest predictors of quality of care, and <u>the</u> most important predictor of staff turnover (Noble, 1993; Whitebook, et al., 1989). According to the Children's Defense Fund, "two out of every three workers in child-care centers earn below poverty-level wages, regardless of their education, training, or work experience" (Tuominen, 1991: 462) and are among the lowest paid adult wage earners in our society (Sidel, 1992). The wages paid to day care workers affect the quality and stability of care that children receive, as well as contribute to the growing feminization of poverty in American society. Considering that a single mother of two earning the median income for a single parent is already paying more than one-third of her income for child care (Kamen, 1991: 198), it is difficult for many families to pay more in an effort to improve the level of care. Further, in the absence of public support, it is easy to see how the interests of two groups of women --- employed mothers of young children and day care workers --- can conflict. In order for mothers of preschool-aged children to be employed in the paid workforce, they must secure affordable substitute care, often on their very limited budgets. In contrast, day care providers suffer when their employment does not provide them with a living wage. Previous research indicates that features of the occupation of child care provider are closely connected to the well-being and experiences of children. In light of the extent of mediocre care that exists, it is not surprising that a 1989 poll taken by Time-CNN reported that day care ranked second behind equal pay for equal work as the issue most important to women today (Kamen, 1991).

Although concern about the status of day care exists among scholars, parents, child advocates and within other pockets of society, there has been no organized, widespread movement in recent years to remedy the situation. As it stands, parents remain responsible for arranging, evaluating, and underwriting the care and preschool education for their children, often under difficult conditions of supply and economic availability.

Public involvement in child care in response to the growing labor force participation among women of industrialized nations worldwide has not been the problem for other countries that it has been in the United States. This may result, in part, from the uniqueness of the U.S. in the way of social, economic, and cultural diversity, in addition to the political process and traditions concerning social welfare (Hayes, et al., 1990). Almost all other industrialized nations have established, parental leave policies which allow parents between 6 months and 3 years of job protected leave while receiving 25 to 75 percent of pay. Parental leave is an optimal arrangement for those who believe that infants and toddlers are better off, generally speaking, in the care of their mother or father rather than in substitute care situations, as well as being an arrangement that allows families to avoid the high costs associated with infant care. In addition, many countries have created early childhood education programs for preschoolers which tend to be universally available, free of charge, publicly funded and operated, and available to all children, regardless of their mother's employment status. The parental leave and child care policies are offered as part of a comprehensive family policy which provides cash and/or in-kind benefits to families. The benefits are available to dual-earner families, single-parent families, and also afford mothers who want to remain home with their children the economic ability to do so (Hayes, et al., 1990).

The Case for Employer Involvement in Family Policy

The ways in which an issue gets placed on the agenda of matters up for consideration by public policy makers have received extensive attention by policy analysts. Theories of the policy process have been developed which focus on the players involved, for example, and their influence on agenda placement and outcome. In addition, certain characteristics of the issues, themselves, are considered important for whether an issue makes an appearance on the agenda. Issues perceived as crises and issues backed by a visible interest group or the bureaucracy have a favorable chance of being placed on the agenda (Theodoulou, 1995). Further, the more an issue resembles a prior one that the government has addressed, the more an issue can be linked to national symbols or values, the greater the number of people affected by the issue, and the greater the availability of governmental means to address the issue along with an absence of private means, the greater the likelihood of agenda placement (Peters, 1993).

In addition to these characteristics, values are becoming recognized as being critically important in the policy process. In fact, some contend that the policy process ultimately is the struggle between competing values (Koenig, 1986). The diverse viewpoints on the role of government in the family, the role of women, and the needs of children, combined with the varying array of arrangements, caregivers, and program orientations which have contributed to the lack of a comprehensive national child care policy, fundamentally reflect differing underlying values. Aaron, Mann, and Taylor have recently edited a book, <u>Values and Public Policy</u> (1994) which focuses attention on the ways in which values shape policy itself and shape responses to policy, and in turn, how policy may influence values. Taking a value perspective toward these issues may offer additional insight, not only into the lack of public policy toward child care, but also into the movement toward encouraging policy at the employer level.

Daniel Yankelovich (1994) has provided a useful framework for understanding current trends in family policy. The focus of his argument is on the relationship between the economic system and the value changes that have occurred in the U.S. during the latter half of this century. Specifically, he contends that two key factors are associated with the value changes: the economic condition, specifically whether conditions are becoming more or less affluent, and people's perception of whether the trend will continue. He describes the three stages that have occurred in response to what he calls the "affluence effect."

Following World War II, the United States experienced great economic prosperity or affluence. But having lived through the Great Depression, Americans were skeptical of whether the affluence would continue. As a result, values in this first stage remained those borne out of scarcity which emphasized hard work, sacrifice, and saving. By the 1960s and 1970s, however, people's perception of the certainty of their country's affluence changed as they began to think that economic prosperity was secure, that it would last forever. Consequently, values in this second stage emphasized self-expression and self-fulfillment in the face of expanding life choices. For example, jobs were expected to be personally satisfying, and relationships were expected to allow freedom and self-expression. A live-for-today philosophy developed and the prior values of morality, conformity, and sacrifice were de-emphasized. By the 1990s, the preceding years of economic decline created uncertainty among Americans along with the realization that their prosperity could not be taken for granted. Jobs were eliminated and not replaced. Economic security became more of a struggle for more of the people, and optimism was replaced by fear. People's value response in the third stage has been to attempt to hold onto their expanded values of self-expression and self-fulfillment in the face of economic decline and uncertainty but with a sense of uneasiness (Yankelovich, 1994).

Yankelovich suggests that these value changes have influenced attitudes toward public policy and social programs. During the second stage when Americans felt secure in their prosperity, they were more willing to support social programs to assist others. They felt that if they were well off, he claims, then everyone else deserved a break, too. But the recent uncertainty and fear have created a heightened sense of individualism among Americans and a "look-out-for-oneself" philosophy. People have lost confidence in the ability of the government to accomplish goals and protect citizens. Thus, entitlement programs and affirmative action policies are greatly out of favor.

Yankelovich's conceptualization provides a useful framework for understanding not only the value changes that have occurred, but also how the economic structure of society influences individual and collective behavior. It also helps explain why individualist approaches and explanations are preferred now over societally-based responses. For example, the problems of teen pregnancy, drug and alcohol abuse, and youth crime are commonly phrased today, as they were in industrializing America by the middle-class regarding the working poor, as resulting from a breakdown in the family, rather than these problems being viewed as the consequence of broader, societal trends. As long as an individualist framework is used, no solution is required beyond the actions of individuals or individual families.

The lack of push among citizens for the creation of family policy likely relates to the vastly different meanings of family well-being, the lack of prior precedence for government action, the privacy of the family which in some ways allows the family to be a special dominion with its own values, norms, and authority over members, and the increased individualism among people today as Yankelovich describes. In addition to these explanations, research shows that people generally fail to make a connection between child care, family leave, or flexible work schedules, for example, and the amount of time that parents potentially have available for their children, a factor which most Americans consider essential for strengthening families (Yankelovich, 1994; Zimmerman, 1995). For support of policy at any level, people must be made aware of the connections between societal conditions and institutional arrangements and family well-being.

Yankelovich suggests that those interested in public policy today should keep in mind three values which he contends are particularly salient to people today in light of their reaction to economic circumstances. The first is <u>choice</u> or the ability of persons to exercise some control over their destiny. Second is <u>reciprocity</u>, in contrast to entitlement, whereby provisions are distributed in the context of exchange, avoiding the perception that some are receiving "something for nothing." The third especially salient value related to policy today is <u>participatory decision-making</u> in contrast to having decisions made by leaders in isolation. The values Yankelovich proposes may suggest why family policy, specifically work/family and child care-related policies, may be more attractive and effective now when approached at the employer-level. Within companies, work/family policies sometimes are offered as part of a "cafeteria" plan in which employees can choose which ones are most useful for their particular circumstances; thus, maximizing individual choice. In addition, employer-sponsored work/family policies are based on a reciprocal relationship between employer and employee rather than being entitlements. Finally, within companies, even large ones, employees may have greater potentials for participation in decision-making through taking part in needs assessments and employee councils and other means of policy formulation. Each of these conditions are less readily met by policy at the national level.

Summary

Employer-sponsored family-related initiatives constitute a small but growing trend in America today. Rather than these issues being addressed by governments, which has occurred in many countries, the United States has avoided involvement in these issues and widespread movement calling for such involvement goes unseen. The lack of government support by political leaders to establish a national child care policy has not brought mothers back into the home as many have hoped, however, nor has it strengthened families. Most women are employed in order to make ends meet, either because they are the sole supporters of their children or because they are living at a time when two salaries are necessary to meet the needs of most families. Several explanations for the lack of national child care policy are likely, including the privacy of the family and the historical lack of public involvement. Other explanations pertain to the differing perspectives concerning the role of government in the family, the role of women, and the needs of children, in addition to the lack of perceived connection among individuals about institutional and governmental arrangements concerning work schedules and child care with family well-being. A further likely explanation relates to people's fear of economic instability and their consequent lack of support for government action and social programs in general. The time of the most active attempts at policy formulation coincided with perceptions of economic affluence stability and the consequent support for rights, opportunities, and collective perspectives and approaches over individualistic interpretations. As the security of affluence wanes and becomes more precarious, people's fear has given rise to individualist interpretations of problems and beliefs of individual responsibility for solutions. Policy attempts today must be especially mindful of the prevailing policy-relevant values of choice, reciprocity, and participatory decision-making. The changing values that coincide with perceptions of the economic system make government level, explicit family policy less likely at this time, and employer-based family policy more enticing as well as more feasible. Keeping this in mind, Yankelovich's conceptualization helps to explain the lack of federal policies and approaches and the beginning growth and greater supportiveness of employer-based family policies and programs. The next chapter details the work/family approaches occurring in workplaces today.

CHAPTER IV

EMPLOYER-BASED WORK/FAMILY POLICIES

Historical Perspective on Employer Involvement in Families and Child Care

Employer involvement in the family lives of employees is not an altogether new occurrence. Corporate welfarism was not uncommon during the early decades of this century, a time in which company towns, stores, and housing were not uncommon (Brandes, 1976, cited in Kamerman and Kingston, 1982). As profits declined during the depression years, as the supply of labor grew, and as the federal government created programs to assist citizens as well as legislation in the Wagner Act to diminish employers' power over employees, corporate welfarism diminished (Kamerman and Kingston, 1982). In terms of employer involvement in child care, as with government involvement designed to meet the temporary production needs during World War II, some employers also supplied child care during this time for the same reason (Auerbach, 1988). Employers providing care were those directly involved in the war effort, such as shipyards, aircraft and tank plants, and uniform manufacturers (Auerbach, 1988). Employers were financially able to provide the services because of access to Lanham Act funds and because they could pass additional costs onto the War Department as part of production (Auerbach, 1988). Thus, establishing child care was inexpensive for these employers who ultimately benefited from the improved stability among their women employees (Auerbach, 1988). The child care provisions were eliminated following the war even in the midst of protest among women to keep the centers open and despite the fact that the centers were perceived as having contributed favorably to production (Auerbach, 1988).

Employers came under greater pressure to provide child care benefits to their employees in the early 1980s as funding for child care-related government programs began to be cutback, decentralized and privatized (Auerbach, 1988; Kahn and Kamerman, 1987). Although the actual impetus by the government has been rather small, "the most significant incentive provided by the government for private, employer-supported child care came with two particular changes in the tax law: the creation of the Dependent Care Assistance Plan (Internal Revenue Code sec. 129), which enables employers to offer child care as a tax-free benefit to employees, and the allowance for flexible benefit packages (Internal Revenue Code sec. 401[k]) in which child care can be one option" (Auerbach, 1988: 60).

Although the number of employers providing child care assistance remains small, the push to do so by many work/family advocates is great, and many business leaders are considering the possibility that work/family policies may make good business sense. Women now constitute almost half of the workforce, a trend that is expected to continue. In addition, many of these women are employed while their children are young. Child care is reported to be a top concern of employed women across surveys, and many women cite the lack of available and affordable child care as their reason for quitting work or for not seeking employment. Thus, child care has become an issue not only for women but also an issue for employers to consider. No single approach characterizes current employer involvement in child care; rather, an array of policies and programs exist which support the child care needs of employees both directly and indirectly.

Work/Family Policies and Programs

Types of Work Family Policies and Programs. Work/family policies and programs consist of a number of initiatives, and can be described under two main headings: service supports and flexibility supports. Service supports are those in which child care services/provisions are made directly available to employees. These take the form of on- or near-site child care centers, subsidies to help defray the cost of child care, or child care referral services which disseminate information to employees about how to locate and evaluate child care arrangements. Also included may be after-school, holiday, and summer programs, as well as backup or sick-child care.

Flexibility supports, in which some type of flexible work arrangements are offered to employees regarding when and where they work, assist with child care indirectly and are available to others besides parent-employees. These take the form of flextime, in which employees have some leeway concerning the precise times at which they begin or end their workday; flexplace or telecommuting, in which employees work part of the time out of their home; part-time, in which the employee works some number of hours considered less than full-time, usually with prorated benefits; job-sharing, in which two employees share one full-time job; compressed work week, in which employees may work four ten-hour days or some other variation; and family leave, in which employees have job-protected (paid, partially paid, or sometimes unpaid) leave due to childbirth or family-member illness (in addition to the government-mandated (1993) 12 weeks of unpaid leave). Though flexibility supports do not assist with child care directly, they potentially increase the amount of time parents have available for children. Flexibility supports may also be more accommodating to children's schedules, and may contribute to shared parenting.

As to the number of employers involved in work/family initiatives and the specific types of support they provide, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (1988), direct child care supports are the least common. Eleven percent of employers provide some type of child care service support; however, only 2.1 percent provide a child care center for their employees. Flexibility supports, which assist with child care indirectly, are more common. Sixty-one percent of employers offer some form of flexible work arrangement (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1988).

Like the variability that exists among the types of policies and programs offered, the characteristics within a single program vary among companies. For example, of those companies who provide their own child care center, some contribute financially to start-up costs only, while others pay ongoing operating expenses (Auerbach, 1988). Moreover, the amount that parents pay in child care fees at the centers vary as well.

Judith Auerbach (1988) has authored a book on employer initiatives and child care. Included in her work is the identification of characteristics of employers who are providing child care assistance to their employees. The most significant demographic characteristic associated with involvement in child care is having a substantial proportion of women among their workforce; having a large number of workers of childbearing age is important as well (Auerbach, 1988). Among organizational characteristics, nonunion status is related to involvement in child care. Reasons for this may be that when unions exist, companies consider child care to be the responsibility of the union, or perhaps providing child care is perceived as a way to avoid unionization, and also because companies with significant proportions of women employees tend to be in sectors that are traditionally not union organized. Sectors found most among those involved in child care are service (especially health care), finance (banking and insurance institutions), communications, and high-tech industries (Auerbach, 1988).

A best practice approach to identifying employers with work/family policies can be obtained through the published rankings of companies considered to be the leaders in this area. One such source are the rankings published in Working Mother magazine. Compiled by Milton Moskowitz, October 1997's twelfth annual survey listed the "100 best companies for working mothers." Moskowitz examined pay scales (compared to industry averages), opportunities for women (reported as the proportion of managerial, professional, and administrative employees who are women), child care provisions, and other "family-friendly" benefits. It is unclear what minimum criteria had to be met to be included on the list; that is, how extensive the family-friendly benefits had to be in order to qualify a company as one of the best. Moreover, even though these companies are identified as the most family-friendly companies in America, there is considerable variation among them. For example, considering family leave, some companies permit only the legally required 12 weeks of unpaid leave, while others offer as much as 40 additional weeks with some full pay. Moskowitz notes that since the rankings began, the proportion of employers providing child care has risen (79 out of 100 offer on- or near-site centers), but the advancement of women has been disappointing. The companies they designate as the 10 best include Allstate, Barnett Banks, Fel-Pro, Glaxo Wellcome, IBM, Johnson & Johnson, Merck, NationsBank, SAS Institute, and Xerox.

A best practice approach to identifying family-friendly companies is useful in that it indicates what is being done by employers considered to be leaders in this area. The rankings are limited, however, in that they rely exclusively on the formal, written policies of the organization rather than examining the way the policies are perceived, used, and responded to. These factors relate to the work/family climate that exists within the organization.

Organizational Culture and the Work/Family Climate

Organizational Cultures. Every organization has official rules and formally stated policies and procedures for how its members are to carry out their duties. Likewise, every organization also has an informal structure, the unofficial but influential norms that arise from the interplay between the formal structure and the beliefs, habits, experiences, and objectives that members bring into the organization. From both the formal and the informal workings, an organizational culture arises, peculiar in some ways to a particular group of members within a distinct organization at a certain point in time, but generalizable to some degree beyond itself. Organizational culture began to receive scholarly attention in the late 1970s. Borrowed from the fields of sociology and anthropology, scholars engaged in organizational studies became interested in whether the concept of culture could be applied to organizations as a way of better understanding the distinct moods, styles, and characteristics that exist within (Reichers and Schneider, 1990).

In the years since, scholars have found it to be a useful yet elusive concept to measure and even define.

Generally speaking, culture refers to the knowledge, beliefs, values, and rules governing behavior shared by members of society. When seeking a precise definition of organizational culture, one will find an enormous array of variations numbering into the hundreds (Kopelman, Brief, and Guzzo, 1990). Mary Leslie Mohan (1993) notes that, "even a cursory overview of organizational culture literature highlights the fact that defining this elusive phenomenon still remains one of the most time consuming, if not one of the most frustrating, problems facing researchers in the area today" (p. 9). A primary distinction among conceptualizations of organizational culture refers to whether it is something an organization <u>is</u> or something an organization <u>has</u> (Smircich, 1983). When culture is defined as something organizations are, it takes on the characteristics of a root metaphor for understanding organizations (Schultz, 1994). Organizations have historically been viewed and described by a variety of metaphors including the machine, living and political systems, the brain, network, and culture metaphors (see for example Morgan, 1986; Schultz, 1994; Stohl, 1995). Among those who take the metaphor approach, research consists of rich, qualitative descriptions of the culture.

In contrast, when culture is viewed as something organizations have, it is considered to be but one characteristic of organizations. Accordingly, such research, often quantified, tends to focus on the causes and effects of cultural manifestations for the organization and its members (Reichers and Schneider, 1990). Though wide diversity of viewpoints exists as to the form of organizational culture, the number and permeation of cultures and subcultures, and the questions and foci appropriate for cultural analyses, the concept nevertheless appears to be valuable for the study of organizations, regardless of how the term is used because "it seems to capture previously seemingly ineffable organizational attributes that researchers and practitioners alike agree are there" (Reichers and Schneider, 1990: 29).

Just as members of a society are socialized into the broader, societal culture, organization members are socialized regarding the specific cultural knowledge necessary to participate in a particular organization. New members go through a process of coming to understand the values, norms, and behaviors required for successful functioning (Schein, 1985; Van Maanen, 1975). Problems arise for the member when there are incongruent organizational identity perceptions, or a poor "fit" between the values of the individual and the values of the organization, resulting in feelings of pressure, stress, and despair (Smircich, 1983), as well as work anxiety which results when goals are unclear or disagreed upon (Mohan, 1993; Steers, 1977). Similarly, a culture can be inhibitory or detrimental to an organization when it is inconsistent with the organizational goals (Kilmann, Saxton, and Serpa, 1985). A good deal of attention has focused on the extent to which cultures may be deliberately created, managed, and changed to foster more optimal achievement of organizational goals, such as financial performance (for a review of studies, see Siehl and Martin, 1990; see also Frost, et al., 1985; Kilmann, et al., 1985). Workplace culture, in addition, has garnered empirical attention concerning its effect on a number of individual outcomes. Specifically, various components of organizational culture have been linked with workers' level of commitment and organizational identification (Etzioni, 1961), job satisfaction (Allen and Dyer, 1980), and person-to-organization fit and role conflict (Rousseau, 1990).

Most discussions of the impact of culture focus their assessment on potential or actual affects for the organization (for instance, organization success) or on the organizational lives of members (job satisfaction, morale, productivity, for example); however, Davis (1985) offers a broader scope by suggesting that an organization's culture may impact external entities including customers, competitors, the government, the public, and shareholders. A substantial body of literature exists regarding the interplay between work and family lives, most thoroughly with directionality pointed toward the effects of work on families (Zedeck, 1992). Within the organizational culture literature, however, the possibility that the culture of the workplace exerts an impact that extends beyond the organization and employee to the family, to marital relationships, and to the structure of and experiences in childhood remains unknown. Exploring the possible link between an organization's culture and the family may most appropriately be undertaken through examining a component of culture known as "climate."

Organizational Climates. Although a subset of culture, the concept of organizational climate predates scholarly attention to organizational culture. Perhaps because it was expounded originally for its applicability to organizations, it has not been fraught with conceptual and methodological ambiguity as has its more abstract counterpart (Reichers and Schneider, 1990). The purpose of the climate construct was to delineate the environmental influences within organizations and how they might influence motivation and behavior (Reichers and Schneider, 1990). More precisely, organizational climate refers to the "shared perceptions of organizational policies, practices, and procedures, both formal and informal" (Reichers and Schneider, 1990: 22). It asks questions such as: what is it like to work here?; why is it this way?; and what does and does not happen as a result? (Jones, Moore, and Snyder, 1988). Hence, climate and culture are very similar when culture is studied as a characteristic of organizations rather than as a metaphor for organizations. In the former case, climate is considered to be a manifestation or subset of culture, though the line between the two can be ambiguous (Mohan, 1993; Reichers and Schneider, 1990; Schein, 1985). As Reichers and Schneider (1990) explain:

> Culture is probably a deeper, less consciously held set of meanings than most of what has been called organizational climate. However, at a general level, there is substantial overlap between the two concepts. This is especially true when climate and culture are viewed as reciprocal processes, the one causing the other in an endless cycle over time. In this manner, climate (for example, the reward policies of an organization) is both the manifestation of culture (for instance, assumptions about worker motivation) and the data on which culture comes to be inferred and understood (p. 24).

Generally speaking, culture can, and climate does, pertain to the ways in which individuals attempt to understand their environment and both are learned through the process of socialization. Kopelman, Brief, and Guzzo (1990) present a model that includes both culture and climate as they impact various organizational outcomes. In their model, organizational culture is viewed as a subset of the broader societal culture which directly acts upon human resource management practices (e.g., hiring, placement, promotion). These practices then create a climate within the organization characterized by five main dimensions: goal emphasis, means emphasis, reward orientation, task support, and socioemotional support. Climate, in turn, affects workers' cognitive and affective states (i.e., worker motivation and job satisfaction) and organizational behaviors (i.e., attachment, performance, and citizenship), which then effect organizational productivity.

Other researchers have identified similar "core" dimensions of climate thought to exist with varying degrees of saliency across work environments in addition to the earliest identified dimensions of reward, support, and warmth (Reichers and Schneider, 1990; see Taguiri and Litwin, 1968). Beyond the dimensions of overall climate, Schneider (1990) notes that specific climate types have been described, including climate for psychological success (Hall and Schneider, 1973) and climate for safety (Zohar, 1980) as well as leadership climates (Fleishman, 1953), managerial climates (McGregor, 1960), and service climates (Schneider, 1990). According to Schneider (1990; 1975), the most effective climate research proceeds in such a way that the dependent variable of interest dictates the particular dimension of climate studied. He suggests that researchers identify a focus of interest and then explore the extent to which people in the organization perceive the organization to be enacting this mission. It is likely that a work/family climate exists in organizations surrounding employees' familial responsibilities, especially when work and family demands interact or intrude upon each other, and pertaining also to any work/family policies and programs that exist within the organization, and in response to those who use the programs.

Work Family Policies as Formal Culture. Corporations are often touted as family-friendly when any or some of the service supports or flexibility supports are made available to their employees; in fact, most publications which identify and rank companies on their friendliness to families do so by relying heavily or even exclusively on the basis of their formal policies. Thus, organizational culture is part of this evaluation insofar as available policies and programs are considered to represent or reflect the organization's culture. Of the three potential outcome areas (i.e., the organization, employees' careers, and the family), the relationship between the formal culture of family policies and potential benefits to employers has been the most frequently discussed topic in the literature. Unfortunately, however, among the extensive number of essays on the topic only a small fraction is empirically generated while the vast majority consists of "descriptive research and prescriptive directives" (Hall and Parker, 1993: 5; see also Kingston, 1990; Lambert, 1993; Raabe, 1990). Moreover, the purpose of most of these essays is to persuade employers by extolling the potential benefits to the organization from the policies, and pointing out the potential dangers of not doing so. Related to these dangers are references to projections of workforce demographics in the near future as presented in the well-known publication Workforce 2000 (Johnston and Packer, 1987). New workers in the coming workforce are predicted to be white males only to a small degree while women and racial and ethnic minorities will be disproportionately represented in the largest categories of new workers. Already women make up nearly half of the workforce; thus, for employers to attract and keep the best workers, it is claimed, they must offer new types of incentives and become more responsive to the personal needs of employees. That employers are creating such policies at such a slow and uneven pace is said to be due in part to the current demographics and lifestyles of top corporate executives, the majority of whom are white (98.6 percent), males (97.7 percent) who are married to women not working outside the home (Louv, 1990).

Other reasons for changing the formal culture of the workplace by offering family policies in addition to the changing demographics, also pertain to organizational outcomes: employees will be more productive, not only because absenteeism and tardiness will reduce, but also because employed parents will be able to focus on their jobs more if they are worried less about their children. Policy advocates tend to point out the negative spillover that occurs when stresses at home lead to diminished capacities at work. Hence, when employers recognize workers' responsibilities as parents, this will enable employees to better perform their job, thereby creating a positive spillover and, in addition, will increase employees' commitment to and identification with the organization.

Currently, there is little empirical evidence available to demonstrate that the policies actually have their intended effects for employers (Kingston, 1990; Lambert, 1993; Raabe, 1990). Even organizations which institute various family initiatives rarely conduct outcome evaluations, tending to rely instead on anecdotal comments or favorable publicity to support their continued availability, the latter of which is cited by employers as an additional motivating factor for offering the policies (e.g., Auerbach, 1988).

The mere existence, or nonexistence, of certain official policies in actuality, though, offers little toward evaluating the family-friendliness of the organization. What is needed, and what the present study seeks to undertake, is a more in-depth examination of actual practices, reflected by what is going on more informally further down the channels from the levels at which policy usually is instituted in the behavior of supervisors and co-workers, and is a matter of climate.

The Work/Family Climate. A useful distinction to describe the way in which culture and climate are used in the present study is Erving Goffman's (1959) concept of front stage and back stage behavior. A company's policies or formal culture can be viewed as that company's front stage presentation. It is how the leaders want the company to appear or the image they want to convey to employees and to outside observers. The informal culture or the climate of the workplace can be viewed as the company's back stage presentation. It is how those on the inside perceive things as actually being. The closeness of fit between a company's front and back stage presentation may correspond well with one another, but it would be unrealistic to merely assume that the two are identical. For example, a family leave policy may exist on the books, but the attitudes, values, and needs, combined with the discretionary authority of supervisors, may prevent or inhibit its use. Moreover, negative consequences may result from the use of the policy-allowed leave. For instance, persons taking the full leave allowed may suffer serious repercussions if by doing so they are perceived as less committed to their careers. Negative sanctions not only may be administered by supervisors but also by co-workers if they believe the employee is getting special treatment, if they feel an additional unduly heavy workload has befallen them as a result, or if they consider the organization to be unresponsive to their needs. All of these factors relate to and reflect the work/family climate of the organization and each has been documented, though their prevalence and effects are unknown. Thus, it is not merely the formal family policies that impact families and careers and ultimately organizations, but also the climate that exists pertaining to the policies and to the people who use them. In a family unsupportive climate, employees' familial responsibilities must be downplayed or hidden from co-workers and/or supervisors. In a family supportive climate, such responsibilities are considered a natural part of employees' lives. This is separate and distinct from the written, official rules, policies, procedures, and mission of the organization.

That the formal policies of the workplace can change without an accompanying change in the informal culture or the creation of a supportive work/family climate is acknowledged by researchers and practitioners alike, and is especially suggestive within the context of policy usage. For example, a 1991 survey of Du Pont employees found that 35 percent of men favored time off for fathers to care for newborns but in four years only 54 men out of 41,000 took the leave (Saltzman, 1993). Similarly, at Stride Rite's on-site intergenerational center, after three years only two elderly people there were relatives of employees (Laabs, 1993; Saltzman, 1993). Further, at ISI, a database publisher in Philadelphia, only 7 of the 150 children at their center in 1991 were children of ISI employees (Saltzman, 1993). In the last case, cost clearly was a factor in that most of the employees simply could not afford the center's rates, but in other cases the reasons for lack of use are equivocal.

<u>Personnel Journal</u> (Solomon, 1994) recently assembled 13 well-known work/family commentators affiliated with colleges and universities (Wellesley, Boston

University, Chicago, Harvard), corporations (Marriott, Stride Rite), and research institutes and consulting firms (including Families and Work Institute, Catalyst, Work/Family Directions, and the Conference Board). Their mission was to offer their impressions of the current state of affairs concerning work/family programs in today's corporate world in terms of their value to the company, value to employees, and usage. The criteria related to value to companies were precise and unambiguous: do the policies offer a return on investment, attract and retain employees, increase productivity, and decrease absenteeism? For value to employees, the criteria were less succinct and more equivocal: do the policies seem to make it easier for employees to balance work and family demands?; do they appear to be helpful to many or a few, and are they very helpful or moderately helpful?; are they affordable and convenient, and do they appear to help workers focus on their jobs and miss fewer days? The panel gave the highest ratings (As and Bs) for flexible arrangements in terms of their perceived value both to employers and employees. Usage, however, appeared dismal receiving mostly Ds and Fs with a few high Cs in the area of child care referrals, work/family seminars, newsletters, prorated workdays, dependent care savings accounts, and relocation assistance. All but one of those with the highest usage (flexible schedules) are perhaps the most benign forms of work/family directives available. None of the programs or policies received an A or even a B in terms of usage. In their opinion, lack of use of the policies resulted from a lack of availability, lack of employee awareness of the policies, and a belief among employees that using the policies would jeopardize their careers (Solomon, 1994). The concern that use of family policies will jeopardize careers has been suggested elsewhere (e.g., Hochschild, 1989; Swiss and

Walker, 1993).

When new policies are instated over existing rather than new, more compatible work norms and supportive work/family climates, the outcome to employees who use the policies may perhaps be one of two options: banishment to the less-valued, dead-end "mommy track" (see Schwartz, 1989), or the expectation of conformity to the male work norm demonstrating total dedication to the organization and eliminating all interference. A 1992 Conference Board survey of 152 companies found that 69 percent of employees said they are inhibited about using family policies out of a concern that organizational commitment is evaluated by hours spent at the office (Saltzman, 1993). Similarly, a study of federal employees in the same year found that 20 years after flexible schedules were introduced to government workers, 60 percent of employees "did not feel they could use them" (Saltzman, 1993: 64). Fran Rodgers, president of Work/Family Directions, a Boston consulting firm, notes that "a company that calls itself family friendly but still gives awards to those macho 'heroes' who go 60 hours without sleep and work every weekend is clearly sending mixed messages" (cited in Saltzman, 1993: 66). As researchers have studied the extent to which women and men spend their lives engaged in work tasks, either the work of their jobs or the work of their home, they have found that the average employed adult in the United States works approximately one month more per year than she or he did 20 years ago (Schor, 1993). Working the hours that they do, most of whom are or will be doing so while simultaneously raising a family, it is easy to see that workers would be reluctant to give even more of their lives to their jobs in the style of the male work norm, and considering how much they already are giving, would like to be rewarded for their efforts rather than be considered less committed and less valuable, and thus, overlooked for advancement.

Further circumstantial evidence that family unsupportive climates may exist in family-friendly cultures recently has appeared in the literature. For example, a Wall Street Journal study of the job data filed with the federal government from over 38,000 companies found that some of the companies considered the most family-friendly were also some of the worst at promoting women (Sharpe, 1994). Aetna Life and Casualty was named by Working Mother magazine in 1992 as one of the 10 most family-friendly companies, yet Aetna's manager of work/family strategies says that no more than 3 out of 10 supervisors fully support employees who want to use Aetna's policies (cited in Saltzman, 1993). Another corporate representative involved in work/family initiatives states that when companies attempt to make the transition from preliminary family policy involvement to actually changing the corporate culture, they often find mid-level managers and supervisors to be a major obstacle (Regan, 1994). She believes these supervisors consider the policies a threat to their authority, as usurping their control, and as unnecessary intrusions. Ellen Galinsky, president of New York based Families and Work Institute, with Dana Friedman (1991) has published The Corporate Reference Guide to Work-Family Programs. In this guide, they characterize policy development by stages, beginning with little awareness and progressing to a holistic, innovative approach. The guide placed only four companies (Johnson & Johnson, IBM, Aetna, and Corning) at the final stage. In order to get to the point of promoting specific initiatives, more work needs to be done to examine the impact of the already existing policies and how these operate under varying organizational climates, and a more direct consideration of the impact of current family-friendly policies on families.

Family-Friendly Policies and Families. As previously noted, much of the literature on workplace family policies extols the benefits to employers while apparently assuming that the employee and her or his family will be natural co-beneficiaries. This likely is due to the presumed motivation of many of the writers to encourage more employers to become responsive to the realities of parenthood, a worthwhile goal. To get employers interested, it is assumed that they must be made aware of the benefits they will accrue. To focus on the benefits to employees and their families perhaps is an argument considered less persuasive for employer policy adoption, probably a realistic assumption. However, most of the literature encourages employers to institute formal work/family policies prior to having a supporting empirically and theoretically grounded body of knowledge concerning the precise impacts such policies will have for anyone, but especially for employees and families.

Some scholars suggest that the benefits to employees and families not simply be assumed and, further, warn that it is possible that some family policies may even be detrimental to employees if used as a means of control and manipulation, and may actually result in spending less time with their families (Hall and Parker, 1993; Lambert, 1993; Louv, 1990; Schor, 1993). Susan Lambert (1993), for example, cautions that "many so-called family-responsive policies function as work supports to help ensure that workers continue to give priority to work over family" (p. 237). Douglas Hall and Victoria Parker (1993) worry that many existing programs make it possible, maybe even compulsory, for employees to spend less time with their families by making it easier to come to work. Juliet Schor, Harvard professor and author of The Overworked American, voices her concerns emphatically:

> Much of the 'progressive' response from corporations --- the so-called 'family-friendly' policies --- has been in the form of policies which have made it easier for the family to adapt to the requirements of the workplace. For example, a Boston hospital has on-site care for children of workers on the 3 P.M. to 11 P.M. shift. Employees can bring their children to the hospital, where they are cared for by child care workers, given supper, and later put to bed; the parents pick their children up after the shift. To me, this is an extreme example of what is wrong with much of the thinking on how we should cope with the work/family dilemma: Children are being forced to adapt to the requirements of parents' jobs. Of course this type of program is considered progressive and forward-thinking in our society today. Instead of 'How can we get more people to spend longer hours on the job?' the question should really be, 'How can the employer, the job or the economy adapt to changing work and family needs?'" (1993: 14).

A recent New York Times front page headline may serve to illustrate these concerns. The story announced that seven large New York City firms had banded together to partially underwrite "the costs of sending trained home-care personnel to an employee's home when a sick child cannot go to school, when the regular caregiver is unavailable, or when the employee must make a business trip on short notice" (cited in

Kingston, 1990: 438). This was hailed as family-friendly, yet it would be unwise to simply assume that when companies offer an initiative that pertains to families, that it is unquestionably in the family's best interest. A first question one might ask is whether this is one of several options available to working parents which employees may use, or decline, according to their needs, values, and preferences. Or, in contrast, is it implicitly a mandatory benefit which employees must use or suffer the repercussions? For example, what if the parent feels it is important to be with an ill child?; what if the parent (and/or the child) feel uneasy about a stranger coming to the home when the child's familiar caregiver is away?; and what if there are certain circumstances at home which make a short notice, out-of-town trip highly undesirable at a particular time --- is the employed parent required to ignore the circumstances at home because trained personnel are available? Thus, this one substitute care program may in fact be extremely helpful to employees and their families by providing them with an additional high-quality, generous option to call upon when they deem appropriate, or alternatively, it may represent an attempt to reduce employees' parental responsibilities and more stringently control and exact compliance from employees. The program in and of itself makes it impossible to tell.

Most commentators are not questioning the need for work supports, or policies that will help employees (perhaps especially those with dependent care responsibilities) more easily and more effectively perform their jobs. Instead, the concern voiced by some is that work supports may be disguised as, rather than genuinely, family-friendly (e.g., Lambert, 1993; Schor, 1993).

Schor's comment quoted above echoes a sentiment felt by others concerned with how to reconcile the needs of business with the needs of families, and that is "what about the children?" (e.g., Hall and Parker, 1993; Hochschild, 1997, 1989; Lambert, 1993; Liazos, 1991; Louv, 1990). Too often the political agendas of various groups express rhetorical concern for children. The conservative far right has been accused of using children in attempt to further their agenda for a return to "traditional" gender roles (Cohen and Katzenstein, 1988); and some feminists and many members of the left may be reluctant to question the experiences of children fearing that doing so might be used against them by those promoting female subordination (e.g., Liazos, 1991). The fact of the matter is that the economy, irrespective of feminist ideology, is what has most people, of all persuasions, in the labor force today. Fewer than 15% of families fit the "traditional" breadwinner father, stay-at-home mother, with children in the home. A prime concern must then be with ensuring that all children experience childhoods which enable them to thrive, an accomplishment that ultimately would be in the best interest of everyone in society. Work/family policy directives are an important means by which ethical concern for the interests and well-being of children and families in America can become a collective priority.

Potential Advantages and Disadvantages of Employer-Sponsored Child Care

As discussed previously, family policy today, especially that which pertains to work/family and child care, appears to be aimed at the employer level with less urging at the national level. Instituting family policy at the employer level can be desirable for several reasons. First is the argument posed by Yankelovich presented in Chapter II which suggests why support for governmental programs is lacking at this time. The factors of choice, reciprocity, and participation, seemingly important values to people today, may be more readily met at the employer level rather than the national level. Second, a small proportion of families today consist of a breadwinner father and homemaker mother, almost half of the workforce is female, and the lives of many men necessitate or desire family involvement that extends beyond breadwinning. Thus, work/family policies may signify the beginning of a change in the employment structure that replaces outdated modes, such as in terms of scheduling and reward systems, with models that are more reflective of and more compatible with the current and future workforce. Third, work/family advocates contend that employer involvement in child care in effect signifies an acceptance of the employment of women and mothers and a destigmatization of the substitute care of children (Auerbach, 1988). This may help bring about greater acceptance of the employment of women.

In addition to the potential advantages of child care and work/family policies at the employer level, some potential drawbacks exist which should be considered. First, the policies at present have been generated out of self-interest among employers who hope to increase recruitment and retention, productivity and morale, and to create a favorable public image (see for example Auerbach, 1988). Though employers should rightfully be co-beneficiaries of the policies, concern about the competing interests of employers and employees remains. For example, employers are concerned with bottom-line profits and during these times of "downsizing" must attempt to gain the most from each employee.

The concern to get more time from each employee may interfere with the creation of policies which permit employees to truly achieve a balance between their work and family lives. Second, employer involvement is proceeding slow and typically is concentrated among large employers who employ a significant proportion of women (Auerbach, 1988). Thus, supports may be less available to many people who need them most. Third, the Wall Street Journal recently reported that federal job data indicated that some of the companies considered to be among the most family-friendly also had some of the worst records of promoting women. To the extent that work/family policies become considered "women's benefits," they may become ways in which women are further marginalized as workers.

Finally, the most important concern is for the well-being of children. In his recent book Everybody's Children (1995), William Gormley, Jr. recommends that child care be viewed as a social issue. He notes that child care can be viewed from a variety of perspectives: a woman's problem, a parent's problem, a corporate problem, a societal problem, for example. When viewed from a work/family perspective, child care is seen as a women's issue and a labor issue. It is a women's issue in that the focus is on removing the physical and symbolic barriers to full and advancing employment. It is a labor issue in that the focus is on improving productivity, recruitment, and retention. Thus, child care becomes an issue of gender equity and economic productivity. The problem Gormley sees is that the needs and well-being of the child can become lost when viewed only from a work/family perspective. He advocates viewing children as the concern of all followed by a public response.

Summary

Initiating "family-friendly" benefits for employees, though presently still uncommon, is a progressing trend that generates public recognition and support for employers. While many commentators express certainty as to the desirability of such efforts, others raise concern as to the actual benefit of the policies and programs to anyone, but especially to families. Without empirical analyses of the effects of various work/family initiatives, it is impossible to know the benefits they offer and to whom. In addition to the effects of the policies themselves, the organizational climate pertaining to the policies and to the people who use them, especially in the way of managers' and co-workers' reactions, has rarely been evaluated by researchers examining the policies. Anecdotal evidence, however, suggests that this is a critical element that influences the benefits which the policies may offer. Empirical analyses are greatly needed to determine the impacts of the various types of policies for all parties concerned, taking into account not only the existence of policies, but also the work/family climate. Though employer involvement may be promising in some ways, potential drawbacks exist as well which should be given thoughtful consideration.

CHAPTER V

METHODS

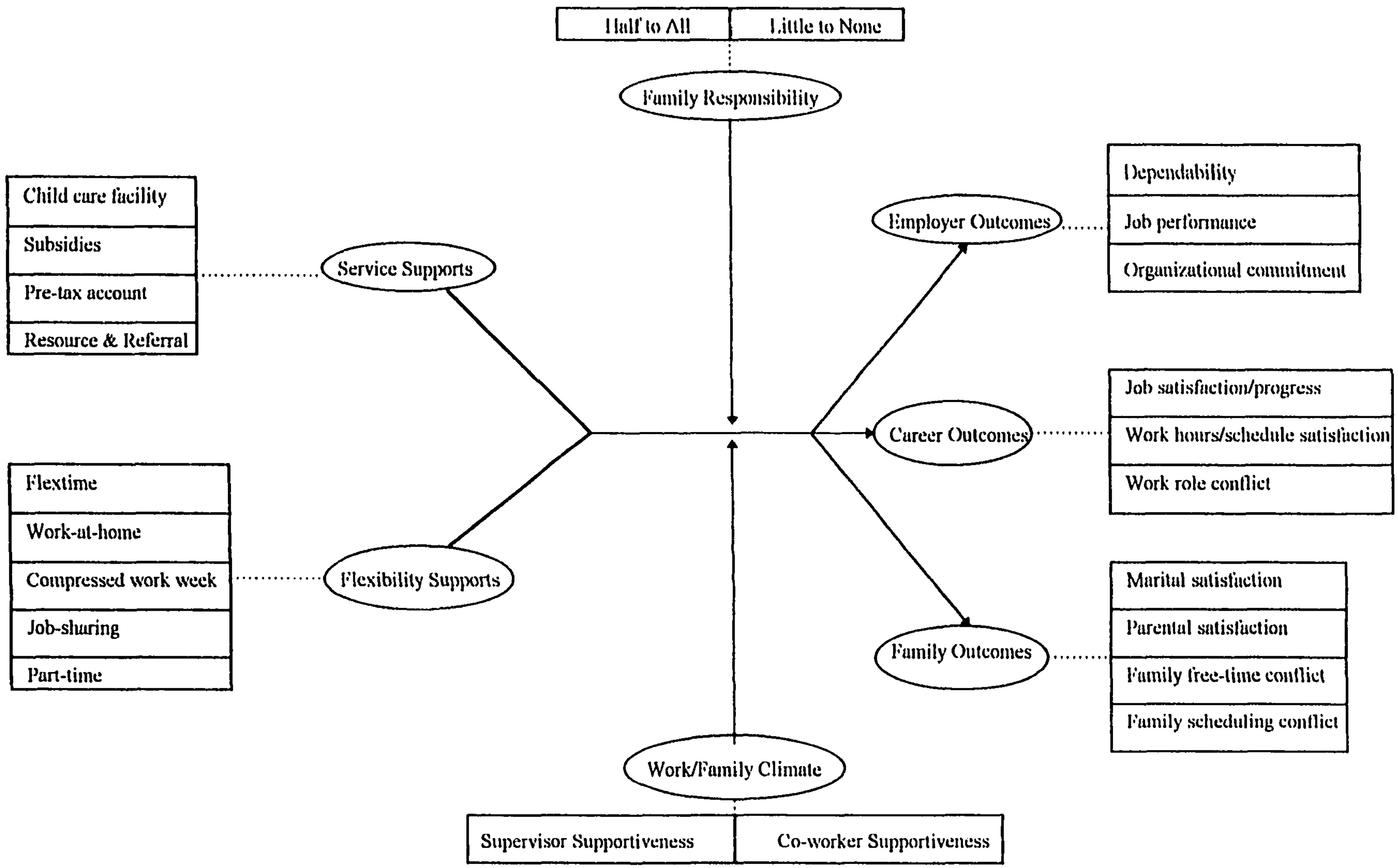
Conceptual Model

Figure 5.1 presents the model for the present study. As discussed previously, culture encompasses both the formal and informal procedures within organizations. In this study, culture will be used in its formal sense to refer specifically to the policies and programs pertaining to the work/family responsibilities of parent-employees. This feature of the formal culture is divided into ***Service Supports*** and ***Flexibility Supports***. Service supports are made up of dependent care related services offered to employees: an on- or near-site child care facility, child care subsidies for lower income families to help defray the cost of child care, a pre-tax account for child care costs, and a child care resource and referral service which provides information for locating and evaluating child care arrangements. Flexibility supports include the flexible working arrangements available to employees regarding when and where they work: flextime, flexplace or work at home, compressed work week, job-sharing, and part-time.

Both types of supports are predicted to impact employers, employees' careers, and families, but two factors are expected to mediate these relationships: The ***Organizational Climate*** characterized as family supportive or unsupportive, and the individual's own degree of ***Family Responsibility*** reflecting the amount of responsibility the individual has for the care of dependent family members.

Service supports and flexibility supports are examined for their impact on ***Employer Outcomes***: absenteeism and tardiness, job performance, and organizational

Figure 5.1: Conceptual Model of the Relationship Between Work/Family Policies and Programs and Employers, Employees' Careers, and Families



commitment; on employees' ***Career Outcomes***: job satisfaction, career progress, and work role difficulty (family-to-work conflict); and ***Family Outcomes***: marital (relationship) satisfaction, parenting satisfaction, family involvement, and family role difficulty (work-to-family conflict).

Research Hypotheses

Since some of the relationships examined in this study have been little explored, many of the hypotheses are exploratory in nature and might more appropriately be considered questions since the precise relationships are tentative.

HYPOTHESIS 1: The overall guiding hypothesis of the study is that work/family policies and programs will result in favorable outcomes to the company, to employees' careers, and to families. For this to be supported, users of policies and programs will have more positive scores on outcome variables than do nonusers.

HYPOTHESIS 2: The second general hypothesis predicts that the types of support will have different effects on each type of outcome. Service supports may be more favorable to the company than flexibility supports because service supports situate more control with the employer than with the employee. In addition, they provide specific services which may increase employees' ability to secure reliable child care, thus enhancing job performance and dependability. However, service supports do not offer greater flexibility and thus do not assist employees in adapting their work arrangement to their family circumstances in keeping with their particular needs and preferences. Hence, it follows then that flexibility supports may be more helpful to families than to employers since they offer families greater means to adjust their work schedule to their particular circumstances. Flexibility supports may also be less favorable to careers if employees find that their career progress suffers, possibly as a result of being perceived as less committed or less valuable as a result of opting for a flexible work schedule, or if the flexible schedule hinders their job performance. In the situation described earlier in which family-friendly options are made available yet a reward system that favors those who are willing to put in the most hours remains unchanged, use of a flexible work arrangement would potentially impede career progress.

Generally speaking, however, work/family policies and programs are instituted with the intention of positive outcomes. Thus, it is expected that both service supports and flexibility supports will be positively related to the various outcome measures, with the exception of the conflict outcomes, with which the supports are expected to be negatively related.

HYPOTHESIS 3: This hypothesis concerns the effects of policies and programs when conditional variables are considered. That is, service supports and flexibility supports are expected to have different effects when the individual's level of family responsibility is taken into account and when the organizational climate is taken into account. Specifically, service and flexibility supports are expected to be more favorable across the board when the work/family climate is considered to be a supportive one. Thus, the interaction terms are expected to be even more positively related to the dependent variables (again, with the exception of the conflict variables, with which supports are expected to be negatively related). Similarly, both service and flexibility supports are expected to produce more favorable outcomes for individuals who have at least half of the responsibility for the care of their child(ren). When individuals are involved in little to none of the responsibility of dependent care, work/family policies and programs may be less important to them and, consequently, may be less influential in their work and family behavior.

These hypotheses will be tested with controls for gender, age, marital/partner status, education, job position, years employed this company, personal income, and supervisor's level of dependent care responsibility.

Data and Variables

Sampling and Data Collection Procedures. The data come from a survey of employees of Harmattan International (a pseudonym), a company that is considered to have cutting-edge approaches in work/family issues. Harmattan has six main sites in addition to numerous smaller sites throughout the country and abroad. Representatives of the company were enthusiastic to participate in the study and asked that all of their employees be surveyed rather than a sample of employees. Since their employees are based at different sites worldwide, and since all of their nearly five thousand employees have a computer, the survey was conducted electronically. Electronic questionnaires went out to all U.S. based Harmattan employees in late September of 1997 and 1,412 completed and usable questionnaires were returned two weeks later, resulting in a response rate of just under one-third, a satisfactory rate given that the questionnaire was rather lengthy (152 questions) and given that some employees may not currently have pressing work/family issues. E-mail addresses were encrypted to protect the anonymity of each respondent. and responses were compiled into a tabulated database as they came in. The company, which is ranked as one of the 100 most family-friendly companies in America. (see for example, Moskowitz, 1997), offers an array of work/family policies and programs including on-site and near-site child care centers, child care subsidies and pre-tax accounts, child and elder care resource and referral services, sick child days off, paid parental leave, flextime, telecommuting, compressed work week, job sharing and part-time, for example.

The analyses in the present study use data from respondents with young children in the home, resulting in an N of 389 for analyses involving service supports (these are parents with children under the age of 6), and an N of 545 for analyses involving flexibility supports (these are parents with children under the age of 13). The rationale for using a cutoff age of 12 is that work/family conflicts appear to be for those with younger children at a heightened intensity.

Measures. Dependent Variables. ***Employer Outcomes***. As noted earlier, work/family policies and programs potentially effect three entities: employers, employees, and families. The first set of dependent variables looks at outcomes of prime concern to employers who offer work/family initiatives. Three dependent variables are used in this study to represent employer outcomes: (1) ***dependability***; (2) ***job performance***; and (3) ***organizational commitment***.

One way in which service and flexibility supports may provide favorable outcomes to employers is by assisting employees in becoming more dependable workers, demonstrated primarily through their relative absenteeism and tardiness records. Service supports may reduce absenteeism and tardiness to the extent that these supports help employees establish reliable substitute child care. Flexibility supports may reduce absenteeism and tardiness by providing employees the opportunity to adjust their schedules to their family needs, thereby enhancing their dependability. For instance, an employee may work out a flextime arrangement which permits him or her to arrive at work "on time" after dropping off the children at school. Or, a compressed work week may allow an employee a weekday to arrange various health care appointments thus reducing the need to take time off from work for these necessities. Two dependability items (adapted from the work of Van deVen, 1980) were included, each presented to respondents in a Likert format with five response options ranging from far below average (1) to far above average (5). The dependability items and their means and standard deviations are:

> "In relation to other Harmattan employees in a position like yours, how do you think you would rate on each of the following factors in the past year?"
>
> ABSENTEEISM: "The number of days/times you have been absent from your job?" (*mean=2.12; s.d.=1.05*)
>
> TARDINESS: "The number of days/times you have arrived late for your job?" (*mean=2.10; s.d.=1.11*)

The two items are significantly correlated (*r=.49*); thus, they are combined into a single scale (*alpha=.66*), measuring employee dependability. Responses were recoded so that a low score indicates lower relative records of absenteeism and tardiness and thus a higher degree of dependability.

Productivity or job performance is an important outcome to employers who may institute work/family initiatives with the expectation that job performance will be enhanced. Employed parents of young children may better perform their jobs to the extent that they have reliable child care and are comfortable with the arrangements for their children while they are working. Service supports potentially offer that reliability and quality of care. Flexibility supports may also enhance job performance to the extent that they improve the working conditions of employees and reduce any obstacles to performing productively. Productivity and job performance have been measured in numerous ways, and in this study are measured through the self-reports of respondents. Four items (adapted from the work of Van deVen, 1980) were used to measure job performance, each presented to respondents in Likert format with response options ranging from far below average (1) to far above average (5). The job performance items and their means and standard deviations are:

> "In relation to other Harmattan employees in a position like yours, how do you think you would rate on each of the following factors in the past year?"
>
> WORK QUANTITY: "The quantity or amount of work produced?"
>
> *(mean=4.04; s.d.=.80)*
>
> WORK QUALITY: "The quality or accuracy of work produced?"
>
> *(mean=4.17; s.d.=.70)*

WORK EFFORT: "The amount of effort you put into your work?"

(mean=4.24; s.d.=.76)

HOURS WORKED: "The number of hours you spend at your workplace?"

(mean=3.54; s.d.=.85)

The presence of only one factor was apparent from the principal components analysis (eigenvalues=2.35, .88, .43, .33). The job performance scale has an alpha of .75. Table 5.1A in the Appendix displays the correlation matrix on which the factor analysis of the items making up the job performance scale is based.

Organization commitment is another concept of importance to employers (see for example Mueller, Wallace, and Price, 1992). Pride in working for the company, the motivation to do one's best work, having a stake in the success of the company, and loyalty or intent to stay with the company are thought to be important indicators of organizational commitment. Commitment to the organization (adapted from the work of Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979 and McCloskey and McCain, 1987) in this study was measured by four Likert type items with four response categories ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (4). The items and their means and standard deviations are:

GREAT ORGANIZATION: "I talk up this organization as a great organization to work for." *(mean=3.43; s.d.=.68)*

BEST PERFORMANCE: "This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of performance." *(mean=3.17; s.d.=.79)*

ORGANIZATION FATE: "I really care about the fate of this organization." *(mean=3.66; s.d.=.59)*

INTENT TO STAY: "I plan to stay with this organization for as long as possible." (*mean=3.43; s.d.=.74*)

A principal components analysis clearly demonstrated the unidimensionality of this set of items with eigenvalues of 2.67, .64, .38, .31. The variable organizational commitment has an alpha of .83. Table 5.2A in the Appendix displays the correlation matrix on which the factor analysis of the items making up the organizational commitment scale is based.

Career Outcomes. In addition to potentially effecting outcomes of concern primarily to employers, work/family initiatives also may produce important outcomes of concern to employees in terms of their careers. Overall job satisfaction is one such outcome. The concept of job satisfaction can capture diverse aspects of one's work life. The dimensions of job satisfaction initially in this study were thought to consist of features such as satisfaction with the work one performs, the job progress made thus far and the potential for future advancement, and satisfaction with the number of hours one works and with the schedule of those work hours. Thus, five Likert type items (adapted from the work of Van deVen, 1980) were developed to measure job satisfaction. Response categories range from very unsatisfied (1) to very satisfied (4). The items, means, and standard deviations are:

"Now I would like to ask you some questions about how you personally feel about your job. How satisfied are you with each of the following:"

WORK SATISFACTION: "The work you do on your job." (*mean=3.24; s.d.=.78*)

PROGRESS SATISFACTION: "The career progress you have made in this organization up to now." (*mean=3.02; s.d.=.88*)

ADVANCEMENT SATISFACTION: "Your chances for career advancement in this organization in the future." (*mean=2.75; s.d.=.91*)

HOURS SATISFACTION: "The number of hours you work." (*mean=2.93; s.d.=.83*)

SCHEDULE SATISFACTION: "The schedule of your working hours." (*mean=3.14; s.d.=.82*)

Rather than a single factor, a principal components analysis indicated the presence of two factors with eigenvalues of 2.42, 1.31, .58, .35, .33. The rotation showed that work satisfaction, job progress, and advancement load on one factor, while hours satisfaction and schedule satisfaction load on another (see Table 5.1). Thus, we created a scale of job satisfaction and progress (*alpha=.78*) and a scale of work hours and schedule satisfaction (*alpha=.78*). These two factors might be expected because satisfaction with one's work and the progress being made is a separate issue from one's contentment with the number of hours one must put in and the scheduling of those hours. Table 5.3A in the Appendix displays the correlation matrix on which the factor analyses of the items making up both the job satisfaction and progress scale and the work hours and schedule satisfaction scale are based.

An implicit, if not explicit, assumption in the establishment of work/family policies and programs is that there are features of work life that make it difficult to successfully

Table 5.1: Factor Analysis of Job Satisfaction (N=525)

Item*	Mean	Standard Deviation	Factor Loadings** I	II
Work satisfaction	3.24	.78	.73	.20
Progress satisfaction	3.02	.88	.89	.02
Advancement satisfaction	2.75	.91	.84	.14
Hours satisfaction	2.93	.83	.09	.90
Schedule satisfaction	3.14	.82	.17	.89

*Codes are as follows: 4 = very satisfied, 3 = somewhat satisfied, 2 = somewhat unsatisfied, 1 = very unsatisfied
**Loadings reported are from a varimax rotation. An oblique rotation led to the same conclusions with a correlation between factors of .277.

accomplish the requirements of the family life, and vice versa. In terms of the individual employee's career, service and flexibility supports may buffer this conflict or negative spillover that can occur from one area to another area. The concept work role conflict is meant to capture the ways in which family life can make the carrying out of work life more difficult. Work role conflict (adapted from the work of Bohen and Viveros-Long, 1981) was measured using four Likert type items with response categories of never (1), rarely (2), some of the time (3), most of the time (4), and always (5). The items, means, and standard deviations are:

> OTHERS THINK: "I worry that other people think my personal/family life interferes with my job." *(mean=2.30; s.d.=.95)*
>
> DIFFICULT TO DO JOB: "Because of my personal/family responsibilities, it is difficult for me to do my job as well as I would like." *(mean=2.37; s.d.=.91)*
>
> MORE JOB TIME: "I worry whether I should spend more time on my job." *(mean=2.55; s.d.=.97)*
>
> FAMILY INTERFERENCE: "I feel that my personal/family responsibilities interfere with my job." *(mean=2.24; s.d.=.79)*

Principal components analysis clearly indicated the presence of a single factor with eigenvalues of 2.52, .62, .58, .29. The family-to-work conflict scale has an alpha of .80. Table 5.4A in the Appendix displays the correlation matrix on which the factor analysis of the items making up the work role conflict scale is based. Thus, three dependent variables represent career outcomes: (1) ***job satisfaction and progress***; (2) ***work hours and scheduling satisfaction***; and (3) ***work role conflict***.

Family Outcomes. Along with affecting employers and employees, service supports and flexibility supports also potentially impact families in a variety of ways. One way these supports may influence family life is by reducing the strain that simultaneous involvement in paid labor and parenting of young children can place on a marital/partner relationship. Although marital satisfaction is dependent upon an extensive array of conditions which are beyond the scope of the present study, two items (adapted from the work of Guelzow, Bird, and Koball, 1991 and Bohen and Viveros-Long, 1981) were used to measure marital (relationship) satisfaction as it relates specifically to the respondents' job demands. Both Likert type items had response categories ranging from never (recoded to 5) to always (recoded to 1) so that a high score indicates less job interference with marital satisfaction. The items and their means and standard deviations are:

> TIME WITH SPOUSE: "My job makes it difficult for me to spend enough time with my spouse/partner." (*mean=3.17; s.d.=.87*)
>
> BEING SPOUSE: "My job makes it difficult for me to be the kind of wife/husband/partner I'd like to be." (*mean=3.36; s.d.=.90*)

The two items are strongly correlated (*r=.76*); thus, they are combined into a single scale (*alpha=.86*), measuring marital (relationship) satisfaction. The analysis involving this variable will use only those respondents with a spouse/partner. Less than 8 percent of the sample of parents with young children report having no spouse/partner at the present time, thus reducing N only slightly.

The ability to provide for one's child either through a substitute child care arrangement or by adjusting one's work schedule in a way in which the parent feels comfortable that that arrangement meets the needs of the family and the child potentially influences the degree to which a parent is satisfied with the child's well-being, with her or his self as a parent, with the time that is available to spend with the child, and with the arrangements for one's children while the parent is working. Four Likert type items (adapted from the work of Schumm, 1990 and Viveros-Long, 1981) were used to measure parental satisfaction. Four response categories ranging from very unsatisfied (1) to very satisfied (4) were used for each of the first three items listed below. For the last item, five response categories were used, ranging from never (1) to always (5). The items, means, and standard deviations are:

CHILDREN'S WELL-BEING: "Most of the time, how satisfied are you with your children's well-being? *(mean=3.53; s.d.=.71)*

SELF AS PARENT: "Most of the time, how satisfied are you with yourself as a parent? *(mean=3.05; s.d.=.75)*

TIME WITH CHILDREN: "Most of the time, how satisfied are you with the amount of time you have available to spend with your children?" *(mean=2.38; s.d.=.87)*

COMFORTABLE ARRANGEMENTS: "I am comfortable with the arrangements for my children while I am working." *(mean=4.11; s.d.=.87)*

A principal components analysis clearly indicated the presence of a single factor with eigenvalues of 2.22, .80. .59, .39. The parental satisfaction scale has an alpha of .72. The correlation matrix on which the factor analysis of the items making up the parental satisfaction scale is based is presented in Table 5.5A in the Appendix.

As with the difficulty that family responsibilities may create in carrying out work demands as captured in the concept of work role difficulty described above, work demands may make it difficult for employees to successfully meet their responsibilities as parents. Family role conflict is the concept that attempts to reflect this difficulty or negative spillover from work to family in the way of work interfering with family life in various ways. Six Likert type items (adapted from the work of Bohen and Viveros-Long, 1981) were used to measure family role conflict. Response categories ranged from never (1) to always (5) for the first two items below, and for the following four items, response categories ranging from very easy (1) to very difficult (4) were supplied.

JOB INTERFERENCE: "I feel that my job interferes with my personal/family responsibilities." *(mean=2.76; s.d.=.81)*

DIFFICULT TO RELAX: "My job makes it difficult for me to relax and take care of myself." *(mean=2.87; s.d.=.91)*

"On days when you are working, how easy or difficult is it for you to do each of the following?:"

APPOINTMENT DIFFICULTY: "To take your child (or other family member) to health care appointments." *(mean=2.56; s.d.=.94)*

DIFFICULT TO STAY HOME: "To stay home with a sick child (or other family member)." (*mean=2.47; s.d.=.89*)

DIFFICULT TO HAVE TIME: "To have relaxed, pleasant time with your family/friends." (*mean=2.44; s.d.=.91*)

DIFFICULT TO ADJUST HOURS: "To adjust your work hours to the needs of other family members." (*mean=2.42; s.d.=.84*)

Rather than a single factor, a principal components analysis indicated the presence of two factors with eigenvalues of 3.32, 1.06, .52, .45, .36, .29. The rotation showed that appointment difficulty, difficult to stay home, and difficult to adjust hours load on one factor, while job interference and difficult to relax load on another (see Table 5.2). The variable "difficult to have time" loaded about equally on each factor. Since this item does not discriminate, it was dropped from the analysis and factor analysis was repeated without this variable. These two factors are a logical split among these items in that one factor captures the way in which work life can interfere with free time, while the other factor captures the degree to which family responsibilities that must be carried out during normal business hours are made difficult by work requirements. Thus two scales were created, one of family free-time conflict (*alpha=.77*), and another of family scheduling conflict (*alpha=.83*). The correlation matrix on which the factor analyses of the items making up both the family free-time conflict scale and the family scheduling conflict scale are based are displayed in Table 5.6A in the Appendix. Thus, four dependent variables represent family outcomes: (1) ***marital satisfaction***; (2) ***parental satisfaction***; (3) ***family free-time conflict***; and (4) ***family scheduling conflict***.

Table 5.2: Factor Analysis of Family Role Conflict (N=502)

Item*	Mean	Standard Deviation	Factor Loadings** I	II
Job interference	2.76	.80	.19	..85
Difficult to relax	2.87	.91	.14	.88
Appointment difficulty	2.56	.95	.89	.09
Difficult to stay home	2.46	.89	.86	.23
Difficult to have time	2.45	.91	.46	.60
Difficult to adjust hours	2.42	.84	.72	.39

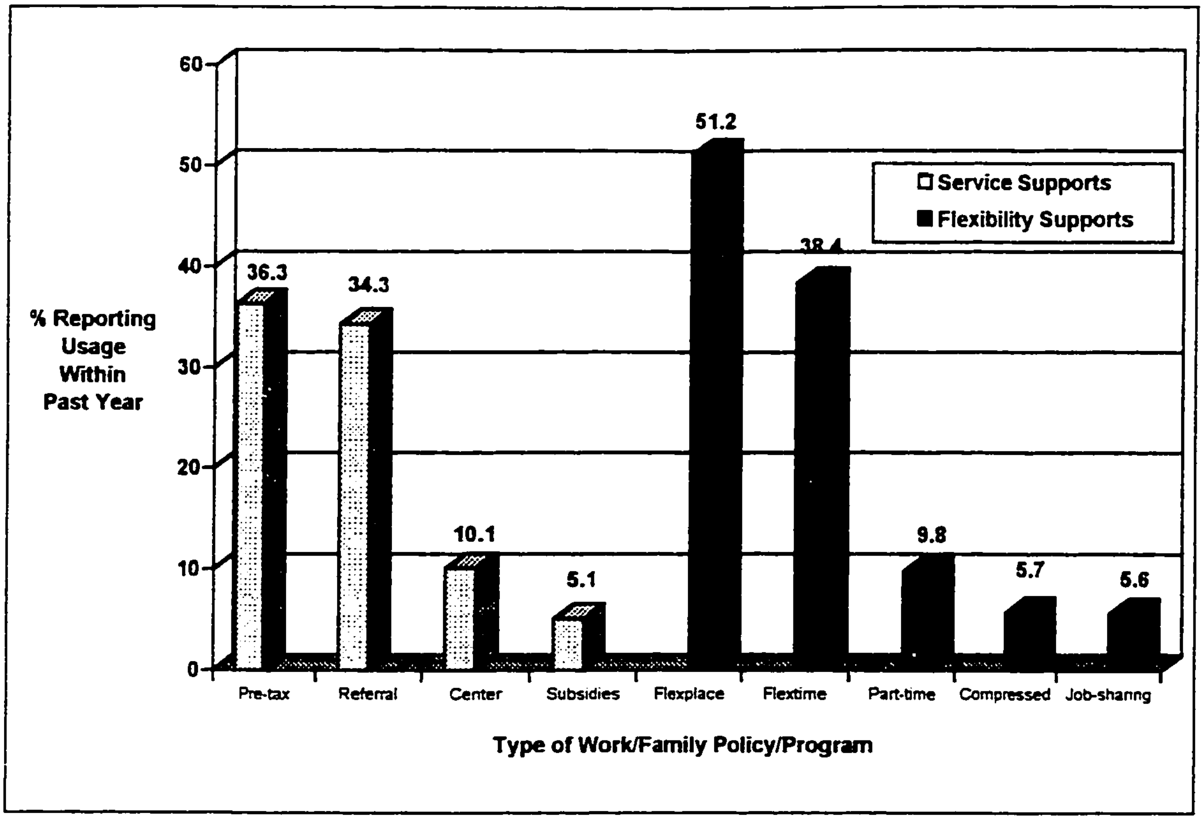
*Codes are as follows: for job interference and difficult to relax: 5 = always, 4 = most of the time, 3 = some of the time, 2 = rarely, 1 = never; for the four remaining items: 4 = very difficult, 3 = somewhat difficult, 2 = somewhat easy, 1 = very easy.
**Loadings reported are from a varimax rotation. An oblique rotation led to the same conclusions with a correlation between factors of .447.

Independent Variables. Figure 5.2 shows the usage of selected of work/family policies and programs among Harmattan respondents. Although sick days and family leave are offered at Harmattan, this analysis will concentrate on policies and programs which are less common in the corporate world. In addition, one family-friendly program, an elder care resource and referral service, was excluded from the analysis because of the focus of this study on employees with young children.

As shown in Figure 5.2, policy and program usage varies from a low of under 6 percent (for child care subsidies, compressed work week, and job-sharing) to a high of just over 50 percent (for work-at-home). Though it would be most informative to examine the outcomes associated with usage of each specific policy and program, the low usage for several of the policies/programs makes such analyses unfeasible. For instance, only 10 percent of Harmattan employees with children under the age of 6 report having used the company's on-/near-site child care center during the past year. This amounts to only 38 out of 389 such respondents. The small number of cases as well as the large imbalance between the numbers of users and nonusers would make multiple regression results concerning these variables potentially misleading. Thus, the specific policies and programs are combined for multivariate analyses into their broader categories of service and flexibility supports.

Service Supports. The variable service supports represents a count of how many of the following work/family policies respondents with children under age six are currently using or have used within the past year: near- or on-site child care center, child care subsidies, child care pre-tax account, and child care resource and referral service. The

Figure 5.2: Work/Family Policy and Program Usage (Service Supports: N=389; Flexibility Supports: N=545)



mean number used is .85 with a standard deviation of .94. Forty-six percent of respondents with pre-school-age children have used none of these policies/programs, 30 percent have used one, 18 percent have used 2, 6 percent have used 3, and fewer than 1 percent have used all four within the past year.

Flexibility Supports. Flexibility supports are made up of a count of the number of the following flexible work options that respondents with children under the age of 13 report currently using or having used within the past year: flextime, flexplace or work at home, compressed work week, part-time, and job-sharing. The mean number used is 1.09 with a standard deviation of .98. One-third of these respondents report using no flexible work arrangements, just over a third report use of one, almost one-quarter report using two, 7 percent report using 3, 1 percent report using 4, and no respondents report use of all five arrangements.

Conditional Variables. ***Family Responsibility***. A single item (adapted from the work of Bohen and Viveros-Long, 1981) measures the respondent's degree of work/family responsibility: "In your family, who has the main responsibility for the day-to-day arrangements and care of the children or of disabled or elderly family members?" Response categories are: "I have all the responsibility" (1); "I have the main responsibility but my spouse/partner helps out." (2); "My spouse/partner and I share the responsibility equally." (3); "My spouse/partner has the main responsibility and I help out." (4); and "My spouse/partner has all the responsibility." (5). For analysis, the response categories were collapsed into a dummy variable of "half to all of the responsibility," coded 1, and "little to none of the responsibility," coded 0. Forty percent of respondents reported having little to no responsibility while sixty percent reported having half to all of the dependent care responsibility. This question was asked of all respondents, regardless of marital/partner status to allow for the possibility that in shared custody arrangements, for instance, even though the respondent is unmarried, s/he may still share the care of the children. Less than eight percent of respondents report having no spouse/partner.

Organizational Climate. Organizational climate is measured as two-dimensions: ***supervisor supportiveness*** and ***co-worker supportiveness***. Respondents were asked to indicate "In general, how satisfied are you with the support you get at work from your supervisor with regard to the opportunity to use the work/life policies and programs offered by your employer?" Response categories ranging from very unsatisfied (1) to very satisfied (4) were collapsed into a dummy variable of very satisfied coded 1 and less than very satisfied coded 0. Forty-four percent of respondents reported being very satisfied with their supervisor's supportiveness, while 56 percent reported being only somewhat satisfied to very unsatisfied.

To measure satisfaction with co-worker supportiveness, respondents were asked, "In general, how satisfied are you with the support you get at work from your co-workers with regard to the opportunity to use the work/life policies and programs?" Response categories for co-worker supportiveness were the same as those used to assess supervisor supportiveness, and also were collapsed into a dummy variable in which very satisfied was coded 1 and options indicating less than very satisfied were coded 0. Forty percent of respondents reported being very satisfied with their co-workers' supportiveness, while 60 percent reported being only somewhat satisfied to very unsatisfied.

Control Variables. Standard socio-economic and demographic variables which might be correlated with policy and program usage as well as with the dependent variables are included as controls. Gender is a dummy variable coded 1 for females (45.1%), and marital status is a dummy variable coded 1 for married (including domestic partner) (91.7%). Race and age, although typically included as demographic control variables, are not included in the present study. Harmattan employees are overwhelmingly white with fewer than 13 percent from other racial groups in the subsample. Although such skewness exists in the variable marital status which is included as a control variable, unlike marital status, race is not theoretically important to the variables being considered in this study. Age is excluded as a control variable because more than 20 percent of respondents in the subsample refused to report their age. Education is included as two dummy variables constructed from three education categories. College graduate (72.8%) serves as the reference category (i.e., coded 0 on both dummy variables) and is compared with no college degree (3.7%) and with graduate degree (23.5%). Job classification is a dummy variable coded 1 for manager (31.9%). Years employed with Harmattan is a dummy variable coded 1 for more than three years (49%). Amount of responsibility for the care of children or for a disabled or elderly dependent of respondents' supervisors is another potentially important control variable. Supervisor dependent care responsibility consists of two dummy variables. No responsibility (29.4%) is the reference category (i.e., coded 0 on both dummy variables) and is compared with supervisor family responsibility (i.e., meaning one's supervisor has a little, some, or a great deal of responsibility) (56.7%) and with supervisor family responsibility unknown (i.e., meaning respondent is unaware of what his or her supervisor's dependent care responsibilities are) (13.9%).

Plan of Analysis

As stated previously, because of the low usage of some of the work/family policies and programs and because of the skewness between users and nonusers, the individual policies and programs are grouped into service supports and flexibility supports. The analyses to follow will examine the two types of supports separately. The following chapter reports the results involving service supports, followed by the effect of flexibility support usage on the outcome measures.

For both service and flexibility supports, the chapter to follow will present the results of the bivariate correlations and then the results of the series of Ordinary Least Squares regressions performed for each outcome measure. The regressions include a listwise deletion of missing cases so if respondents have a missing value on any of the variables used in the equations, they are excluded from the analysis. The first equation in each regression series consists of control variables. The second equation adds service supports (or flexibility supports) to see whether service support usage effects the dependent variable controlling for other factors. Equation three then adds one of the conditional variables (i.e., family responsibility, co-worker supportiveness, supervisor supportiveness) to the equation with service supports (or flexibility supports) and the control variables to see whether support usage effects the outcome measure when family responsibility or the organization's work/family climate are controlled. The fourth and final equation adds a product term which is the conditional variable multiplied by service support (or flexibility support). Its inclusion will address the question of whether the effect of supports usage is different for those with high versus low dependent care responsibilities, and high versus low co-worker and supervisor support for such usage.

This analysis will consist of 240 multiple regression equations reported in 60 tables, all of which are included in the Appendix. Much of the reporting of the multiple regression results will refer to two summary tables (one for service supports and one for flexibility supports) which present the direction and significance level of the two independent variables, the conditional variables, and the product terms for each of the ten dependent variables.

CHAPTER VI

RESULTS

Service Supports

The bivariate correlations upon which the subsequent regression analyses involving the independent variable service supports are based are reported in Table 6.1. Greater usage of service supports are positively and significantly correlated with commitment to the organization (at the <.10 level) and with parental satisfaction and family scheduling conflict (at the <.05 level). There are no significant correlations of service supports with any of the seven remaining dependent variables. Each of the three variables included as conditional variables in the model, family responsibility, co-worker supportiveness, and supervisor supportiveness, are all positively and significantly correlated (at the .01 level) with service supports. Of the control variables, only gender is significantly correlated with the independent variable with women showing significantly (*p=.02*) greater usage of the company's service supports. Also showing significantly greater usage of the company's service supports are those with greater dependent care responsibility for their family members (*p=.002*) and those who perceive their co-workers and supervisors to be supportive of their use of Harmattan's work/family policies and programs (*p=.001* and *p=.010*, respectively). In fact, co-worker supportiveness the largest (*r=.153*), family responsibility the second largest (*r=.142*), and supervisor supportiveness the third largest (*r=.117*), bivariate correlation coefficients with service supports of all of the variables.

Tables 6.1.1A through 6.10.3A in the Appendix report the series of ordinary least squares regressions involving service supports, and Table 6.2 summarizes the findings

Table 6.1: Bivariate Correlations of Service Supports and All Dependent and Selected Control Variables with One-Tailed Tests in Parentheses (N=389)

	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
(1) Service supports	.020	.034	.073	.046	.060	.029	.029	.087	.062	.107	.142	.153	.117	.103	.037	-.025	.021
	(.347)	(.253)	(.076)	(.180)	(.121)	(.286)	(.282)	(.043)	(.112)	(.017)	(.002)	(.001)	(.010)	(.021)	(.236)	(.312)	(.342)
(2) Dependability		.680	.407	.517	.674	.351	.427	.398	.452	.393	.457	.356	.298	-.052	.066	-.024	.125
		(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.153)	(.098)	(.317)	(.007)
(3) Job performance			.410	.466	.599	.434	.375	.347	.499	.330	.436	.291	.242	-.050	.055	-.004	.089
			(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.164)	(.140)	(.469)	(.040)
(4) Org. commitment				.430	.509	.430	.404	.424	.475	.363	.484	.389	.319	.003	-.009	-.064	.109
				(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.479)	(.427)	(.107)	(.016)
(5) Job satisfaction/prog					.712	.500	.518	.541	.543	.417	.493	.353	.417	.000	.032	.007	.115
					(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.497)	(.263)	(.449)	(.012)
(6) Work hrs/sched satisf						.507	.592	.493	.621	.489	.560	.421	.411	-.029	.041	-.024	.150
						(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.284)	(.210)	(.322)	(.001)
(7) Work role conflict							.451	.404	.580	.315	.423	.221	.261	-.003	.043	-.057	.070
							(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.477)	(.201)	(.133)	(.086)
(8) Marital satisfaction								.482	.663	.475	.564	.290	.264	.024	.047	-.039	.114
								(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.320)	(.176)	(.223)	(.012)
(9) Parental satisfaction									.506	.571	.549	.337	.227	-.075	.055	-.026	.118
									(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.071)	(.140)	(.307)	(.010)
(10) Free-time conflict										.498	.592	.304	.290	-.035	.078	-.010	.083
										(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.244)	(.062)	(.425)	(.050)
(11) Scheduling conflict											.534	.369	.253	-.047	.035	.014	.130
											(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.176)	(.246)	(.394)	(.005)

Table 6.1 continued: Bivariate Correlations of Service Supports and All Dependent and Selected Control Variables with One-Tailed Tests in Parentheses (N=389)

	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
(12) Family responsibility												.303	.289	.218	.047	-.111	.073
												(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.176)	(.015)	(.076)
(13) Coworker support													.654	-.082	.000	-.049	.140
													(.000)	(.054)	(.500)	(.169)	(.003)
(14) Supervisor support														-.015	-.004	-.038	.138
														(.385)	(.470)	(.231)	(.003)
(15) Female															-.032	-.084	-.052
															(.264)	(.051)	(.154)
(16) Income																.121	.079
																(.009)	(.060)
(17) Manager																	-.123
																	(.008)
(18) 3+ years employed																	

Table 6.2: Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses of Each Dependent Variable on Service Supports and Conditional Variables (with Control Variables Included) Showing Direction of Regression Coefficient and Significance Level

	Dependability	Job Performance	Organization Commitment	Job Satisfaction / Progress	Work Hours / Schedule Satisfaction	Work Role Conflict	Marital Satisfaction	Parental Satisfaction	Family Free-Time Conflict	Family Scheduling Conflict
Service Supports	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-
Family Responsibility	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	-
Service x Family Responsibility	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	+
Co-worker Support	+	+	+ *	+ *	+ *	- *	+ *	+ *	- *	- *
Service x Co-worker Support	+	-	-	- *	-	-	+	-	-	+
Supervisor Support	+	+	+ *	+ *	+ *	- *	+ *	+ *	- *	- *
Service x Supervisor Support	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+

from these regressions. When service supports are in the equation with the control variables included, as Table 6.2 shows, greater use of service supports does not have a significant effect on any of the ten dependent variables. Greater service support usage is in the predicted direction with five outcomes: those with greater usage score higher on the employer outcome of organizational commitment, higher on the employee career outcome of job satisfaction and progress, higher on the family outcome of parental satisfaction, and lower on the family outcomes of family free-time conflict and family scheduling conflict as would be expected. However, again, none of the effects are significant. This finding is not altogether surprising, and will be discussed in detail in the concluding chapter.

When respondents' degree of family responsibility is added to the equation, it too shows no significant effect on any of the outcome variables, with one exception. Those with greater responsibility in their families for the care of dependent family members score significantly lower (at the <.10 level) on job performance than do those with less family responsibility. With service supports and control variables in the equation, family responsibility also is negatively related to dependability, organizational commitment, job satisfaction and progress, parental satisfaction, and family free-time and family scheduling conflict, although not significantly. Family responsibility is positively, though not significantly, related to work hours and schedule satisfaction, work role conflict, and marital satisfaction.

To consider the possibility that service supports have a greater effect on the outcome measures for people who have a greater level of family responsibility, the interaction term of service supports and family responsibility was added to the equation. In no case did the interaction term have a significant effect on the dependent variables, meaning that service supports do not appear to have a greater effect on the outcome measures for people with more as opposed to less responsibility for their family members.

In addition to the prediction that service supports would have a different effect according to employees' degree of responsibility within their families, it was also predicted that policy and program usage would vary in its effects on outcome measures according to the climate of the organization as measured in two ways: co-worker supportiveness and supervisor supportiveness. A series of multiple regressions were performed which included co-worker supportiveness to the equation with service supports and control variables for each outcome measure. As shown in the summary table, Table 6.2, co-worker supportiveness has a significant effect for eight out of ten dependent variables. Those reporting greater support from their co-workers with regard to use of work/family options, score significantly higher on organizational commitment, job satisfaction and progress, work hours and schedule satisfaction, and marital, and parental satisfaction, as expected. Those with greater co-worker support also score significantly lower on work role conflict, family free-time conflict, and family scheduling conflict, as expected. In fact, a comparison of the standardized coefficients (Beta's) (see tables in the Appendix) reveals that co-worker supportiveness has the strongest direct effect of all independent variables in the equations for organizational commitment, job satisfaction and progress, work hours and schedule satisfaction, work role conflict, parental satisfaction, and family scheduling conflict. The effect of co-worker supportiveness on dependability and job performance are in the predicted direction, but fail to reach significance.

To consider the possibility that service supports have different effects on the outcome variables depending on co-worker supportiveness for usage of those supports, the interaction term of service supports and co-worker supportiveness was added to the equation. As Table 6.2 summarizes, the interaction term was significant for only two of the ten dependent variables. As Table 6.4.2A in the Appendix shows, for people low on co-worker support, the effect of service supports on job satisfaction and progress is .317. The effect is in the direction predicted and is significant at the .05 level. For people who are high on the variable co-worker support, the effect of service supports on job satisfaction and progress is -.274 (computed by adding the unstandardized coefficient of service supports (.317) to the coefficient of the interaction term (-.591). The unstandardized beta coefficient of the interaction term of -.591 is the difference between those who are high versus those who are low on co-worker support in the effect of service support on job satisfaction and progress, and that difference is significant. In other words, the positive effect of service supports on job satisfaction and progress is significantly less for those in a condition of high co-worker support than for those in a condition of low co-worker support. What this finding suggests is that the formal structure (i.e., service supports) matters most when the informal structure (i.e., co-worker response) is not supportive, a finding that will be discussed in greater detail in the conclusion. Turning now to the other significant interaction term, the effect of service supports on family free-time conflict for people low on co-worker support is .071 (as shown in Table 6.9.2A in the Appendix); however, the effect is small and not significant. For those respondents reporting a high degree of co-worker support, the effect of service supports on family free-time conflict is .045 (computed by adding the unstandardized coefficient of service supports (.071) to the coefficient of the interaction term (-.026). The unstandardized beta coefficient of the interaction term of -.026 is the difference between those who are high versus those who are low on co-worker support in the effect of service support on job satisfaction and progress, and that difference is significant at the .10 level. Thus, the positive effect of service supports on family free-time conflict is significantly less for those in a condition of high co-worker support than for those in a condition of low co-worker support.

Finally, service supports were examined for their effect when supervisor supportiveness, the other measure of organizational climate, was taken into account. When supervisor supportiveness is added to the equation with service supports and the control variables, it has the identical effects, in terms of both direction and significance, as co-worker support for the same eight out of ten dependent variables. Further, for each of the eight dependent variables, supervisor supportiveness had the largest direct effect of all variables in the equations (as indicated by comparison of the standardized regression coefficients; see tables in the Appendix). Moreover, in every case the Beta for supervisor supportiveness was higher than the Beta for co-worker supportiveness. In addition to these eight, supervisor support had a positive and significant effect (at the <.10 level) on job performance.

Again, the possibility of an interaction effect between service supports and the organizational climate was considered. To see whether the effect of service supports on the outcome measures would be different according to the degree of support for use of service supports by supervisors, the interaction term of service supports and supervisor supportiveness was added to the equation. As the summary table, Table 6.2, reveals, this interaction term was barely significant (p=.099) for only one of the ten dependent variables. As shown in Table 6.6.3A in the Appendix, for respondents reporting a low degree of supervisor support, the effect of service supports on work role conflict -.076; however, the effect is small and not significant. For people with a high degree of supervisor support, the effect of service supports on work role conflict is .361. The unstandardized beta coefficient of the interaction term of .437 is the difference between those who are high versus those who are low on supervisor support in the effect of service support on work role conflict, and that difference is barely significant at the .10 level, as shown in Table 6.6.3A. This indicates that the negative effect of service supports on work role conflict is significantly less for those in a condition of low supervisor support than for those in a condition of high supervisor support. More specifically, service supports are associated with reduced work role conflict for those with unsupportive supervisors and with increased work role conflict for those with supportive supervisors.

What emerges in these regressions is that greater use of service supports is not important for these particular outcomes. Furthermore, the extent to which they matter does not depend at all on whether family responsibility is high or low and varies very little according to whether employees' perceive their co-workers and supervisors as supportive or unsupportive. Instead, what consistently effects these outcomes is the organizational work/family climate as characterized by co-worker and supervisor supportiveness rather than the formal policy and program structure. This point will be returned to in the concluding chapter.

Flexibility Supports

Table 6.3 reports the bivariate correlations upon which the multivariate regression analyses involving the independent variable flexibility supports are based. Greater usage of flexibility supports are positively and significantly correlated with all ten dependent variables. Likewise, flexibility supports are positively and significantly correlated with each of the three conditional variables in the model, family responsibility, co-worker supportiveness, and supervisor supportiveness. Of the control variables, gender ($p<.05$), income ($p<.10$), and manager ($p<.05$) are significantly correlated with the independent variable with women and higher income employees showing greater usage of the company's flexibility supports, and managers showing less usage of the company's flexibility supports. As in the case with service supports, family responsibility, co-worker supportiveness, and supervisor supportiveness are each positively and significantly ($p<.001$ for all) correlated with flexibility supports. However, rather than having the third highest correlation coefficient as it did with service supports, supervisor supportiveness has the largest correlation coefficient with flexibility supports of these three variables. Of all the variables, those correlated highest with flexibility supports are parental satisfaction ($r=.215$), job satisfaction and progress ($r=.211$), and supervisor supportiveness ($r=.207$).

Table 6.3: Bivariate Correlations of Flexibility Supports and All Dependent and Selected Control Variables with One-Tailed Tests in Parentheses (N=545)

	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
(1) Flexibility supports	.135	.154	.146	.211	.142	.151	.128	.215	.185	.137	.175	.191	.207	.077	.067	-.098	.045
	(.001)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.001)	(.000)	(.000)	(.001)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.037)	(.060)	(.012)	(.146)
(2) Dependability		.643	.371	.450	.546	.381	.389	.435	.488	.450	.480	.331	.327	-.012	.038	-.043	.072
		(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.389)	(.187)	(.157)	(.047)
(3) Job performance			.398	.441	.530	.435	.305	.384	.511	.388	.452	.311	.277	-.029	.041	-.014	.054
			(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.250)	(.173)	(.372)	(.104)
(4) Org. commitment				.434	.389	.409	.284	.419	.429	.357	.452	.321	.274	-.015	-.004	-.056	.070
				(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.360)	(.459)	(.098)	(.051)
(5) Job satisfaction/prog					.532	.427	.353	.475	.477	.397	.426	.355	.397	-.020	.020	-.038	.136
					(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.320)	(.321)	(.192)	(.001)
(6) Work hrs/sched satisf						.416	.388	.428	.527	.448	.520	.344	.346	-.001	.008	.005	.065
						(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.491)	(.428)	(.457)	(.065)
(7) Work role conflict							.382	.387	.562	.344	.408	.214	.276	.017	.018	-.045	.043
							(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.344)	(.335)	(.147)	(.156)
(8) Marital satisfaction								.386	.546	.401	.482	.227	.213	.069	.017	-.010	.029
								(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.055)	(.348)	(.405)	(.252)
(9) Parental satisfaction									.527	.593	.575	.320	.244	-.057	.040	-.031	.068
									(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.091)	(.178)	(.237)	(.056)
(10) Free-time conflict										.549	.592	.301	.296	-.015	.052	.010	.051
										(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.362)	(.115)	(.405)	(.117)
(11) Scheduling conflict											.559	.354	.271	-.027	.026	.000	.087
											(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.266)	(.269)	(.497)	(.021)

Table 6.3 continued: Bivariate Correlations of Flexibility Supports and All Dependent and Selected Control Variables with One-Tailed Tests in Parentheses (N=545)

	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
(12) Family responsibility												.280	.275	.207	.012	-.106	.040
												(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.387)	(.007)	(.177)
(13) Coworker support													.741	-.083	.038	-.078	.202
													(.000)	(.026)	(.187)	(.035)	(.000)
(14) Supervisor support														-.021	.026	-.064	.197
														(.315)	(.272)	(.069)	(.000)
(15) Female															-.063	-.108	-.057
															(.070)	(.006)	(.094)
(16) Income																.137	.031
																(.001)	(.235)
(17) Manager																	-.109
																	(.006)
(18) 3+ years employed																	

Table 6.4 summarizes the findings from the series of ordinary least squares regressions involving flexibility supports which are reported in their entirety in Tables 6.11.1A through 6.20.3A in the Appendix. Unlike the lack of effect found for service supports, even with all other variables controlled (as Table 6.4 shows), greater use of flexibility supports has a significant effect on six of the ten dependent variables and is in the predicted direction for four of the six. Respondents with greater flexibility support usage have significantly higher scores on the outcome measures of work hours and schedule satisfaction, marital satisfaction, and parental satisfaction, and significantly lower scores on family scheduling conflict than persons with less usage of flexibility supports, as expected. Unexpectedly, though, those with greater flexibility support usage score significantly lower on measures of dependability and job performance.

When respondents' degree of famiiy responsibility is added to the equation, it significantly effects half of the dependent variables. Those with greater responsibility for the care of dependent family members score significantly lower on their self-reports of job performance, parental satisfaction, and family scheduling conflict than do those with less family responsibility. With flexibility supports and control variables in the equation, family responsibility is positively and significantly related to work role conflict and marital satisfaction.

To consider the possibility that flexibility supports may have a greater effect on the outcome measures for people who have a greater degree of responsibility for the care of their family members, the interaction term of flexibility supports and family responsibility was added to the equation. Three of the interaction terms had a significant effect on the

Table 6.4: Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses of Each Dependent Variable on Flexibility Supports and Conditional Variables (with Control Variables Included) Showing Direction of Regression Coefficient and Significance Level

	Dependability	Job Performance	Organization Commitment	Job Satisfaction / Progress	Work Hours / Schedule Satisfaction	Work Role Conflict	Marital Satisfaction	Parental Satisfaction	Family Free-Time Conflict	Family Scheduling Conflict
Flexibility Supports	- *	- *	-	+	+ *	+	+	+ *	+	- *
Family Responsibility	-	- *	+	+	+	+	+ *	- *	-	- *
Flexibility x Family Responsibility	- *	-	-	+	-	+ *	-	+	+	+ *
Co-worker Support	-	-	+ *	+ *	+ *	- *	+ *	+ *	- *	- *
Flexibility x Co-worker Support	-	-	-	+	- *	+	- *	- *	+ *	+ *
Supervisor Support	+	+	+ *	+ *	+ *	- *	+ *	+ *	- *	- *
Flexibility x Supervisor Support	- *	+	-	-	- *	-	-	-	+	+ *

dependent variables of dependability, work role conflict, and family scheduling conflict. In the case of the outcome measure dependability, the effect of flexibility supports for respondents who have a low degree of family responsibility is -.199, which is significant (as shown in Table 6.11.1A in the Appendix). For those with a high degree of family responsibility, the effect of flexibility supports on dependability is -.537. Thus, the negative effect of flexibility supports on dependability is significantly less for those with a high degree of responsibility for the care of dependent family members than for those with little or no such responsibility. A similar pattern was observed for family scheduling conflict. Flexibility supports are associated with reduced family scheduling conflict both for those with low as well as those with high degrees of dependent care responsibility, but the reduction in conflict is even greater for those with lower dependent care responsibilities (see Table 6.20.1A in the Appendix). Regarding work role conflict, flexibility supports are associated with reduced conflict for those having less dependent care responsibilities but increased conflict for those with more dependent care responsibilities (see Table 6.16.1A in the Appendix). In each case, the direction of the effect is not consistent with predictions.

The conceptual model tested in this study proposes different effects of flexibility supports according to the climate of the organization as measured by both co-worker supportiveness and supervisor supportiveness, in addition to the conditional relationship just suggested by degree of family responsibility. A series of multiple regressions were performed which included co-worker supportiveness in the equation with flexibility supports and control variables for each outcome measure. As shown in the summary table. Table 6.4. co-worker supportiveness has a significant effect for eight out of ten dependent variables. Each are in the same direction as the effects found in the earlier section examining service supports, and all eight are in the predicted direction. Specifically, those reporting greater support from their co-workers with regard to using work family policies and programs score significantly higher on organizational commitment, job satisfaction and progress, work hours and schedule satisfaction, and marital, and parental satisfaction than do those with unsupportive co-workers, as expected. Those with greater co-worker support also score significantly lower on work role conflict, family free-time conflict, and family scheduling conflict, as expected. Like the earlier analyses of co-worker support when service support usage is considered, co-worker supportiveness has the strongest direct effect of all independent variables in the equations for organizational commitment, job satisfaction and progress, work hours and schedule satisfaction, work role conflict, and family scheduling conflict. For the family outcome measures, the effect of co-worker support is just behind the slightly larger direct effects of family income (a negative effect on marital satisfaction), gender and family income (both with negative effects on parental satisfaction), and family income (a positive effect on family free-time conflict). The effects of co-worker supportiveness on the remaining two dependent variables, dependability and job performance, are not in the predicted direction, but are very small and not significant. Possible explanations for this pattern of observed effects for eight of ten dependent variables with dependability and job performance being a fairly consistent exception will be discussed in the conclusion.

Findings concerning the interaction term of flexibility supports and co-worker supportiveness reveals that the effects of flexibility supports differ for those with supportive co-workers compared to those with unsupportive co-workers for half of the dependent variables. For those low on co-worker support, the effect of flexibility supports on work hours and schedule satisfaction is .366, as Table 6.15.2A in the Appendix shows. The effect is in the direction predicted and is significant at the <.001. level. For people who are high on the variable co-worker support, the effect of flexibility supports on work hours and schedule satisfaction is .127. The unstandardized beta coefficient of the interaction term of -.239 is the difference between those who are high versus those who are low on co-worker support in the effect of flexibility supports on job satisfaction and progress, and that difference is significant. What this means is that flexibility supports are associated with greater work hours and schedule satisfaction for both those respondents with supportive as well as unsupportive co-workers, but the effect is significantly greater for those with unsupportive compared with supportive co-workers. The same relationship is found for the outcome measure of parental satisfaction (see Table 6.18.2A in the Appendix). In the case of marital satisfaction, the effect of flexibility supports for those with unsupportive co-workers is .201 (as shown in Tabie 6.17.2A in the Appendix) while the effect of the supports for those with supportive co-workers is -.154, indicating that flexibility supports are associated with greater marital satisfaction when co-workers are supportive but less marital satisfaction when co-workers are not supportive. With regard to family free-time conflict (Appendix Table 6.19.2A), flexibility supports have a small and insignificant negative effect (-.045) for respondents with lower levels of co-worker support but a positive effect (.341) for respondents with higher levels of co-worker support, a difference that is significant. Thus, flexibility supports are associated with greater family free-time conflict for those employees with more supportive co-workers. Turning now to the last significant interaction term of flexibility supports and co-worker supportiveness, the effect of flexibility supports on family scheduling conflict for people low on co-worker support is -.597 (as shown in Table 6.20.2A in the Appendix), which is significant. For those respondents reporting a high degree of co-worker support, the effect of flexibility supports on family scheduling conflict is .120. The unstandardized beta coefficient of the interaction term of .717 is the difference between those who are high versus those who are low on co-worker support in the effect of flexibility supports on family scheduling conflict, and that difference is significant at the .001 level. Thus, flexibility supports are associated with less family scheduling conflict for those in a condition of low co-worker support but with greater conflict for those in a condition of high co-worker support.

Finally, flexibility supports were examined for their effect when supervisor supportiveness is taken into account. When supervisor supportiveness is added to the equations with flexibility supports and the control variables, it has the identical effects, in terms of both direction and significance, as co-worker support for the same eight out of ten dependent variables. Moreover, for each of the eight dependent variables, supervisor supportiveness had the largest direct effect of all variables in the equations with the exception of marital satisfaction where it has the second largest direct effect after income (as indicated by comparison of the standardized regression coefficients; see tables in the Appendix). Further, consistent with the findings concerning service supports, in every case the Beta for supervisor supportiveness was higher than the Beta for co-worker supportiveness. In addition to these eight, supervisor support had a positive and significant effect (at the <.10 level) on job performance.

The possibility of an interaction effect between flexibility supports and the organizational climate measure of supervisor supportiveness also was considered, and the interaction term of flexibility supports and supervisor supportiveness was added to the equation. As the summary table, Table 6.4, reveals, this interaction term was significant for four of the ten dependent variables. As shown in Table 6.11.3A in the Appendix, for respondents reporting a low degree of supervisor support, the effect of flexibility supports on dependability is -.083; however, the effect is small and not significant. For people with a high degree of supervisor support, the effect of flexibility supports on dependability is -.390. The unstandardized beta coefficient of the interaction term of -.307 is the difference between those who are high versus those who are low on supervisor support in the effect of flexibility support on dependability, and that difference is significant at the <.10 level. This indicates that the negative effect of flexibility supports on dependability is significantly greater for those in a condition of high supervisor support than for those in a condition of low supervisor support. In other words, flexibility supports reduce dependability more for those with supportive supervisors than they do for those with unsupportive supervisors, a finding contrary to predictions. Again, this suggests that the formal culture matters more when the informal climate is unsupportive. The interaction term also is significant for work hours and schedule satisfaction. The effect of flexibility supports on this outcome measure is .344 (see Table 6.15.3A in the Appendix) for persons having an unsupportive supervisor, a significant effect, while the effect of flexibility supports for persons with a supportive supervisor is .069. The difference of -.275 between persons with supportive and unsupportive supervisors is significant. This finding indicates that the positive effect of flexibility supports on work hours and schedule satisfaction is greater for those with unsupportive supervisors than it is for those with supportive supervisors. Flexibility supports also have a small and barely significant (p=.094) varying effect on family free-time conflict according to the degree of supervisor supportiveness. The effect of flexibility supports on family free-time conflict for those with unsupportive supervisors is small and insignificant at .044 while the effect is .246 for persons with supportive supervisors. Thus, flexibility supports have an small but unexpected positive effect on family free-time conflict, an effect that is greater for those having unsupportive supervisors than for those having supportive supervisors. Finally, the interaction term for the dependent variable family scheduling conflict also is significant. The effect of flexibility supports on family scheduling conflict for persons with unsupportive supervisors is -.524 and is significant, the effect for those with supportive supervisors is .050, and the difference of .574 between the two groups is significant (see Table 6.20.3A in the Appendix). This suggests that flexibility supports are associated with reduced family scheduling conflict when supervisors are unsupportive but with a very slight increase in such conflict when supervisors are supportive; again suggesting that the formal supports matter more when informal climate is unsupportive.

What emerges in these regressions is that greater use of flexibility supports is important for several of the outcomes in this study. The extent to which they matter varies rarely according to whether family responsibility is high or low, but in each case the variability is in an unexpected direction. The extent to which flexibility supports effect outcomes depending on whether employees' perceive their co-workers and supervisors to be supportive or unsupportive is significant about half of the time, but again, predominantly in unexpected directions. Possible explanations for these particular results will be presented in the following chapter. Overall, as with service supports, what consistently effects the outcomes is the organizational work/family climate as indicated by co-worker and supervisor supportiveness over and above the formal policy and program structure.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION

Women's mass movement into the paid labor force represents one of the major social changes of this century. Today, America's labor force is almost fifty percent women. Approximately two-thirds of mothers with children under age 6 and three-quarters of married women with children ages 6 through 17 are employed (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1988).

Although an historical overview of the work patterns of women from pre-industrial times presents a clear and convincing picture of the extensive and essential labor performed by women, industrialization means that families now purchase their subsistence rather than produce it themselves, and means that the location of this labor for most people is away from home. So even though women once again are either essential subsistence providers along with men, or are sole providers, labor today requires accountability to an employer and substitute care for children. These facts greatly change family arrangements from a time when preindustrial husbands and wives labored together to provide for their families within earshot of their children.

The mass movement of women into paid labor has produced a well-ingrained and necessary feature of the employment system, and consequently, the traditional assumption of a male employee with a wife in the home to care for the family's needs no longer holds for the majority of U.S. workers today. As more attention is paid to the difficulties involved in obtaining affordable, reliable, good quality child care as well as the difficulties, conflicts, and stress involved in trying to meet employee and parent responsibilities simultaneously, companies are urged to adopt new approaches that are in keeping with the demographics of the modern workforce. For leading employers, this, thus far, has meant some combination of direct child care supports with flexible schedule/flexible location options.

Most of the efforts have been driven by well-meaning intentions and assumptions and anecdotal descriptions about what work/family initiatives are or would be helpful. For the most part, initiatives have been developed and promoted from a labor perspective which emphasizes potential gains to employers in the way of a favorable public image, improved dependability through lower absentee and tardiness records, as well as improved recruitment, retention, and productivity. However, the present study has argued for the assessment of outcomes to additional stakeholders in the work/family picture: employees who use the initiatives, and families themselves. In addition, the present study has sought to compare and examine work/family policies and programs empirically, to accurately assess the effects of current efforts at a company considered to be among the best at these approaches, with the hopes of giving practical and effective direction to future efforts.

The gaps in our knowledge about work/family policies and programs result in large part from the lack of empirical research, the common focus on outcomes to employers without concurrent evaluation of outcomes to careers and families, and the lack of comparison of the different types of supports with one another. Yet our understanding of the effects of work/family policies and programs also cannot be complete without a more indepth consideration of the informal culture or climate of the organization which very plausibly influences the likelihood of policy usage and the way in which people who use the initiatives are responded to, and, thus, the outcomes to employers, employees, and families. Addressing these gaps in order to increase our understanding of what makes a company truly family-friendly and *what* initiatives under *what* conditions maximize *what* outcomes has been the goal of the present study.

Summary of Findings. Because work/family initiatives are instituted with the goal of positive outcomes, it was expected that policy and program usage would be favorably associated with the various outcomes. However, mindful of the possibility that policies and programs may be differentially favorable to different parties (i.e., employers, employees, and families), outcome measures were included which are of prime interest to each of these entities. Additionally, the likelihood that different types of policies and programs have varying degrees of impact, led to the comparison of two types (i.e., service supports and flexibility) of supports. Moreover, the potential that the informal climate of the organization, in addition to the formally instated initiatives, may mediate the relationship between policy/program usage and outcomes, necessitated the inclusion of conditional variables of co-worker and supervisor supportiveness. Similarly, the possibility that individuals' own degree of responsibility for dependent family members may influence the effect of policy/program usage on outcomes, led to its inclusion as a third conditional variable.

As multiple regression analyses revealed, service supports and flexibility supports do have differential effects with flexibility supports being far more influential to the outcome measures as a whole than are service supports. One important note of caution must be made, however. The company's work/family supports were grouped into two categories instead of being analyzed individually because of the small proportion of users for several of the supports and because of the degree of skewness that existed between users and nonusers. In the case of service supports, that resulted in a grouping which included on-/near-site child care center usage, a variable that is considered a fundamental support needed by employees as well as one which potentially effects important outcomes in significant ways. However, service supports also included usage of child care subsidies, pre-tax child care accounts, and child care resource and referral services, all of which are supports which are likely less influential with regard to the outcomes assessed in this study. Specifically, using the referral service to obtain a listing of child care providers, receiving subsidies to help with the cost of child care, and being able to set aside a portion of one's income, before taxes, to go toward child care costs, would not logically be expected to reduce absenteeism and tardiness, or assist with career progress or family scheduling conflict, for example. Yet, these types are included in the service support category, and, moreover, make up the greater proportion of this category since usage of the referral service, subsidies, and pre-tax account is far greater than usage of Harmattan's on-/near-site child care centers. This grouping, then, of dissimilarly effective supports, may be the cause of the lack of effects found for service supports. Thus, the findings cannot accurately be taken as indication that on-/near site centers are of no significant consequence to employers, employees, and to families.

The grouping of flexibility supports is far more homogeneous than that of service supports in that each is a way of adapting one's work schedule and locale. Flexibility supports showed significant outcomes for increased marital and parental satisfaction, and even more especially improved work hours and schedule satisfaction and reduced family scheduling conflict. Thus, flexible supports appeared most favorable to families, followed by employees. With regard to employers, the effect of flexibility supports were unexpected in their association with reduced dependability and job performance. While it is conceivable that flextime or work at home, for instance, is associated with lowered job performance if the culture of the organization still rewards those employees which put in the most "face time," the reason that dependability would be reduced is less obvious. One possibility, though, concerns the direction of the effect. It may be that lowered dependability is associated with choosing to opt for a flexible schedule rather than vice versa. Again, though, a note of caution is in order. The variables dependability and job performance are measured by asking respondents to compare themselves along those lines to others in a similar position as theirs at Harmattan. That measurement strategy, specifically, the unknown characteristics of the persons to whom respondents are comparing themselves, may have something to do with the unexpected effects that were observed for these two variables.

In addition to assessing the extent to which the two types of work/family policies and programs themselves have a direct effect on outcomes of concern to employers, employees, and families, three conditional variables were proposed which were believed to potentially mediate the effects. Not surprisingly given the earlier findings, the effect of service supports under different degrees of family responsibility varied slightly for job performance, but for no other of the nine remaining dependent variables. Neither did flexibility supports vary significantly in their overall effects for those with a high degree compared to those with a low degree of family responsibility. There were three exceptions to this in which a significant interaction did occur for one of the employer outcomes, one of the employee outcomes, and one of the family outcomes. However, in none of the three cases was the direction as predicted; instead, flexibility usage was associated with more positive outcomes for those with fewer rather than greater dependent care responsibilities.

The informal climate of an organization, whose potential importance for outcomes associated with the formal culture of work/family policies and programs has received a good deal of acknowledgment but an absence of analysis, was assessed in this study as a component which may mediate the relationship between policy/program usage and the various outcomes. In this study, organizational climate was considered as having two distinct parts, co-worker supportiveness and supervisor supportiveness. Service supports were found to vary in their effects according to degree of co-worker support 20 percent of the time, and barely 10 percent of the time according to degree of supervisor support. Organizational climate mediated the effects of the formal culture flexibility supports depending on the degree of co-worker supportiveness for 50 percent of the outcomes, and for 40 percent of the outcomes depending on supervisor supportiveness. Most of the time, the effects of formal supports and informal supports were additive rather than multiplicative.

Implications. Two findings emerged as the most important discoveries from this study. First, rather than organizational climate existing merely as a conditional variable effecting what was thought to be the more important variable of formal supports, both co-worker supportiveness and supervisor supportiveness emerged as the most important variables, having the most significant direct effects of all variables in the analyses. Even when controlling for gender, marital status, income, education, job classification, years employed, supervisors' family responsibility, and usage of service and flexibility supports, both co-worker and supervisor supportiveness had significant, favorable outcomes, in the expected directions, for 80-90 percent of the dependent variables. Co-worker and supervisor supportiveness were found to significantly enhance organizational commitment, job satisfaction and progress, work hours and schedule satisfaction, marital satisfaction, and parental satisfaction, and to significantly reduce work role conflict, family free-time conflict, and family scheduling conflict. Although the findings concerning dependability and job performance were to some degree consistent with the other dependent variables, their relationship was more equivocal, which again may be due to the measurement of these specific variables. Nonetheless, the consistent and predominant effects observed for organizational climate as a dependent variable are striking as well as convincing. The supportiveness one has from co-workers and supervisors for using the work/family policies and programs is far more important than the effects of the policies and programs themselves.

The second important and unexpected finding that emerged from this study pertains to the product terms involving formal and informal supports. When a significant interaction was observed, it was regularly the case that policy and program usage resulted in more favorable outcomes for those respondents working in a more *un*supportive climate rather than those in a supportive climate, which is not intuitively expected. It was suspected that outcomes would be more favorable for respondents using policies and programs under conditions of support from their supervisors and co-workers, but that is not what was found. Instead, more favorable outcomes were associated with usage when users perceived their co-workers and supervisors to be unsupportive.

That formal supports appear to matter more when informal supports are low, an unexpected although not illogical finding, coupled with the observation that informal supports are more important for these ten outcomes, has considerable implications for those concerned with work/family initiatives. These findings suggest that employers may want to direct more effort toward creating a family supportive climate in their organization by placing more attention on supervisor awareness and training and seminars, for instance, as well as other methods of conveying the message that family responsibilities are important and should be supported.

As to the formal policies and programs themselves, the findings from this study suggest that flexibility supports are considerably more effective than are the more benign service supports (with the exception of direct child care support through on-/near-site centers). Those in the position of instituting or approving such schedules may find that doing so will enhance not only employees' family lives but will also increase employees' satisfaction with their work hours and schedules.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research. The limitations posed by grouping the supports (especially service supports) rather than assessing their effects individually are acknowledged, and researchers may want to consider targeting a sample to increase the representation of users of employer-provided on-/near-site child care in the future so that its influence may be empirically assessed. In addition, future research may expand to include additional types of employer work/family initiatives which are presently rare but which are on the horizon of possible greater efforts in this area. These initiatives include after school care for school-age children which addresses the concern that many parents and many experts have with children and adolescents being home unsupervised. Other initiatives receiving some attention are summer/holiday programs, again to assist with care for school-age children. Such programs may offer employed parents greater assurance of their children's well-being, a condition which may very well impact the outcome variables that have been considered in this study.

To the extent that the findings concerning dependability and job performance are the result of the uniqueness of measurement compared with the other outcome measures, researchers may also want to compare the findings of this study with those which assess these two variables through different means. That the findings of this study are from a single company is an additional limitation of this research that is recognized and, thus, generalizability to employees of all types and sizes of companies might entail risk. However, it is hoped that these findings will contribute useful information toward building a very needed, broader base of knowledge concerning the relationship between work and family more generally, toward the ways in which organization involvement may influence spillover relationships more specifically, and most specifically, toward the ways in which formal policies and programs and informal climate influence singularly and in combination outcomes of concern to employers, to employees, and to families. Given workforce demographics and family structures, employers, employees, and families have a great deal at stake concerning the responsiveness of the structure and culture of employment to these realities.

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APPENDIX

Table 5.1A: Correlation Matrix for Items Making Up the Job Performance Scale (N=517)

	(2)	(3)	(4)
(1) Work quantity	.65	.58	.31
(2) Work quality		.49	.18
(3) Work effort			.43
(4) Hours worked			

Table 5.2A: Correlation Matrix for Items Making Up the Organizational Commitment Scale (N=517)

	(2)	(3)	(4)
(1) Great organization	.69	.48	.52
(2) Best performance		.51	.53
(3) Organization fate			.62
(4) Intent to stay			

Table 5.3A: Correlation Matrix for Items Making Up the Job Satisfaction and Progress Scale and the Work Hours and Schedule Satisfaction Scale (N=525)

	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
(1) Work satisfaction	.50	.45	.21	.28
(2) Progress satisfaction		.66	.13	.18
(3) Advancement satisfaction			.22	.25
(4) Hours satisfaction				.64
(5) Schedule satisfaction				

Table 5.4A: Correlation Matrix for Items Making Up the Work Role Conflict Scale (N=510)

	(2)	(3)	(4)
(1) Others think	.46	.43	.45
(2) Difficult to do job		.54	.70
(3) More job time			.43
(4) Family interference			

Table 5.5A: Correlation Matrix for Items Making Up the Parental Satisfaction Scale (N=515)

	(2)	(3)	(4)
(1) Children's well-being	.53	.38	.42
(2) Self as parent		.52	.27
(3) Time with children			.29
(4) Comfortable arrangements			

Table 5.6A: Correlation Matrix for Items Making Up the Family Free-Time Conflict Scale and the Family Scheduling Conflict Scale (N=502)

	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
(1) Job interference	.63	.30	.38	.42
(2) Difficult to relax		.25	.35	.44
(3) Appointment difficulty			.69	.54
(4) Difficult to stay home				.63
(5) Difficult to adjust hours				

Table 6.1.1A: Regressions of Dependability on Service Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=285)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .467	-.122	- .387	-.101	- .229	-.060	- .189	-.049
	(p=.027)		(p=.069)		(p=.240)		(p=.282)	
Married	.283	.034	.309	.037	.253	.031	.278	.033
	(p=.283)		(p=.266)		(p=.306)		(p=.289)	
Income	.517	.134	.486	.126	.437	.113	.440	.114
	(p=.027)		(p=.036)		(p=.058)		(p=.056)	
No college	.853	.090	.847	.089	.820	.086	.861	.091
	(p=.063)		(p=.065)		(p=.071)		(p=.063)	
Graduate degree	- .101	-.023	- .126	-.029	- .128	-.029	- .132	-.030
	(p=.347)		(p=.314)		(p=.311)		(p=.306)	
Manager	.427	.102	.428	.103	.434	.104	.440	.105
	(p=.065)		(p=.064)		(p=.062)		(p=.060)	
Years employed	.308	.081	.270	.071	.272	.071	.265	.069
	(p=.092)		(p=.127)		(p=.125)		(p=.132)	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.004	.001	.000	.000	.008	.002	- .002	.000
	(p=.493)		(p=.499)		(p=.487)		(p=.497)	
SFR Unknown	- .252	-.042	- .268	-.045	- .298	-.050	- .256	-.042
	(p=.263)		(p=.250)		(p=.227)		(p=.262)	
Service Supports			- .109	-.054	- .090	-.045	.109	.054
			(p=.210)		(p=.257)		(p=.350)	
Family Responsibility					- .278	-.071	- .157	-.040
					(p=.205)		(p=.335)	
Service x Family Responsibility							- .261	-.130
							(p=.210)	
Constant	6.952		7.024		7.169		7.073	
R^2	.080		.082		.085		.087	
p	.006		.008		.011		.014	

Table 6.1.2A: Regressions of Dependability on Service Supports. Co-worker Support. and Control Variables (N=285)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .467	-.122	- .387	-.101	- .387	-.101	- .363	-.095
	(p=.027)		*(p=.069)*		*(p=.070)*		*(p=.083)*	
Married	.283	.034	.309	.037	.309	.037	.347	.042
	(p=.283)		*(p=.266)*		*(p=.266)*		*(p=.242)*	
Income	.517	.134	.486	.126	.486	.126	.496	.129
	(p=.027)		*(p=.036)*		*(p=.036)*		*(p=.034)*	
No college	.853	.090	.847	.089	.850	.089	.813	.085
	(p=.063)		*(p=.065)*		*(p=.065)*		*(p=.074)*	
Graduate degree	- .101	-.023	- .126	-.029	- .125	-.028	- .114	-.026
	(p=.347)		*(p=.314)*		*(p=.315)*		*(p=.331)*	
Manager	.427	.102	.428	.103	.427	.102	.436	.104
	(p=.065)		*(p=.064)*		*(p=.065)*		*(p=.062)*	
Years employed	.308	.081	.270	.071	.270	.071	.260	.068
	(p=.092)		*(p=.127)*		*(p=.127)*		*(p=.136)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.004	.001	.000	.000	.001	.000	- .008	-.002
	(p=.493)		*(p=.499)*		*(p=498)*		*(p=.488)*	
SFR Unknown	- .252	-.042	- .268	-.045	- .268	-.045	- .298	-.050
	(p=.263)		*(p=.250)*		*(p=.251)*		*(p=.227)*	
Service Supports			- .109	-.054	- .109	-.055	- .225	-.112
			(p=.210)		*(p=.210)*		*(p=.098)*	
Co-worker Support					.019	.005	- .206	-.053
					(p=.467)		*(p=.254)*	
Service x Co-worker Support							.260	.103
							(p=.142)	
Constant	6.952		7.024		7.015		7.064	
R^2	.080		.082		.082		.086	
p	.006		.008		.014		.015	

Table 6.1.3A: Regressions of Dependability on Service Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=285)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .467	-.122	- .387	-.101	- .387	-.101	- .399	-.104
	(p=.027)		*(p=.069)*		*(p=.070)*		*(p=.064)*	
Married	.283	.034	.309	.037	.309	.037	.289	.035
	(p=.283)		*(p=.266)*		*(p=.267)*		*(p=.270)*	
Income	.517	.134	.486	.126	.487	.126	.489	.127
	(p=.027)		*(p=.036)*		*(p=.036)*		*(p=.035)*	
No college	.853	.090	.847	.089	.848	.089	.825	.087
	(p=.063)		*(p=.065)*		*(p=.065)*		*(p=.071)*	
Graduate degree	- .101	-.023	- .126	-.029	- .126	-.029	- .139	-.032
	(p=.347)		*(p=.314)*		*(p=.315)*		*(p=.297)*	
Manager	.427	.102	.428	.103	.429	.103	.426	.102
	(p=.065)		*(p=.064)*		*(p=.065)*		*(p=.066)*	
Years employed	.308	.081	.270	.071	.270	.071	.258	.067
		(p=.092)		*(p=.127)*	*(p=.127)*		*(p=.139)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.004	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	- .007	-.002
	(p=.493)		*(p=.499)*		*(p=.499)*		*(p=.489)*	
SFR Unknown	- .252	-.042	- .268	-.045	- .268	-.045	- .282	-.047
	(p=.263)		*(p=.250)*		*(p=.251)*		*(p=.239)*	
Service Supports			- .109	-.054	- .109	-.054	- .005	-.002
			(p=.210)		*(p=.211)*		*(p=.489)*	
Supervisor Support					.007	.002	.210	.055
					(p=.488)		*(p=.241)*	
Service x Supervisor Support							- .245	-.010
							(p=.152)	
Constant	6.952		7.024		7.020		6.975	
R^2	.080		.082		.082		.086	
p	.006		.008		.014		.016	

Table 6.2.1A: Regressions of Job Performance on Service Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=282)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .113	-.023	- .045	-.009	.311	.064	.354	.073
	(p=.357)		*(p=.447)*		*(p=.224)*		*(p=.197)*	
Married	- .407	-.039	- .385	-.037	- .512	-.049	- .484	-.046
	(p=.259)		*(p=.271)*		*(p=.211)*		*(p=.224)*	
Income	.684	.140	.658	.135	.543	.111	.550	.113
	(p=.024)		*(p=.030)*		*(p=.064)*		*(p=.062)*	
No college	.526	.044	.520	.043	.458	.038	.504	.042
	(p=.230)		*(p=.232)*		*(p=.260)*		*(p=.240)*	
Graduate degree	.197	.035	.173	.031	.180	.032	.186	.033
	(p=..278)		*(p=.304)*		*(p=.296)*		*(p=.291)*	
Manager	.633	.119	.636	.120	.646	.122	.646	.122
	(p=..042)		*(p=.041)*		*(p=.039)*		*(p=.039)*	
Years employed	.383	.079	.350	.072	.350	.072	.350	.113
	(p=..098)		*(p=.124)*		*(p=.123)*		*(p=.124)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	- .342	-.070	- .346	-.071	- .327	-.067	- .331	-.068
	(p=.143)		*(p=.141)*		*(p=.154)*		*(p=.152)*	
SFR Unknown	- .466	-.062	- .479	-.064	- .554	-.074	- .505	-.067
	(p=..177)		*(p=.171)*		*(p=.137)*		*(p=.162)*	
Service Supports			- .092	-.036	- .048	-.019	.163	.064
			(p=.300)		*(p=.393)*		*(p=.327)*	
Family Responsibility					- .637	-.129	- .512	-.104
					(p=.068)		*(p=.137)*	
Service x Family Responsibility							- .275	-.108
							(p=.254)	
Constant	15.795		15.856		16.197		16.081	
R^2	.064		.065		.072		.074	
p	.034		.049		.038		.050	

Table 6.2.2A: Regressions of Job Performance on Service Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=282)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .113	-.023	- .045	-.009	- .049	-.010	- .064	-.013
	(p=.357)		*(p=.447)*		*(p=.442)*		*(p=.424)*	
Married	- .407	-.039	- .385	-.037	- .379	-.036	- .410	-.039
	(p=.259)		*(p=.271)*		*(p=.275)*		*(p=.259)*	
Income	.684	.140	.658	.135	.665	.136	.654	.134
	(p=.024)		*(p=.030)*		*(p=.029)*		*(p=.031)*	
No college	.526	.044	.520	.043	.543	.045	.573	.048
	(p=.230)		*(p=.232)*		*(p=.224)*		*(p=.212)*	
Graduate degree	.197	.035	.173	.031	.173	.031	.158	.028
	(p=..278)		*(p=.304)*		*(p=.305)*		*(p=.321)*	
Manager	.633	.119	.636	.120	.627	.118	.624	.118
	(p=..042)		*(p=.041)*		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.045)*	
Years employed	.383	.079	.350	.072	.354	.073	.363	.075
	(p=..098)		*(p=.124)*		*(p=.122)*		*(p=.116)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	- .342	-.070	- .346	-.071	- .343	-.070	- .335	-.069
	(p=.143)		*(p=.141)*		*(p=..143)*		*(p=.149)*	
SFR Unknown	- .466	-.062	- .479	-.064	- .479	-.064	- .451	-.060
	(p=..177)		*(p=.171)*		*(p=.172)*		*(p=.187)*	
Service Supports			- .092	-.036	- .094	-.037	.000	.000
			(p=.300)		*(p=.295)*		*(p=.498)*	
Co-worker Support					.145	.029	.328	.066
					(p=.311)		*(p=.204)*	
Service x Co-worker Support							- .213	-.067
							(p=.247)	
Constant	15.795		15.856		15.791		15.749	
R^2	.064		.065		.066		.067	
p	.034		.049		.069		.089	

Table 6.2.3A: Regressions of Job Performance on Service Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=282)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .113	-.023	- .045	-.009	- .074	-.015	- .086	-.018
		(p=.357)		*(p=.447)*		*(p=.413)*		*(p=.398)*
Married	- .407	-.039	- .385	-.037	- .389	-.037	- .409	-.039
		(p=.259)		*(p=.271)*		*(p=.269)*		*(p=.259)*
Income	.684	.140	.658	.135	.673	.138	.673	.138
		(p=.024)		*(p=.030)*		*(p=.027)*		*(p=.027)*
No college	.526	.044	.520	.043	.608	.051	.584	.049
		(p=.230)		*(p=.232)*		*(p=.197)*		*(p=.207)*
Graduate degree	.197	.035	.173	.031	.179	.032	.160	.028
		(p=..278)		*(p=.304)*		*(p=.297)*		*(p=.318)*
Manager	.633	.119	.636	.120	.636	.120	.636	.120
		(p=..042)		*(p=.041)*		*(p=.041)*	*(p=.041)*	
Years employed	.383	.079	.350	.072	.372	.077	.355	.073
		(p=.098)		*(p=.124)*		*(p=.110)*		*(p=.122)*
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	- .342	-.070	- .346	-.071	- .332	-.068	- .343	-.070
		(p=.143)		*(p=.141)*		*(p=.151)*		*(p=.143)*
SFR Unknown	- .466	-.062	- .479	-.064	- .468	-.062	- .485	-.064
		(p=..177)		*(p=.171)*		*(p=.176)*		*(p=.168)*
Service Supports			- .092	-.036	- .083	-.033	.017	.006
				(p=.300)		*(p=.317)*		*(p=.470)*
Supervisor Support					.419	.086	.614	.126
						(p=.073)		*(p=.055)*
Service x Supervisor Support							- .235	-.073
								(p=.221)
Constant	15.795		15.856		15.648		15.614	
R^2	.064		.065		.072		.074	
p	.034		.049		.039		.050	

Table 6.3.1A: Regressions of Organization Commitment on Service Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=283)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.672	.143	.557	.119	.633	.135	.560	.119
	(p=.012)		*(p=.041)*		*(p=.057)*		*(p=.083)*	
Married	.140	.014	.101	.010	.076	.007	.029	.003
	(p=.409)		*(p=.435)*		*(p=.451)*		*(p=.481)*	
Income	- .253	-.054	- .209	-.044	- .234	-.050	- .235	-.050
	(p=.223)		*(p=.266)*		*(p=.249)*		*(p=.248)*	
No college	.788	.068	.798	..069	.784	.067	.707	.061
	(p=.126)		*(p=.123)*		*(p=.128)*		*(p=.154)*	
Graduate degree	.136	.025	.170	.031	.170	.031	.171	.032
	(p=.336)		*(p=.300)*		*(p=.300)*		*(p=.299)*	
Manager	- .390	-.076	- .394	-.077	- .393	-.077	- .402	-.078
	(p=.135)		*(p=.133)*		*(p=.134)*		*(p=.128)*	
Years employed	.598	.128	.653	.139	.655	.140	.665	.142
	(p=.019)		*(p=.013)*		*(p=.013)*		*(p=.012)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.361	.076	.367	.077	.370	.078	.380	.080
	(p=.123)		*(p=.119)*		*(p=.117)*		*(p=.111)*	
SFR Unknown	.898	.123	.925	.127	.908	.124	.825	.113
	(p=.033)		*(p=.029)*		*(p=.033)*		*(p=.049)*	
Service Supports			.157	.063	.165	.067	- .178	-.072
			(p=.176)		*(p=.167)*		*(p=.301)*	
Family Responsibility					- .132	-.028	- .351	-.074
					(p=.375)		*(p=.220)*	
Service x Family Responsibility							.456	.184
							(p=.122)	
Constant	12.614		12.512		12.583		12.768	
R^2	.069		.072		.072		..077	
p	.020		.025		.038		.039	

Table 6.3.2A: Regressions of Organization Commitment on Service Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=283)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.672	.143	.557	.119	.542	.115	.536	.114
	(p=.012)		*(p=.041)*		*(p=.042)*		*(p=.045)*	
Married	.140	.014	.101	.010	.153	.015	.145	.014
	(p=.409)		*(p=.435)*		*(p=.398)*		*(p=.405)*	
Income	- .253	-.054	- .209	-.044	- .175	-.037	- .176	-.037
	(p=.223)		*(p=.266)*		*(p=297)*		*(p=.296)*	
No college	.788	.068	.798	..069	.948	.082	.956	.082
	(p=.126)		*(p=.123)*		*(p=.080)*		*(p=.079)*	
Graduate degree	.136	.025	.170	.031	.165	.030	.161	.030
	(p=.336)		*(p=.300)*		*(p=.302)*		*(p=.306)*	
Manager	- .390	-.076	- .394	-.077	- .414	-.081	- .417	-.081
	(p=.135)		*(p=.133)*		*(p=.116)*		*(p=.115)*	
Years employed	.598	.128	.653	.139	.668	.143	.670	.143
	(p=.019)		*(p=.013)*		*(p=.010)*		*(p=.010)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.361	.076	.367	.077	.395	.083	.398	.084
	(p=.123)		*(p=.119)*		*(p=.097)*		*(p=.096)*	
SFR Unknown	.898	.123	.925	.127	.930	.127	.938	.129
	(p=.033)		*(p=.029)*		*(p=.026)*		*(p=.026)*	
Service Supports			.157	.063	.130	.053	.156	.063
			(p=.176)		*(p=.215)*		*(p=.230)*	
Co-worker Support					.998	.208	1.048	.218
					(p=.000)		*(p=.003)*	
Service x Co-worker Support							- .058	-.019
							(p=.422)	
Constant	12.614		12.512		12.062		12.050	
R^2	.069		.072		.114		.114	
p	.020		.025		.000		.001	

Table 6.3.3A: Regressions of Organization Commitment on Service Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=283)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.672	.143	.557	.119	.478	.102	.468	.100
	(p=.012)		*(p=.041)*		*(p=.061)*		*(p=.066)*	
Married	.140	.014	.101	.010	.094	.009	.080	.008
	(p=.409)		*(p=.435)*		*(p=.436)*		*(p=.446)*	
Income	- .253	-.054	- .209	-.044	- .219	-.046	- .215	-.046
	(p=.223)		*(p=.266)*		*(p=.249)*		*(p=.253)*	
No college	.788	.068	.798	..069	1.069	.092	1.056	.091
	(p=.126)		*(p=.123)*		*(p=.054)*		*(p=.056)*	
Graduate degree	.136	.025	.170	.031	.193	.035	.183	.034
	(p=.336)		*(p=.300)*		*(p=.268)*		*(p=.279)*	
Manager	- .390	-.076	- .394	-.077	- .315	-.061	- .317	-.062
	(p=.135)		*(p=.133)*		*(p=.178)*		*(p=.176)*	
Years employed	.598	.128	.653	.139	.694	.148	.686	.146
	(p=.019)		*(p=.013)*		*(p=.007)*		*(p=.008)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.361	.076	.367	.077	.418	.088	.411	.087
	(p=.123)		*(p=.119)*		*(p=.081)*		*(p=.085)*	
SFR Unknown	.898	.123	.925	.127	.966	.132	.956	.131
	(p=.033)		*(p=.029)*		*(p=.020)*		*(p=.021)*	
Service Supports			.157	.063	.179	.072	.242	.098
			(p=.176)		*(p=.135)*		*(p=.117)*	
Supervisor Support					1.285	.272	1.408	.298
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Service x Supervisor Support							- .146	-.047
							(p=.304)	
Constant	12.614		12.512		11.877		11.854	
R^2	.069		.072		.145		.146	
p	.020		.025		.000		.000	

Table 6.4.1A: Regressions of Job Satisfaction and Progress on Service Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=288)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .086	-.020	- .138	-.033	- .107	-.025	- .152	-.036
	(p=.376)		*(p=.318)*		*(p=.384)*		*(p=.339)*	
Married	- .368	-.040	- .385	-.042	- .396	-.043	- .425	-.046
	(p=.254)		*(p=.245)*		*(p=.242)*		*(p=.226)*	
Income	- .429	-.101	- .409	-.096	- .419	-.099	- .422	-.099
	(p=.077)		*(p=.089)*		*(p=.090)*		*(p=.089)*	
No college	.064	.006	.068	.006	.063	.006	.016	.002
	(p=.460)		*(p=.457)*		*(p=.460)*		*(p=.490)*	
Graduate degree	.027	.006	.044	.009	.045	.009	.048	.010
	(p=.463)		*(p=.440)*		*(p=.439)*		*(p=.435)*	
Manager	.191	.041	.189	.041	.190	.041	.187	.040
	(p=.274)		*(p=.263)*		*(p=.276)*		*(p=.279)*	
Years employed	.201	.048	.227	.054	.228	.054	.233	.055
	(p=.219)		*(p=.196)*		*(p=.196)*		*(p=.190)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.310	.073	.313	.074	.314	.074	.320	.075
	(p=.136)		*(p=.134)*		*(p=.133)*		*(p=.129)*	
SFR Unknown	.895	.137	.908	.139	.901	.138	.849	.130
	(p=.022)		*(p=.020)*		*(p=.022)*		*(p=.030)*	
Service Supports			.073	.033	.077	.035	- .137	-.061
			(p=.316)		*(p=.310)*		*(p=.329)*	
Family Responsibility					- .055	-.013	- .190	-.044
					(p=.442)		*(p=.324)*	
Service x Family Responsibility							.285	.128
							(p=.213)	
Constant	9.073		9.023		9.053		9.166	
R^2	.032		.033		.033		.035	
p	.427		.501		.591		.619	

Table 6.4.2A: Regressions of Job Satisfaction and Progress on Service Supports. Co-worker Support. and Control Variables (N=288)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .086	-.020	- .138	-.033	- .141	-.033	- .188	-.045
	(p=.376)		*(p=.318)*		*(p=.313)*		*(p=.257)*	
Married	- .368	-.040	- .385	-.042	- .347	-.038	- .430	-.047
	(p=.254)		*(p=.245)*		*(p=.265)*		*(p=.217)*	
Income	- .429	-.101	- .409	-.096	- .378	-.089	- .398	-.093
	(p=.077)		*(p=.089)*		*(p=.105)*		*(p=.092)*	
No college	.064	.006	.068	.006	.166	.016	.249	.024
	(p=.460)		*(p=.457)*		*(p=.395)*		*(p=.344)*	
Graduate degree	.027	.006	.044	.009	.044	.009	.016	.003
	(p=.463)		*(p=.440)*		*(p=.439)*		*(p=.478)*	
Manager	.191	.041	.189	.041	.152	.033	.133	.029
	(p=.274)		*(p=.263)*		*(p=.315)*		*(p=.336)*	
Years employed	.201	.048	.227	.054	.245	.058	.273	.065
	(p=.219)		*(p=.196)*		*(p=.175)*		*(p=.148)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.310	.073	.313	.074	.331	.078	.358	.084
	(p=.136)		*(p=.134)*		*(p=.118)*		*(p=.099)*	
SFR Unknown	.895	.137	.908	.139	.919	.141	1.001	.153
	(p=.022)		*(p=.020)*		*(p=.018)*		*(p=.011)*	
Service Supports			.073	.033	.055	.025	.317	.142
			(p=.316)		*(p=.359)*		*(p=.050)*	
Co-worker Support					.653	.152	1.163	.270
					(p=.005)		*(p=.000)*	
Service x Co-worker Support							- .591	-.212
							(p=.014)	
Constant	9.073		9.023		8.720		8.594	
R^2	.032		.033		.055		.072	
p	.427		.501		.142		.053	

Table 6.4.3A: Regressions of Job Satisfaction and Progress on Service Supports. Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=288)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .086	-.020	- .138	-.033	- .201	-.048	- .198	-.047
	(p=.376)		*(p=.318)*		*(p=.234)*		*(p=.238)*	
Married	- .368	-.040	- .385	-.042	- .381	-.042	- .378	-.041
	(p=.254)		*(p=.245)*		*(p=.236)*		*(p=.239)*	
Income	- .429	-.101	- .409	-.096	- .388	-.091	- .388	-.091
	(p=.077)		*(p=.089)*		*(p=.090)*		*(p=.090)*	
No college	.064	.006	.068	.006	.347	.033	.351	.033
	(p=.460)		*(p=.457)*		*(p=.282)*		*(p=.280)*	
Graduate degree	.027	.006	.044	.009	.074	.015	.076	.016
	(p=.463)		*(p=.440)*		*(p=.395)*		*(p=.392)*	
Manager	.191	.041	.189	.041	.234	.051	.235	.051
	(p=.274)		*(p=.263)*		*(p=.219)*		*(p=.219)*	
Years employed	.201	.048	.227	.054	.289	.069	.291	.069
	(p=.219)		*(p=.196)*		*(p=.126)*		*(p=.125)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.310	.073	.313	.074	.366	.086	.368	.086
	(p=.136)		*(p=.134)*		*(p=.087)*		*(p=.086)*	
SFR Unknown	.895	.137	.908	.139	.969	.149	.972	.149
	(p=.022)		*(p=.020)*		*(p=.011)*		*(p=.011)*	
Service Supports			.073	.033	.093	.042	.076	.034
			(p=.316)		*(p=.260)*		*(p=.339)*	
Supervisor Support					1.332	.314	1.298	.306
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Service x Supervisor Support							.041	.015
							(p=.436)	
Constant	9.073		9.023		8.336		8.342	
R^2	.032		.033		.130		.130	
p	.427		.501		.000		.000	

Table 6.5.1A: Regressions of Work Hours and Schedule Satisfaction on Service Supports. Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=290)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.019	.006	.054	.018	.041	.013	.028	.009
	(p=.459)		*(p=.395)*		*(p=.436)*		*(p=.457)*	
Married	.073	.011	.084	.013	.089	.013	.081	.012
	(p=.426)		*(p=.415)*		*(p=.411)*		*(p=.419)*	
Income	- .591	-.192	- .605	-.197	- .601	-.195	- .601	-.195
	(p=.003)		*(p=.002)*		*(p=.003)*		*(p=.003)*	
No college	- .326	.043	- .329	-.043	- .326	-.043	- .339	-.044
	(p=.229)		*(p=.228)*		*(p=.230)*		*(p=.222)*	
Graduate degree	.246	.070	.234	.066	.234	.066	.235	.067
	(p=.113)		*(p=.127)*		*(p=.127)*		*(p=.127)*	
Manager	- .426	-.128	- .425	-.127	- .425	-.127	- .426	-.128
	(p=.028)		*(p=.028)*		*(p=.029)*		*(p=.029)*	
Years employed	.123	.040	.106	.035	.106	.035	.108	.035
	(p=.248)		*(p=.283)*		*(p=.283)*		*(p=.281)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.263	.085	.260	.084	.260	.084	.261	.085
	(p=.091)		*(p=.094)*		*(p=.095)*		*(p=.094)*	
SFR Unknown	.432	.091	.424	.089	.427	.090	.412	.087
	(p=.081)		*(p=.086)*		*(p=.086)*		*(p=.096)*	
Service Supports			- .049	-.030	- .050	-.031	- .110	-.068
			(p=.324)		*(p=.321)*		*(p=.306)*	
Family Responsibility					.024	.008	- .013	-.004
					(p=.463)		*(p=.481)*	
Service x Family Responsibility							.080	.049
							(p=.375)	
Constant	6.078		6.111		6.098		6.130	
R^2	.097		.098		.098		.098	
p	.001		.001		.002		.004	

Table 6.5.2A: Regressions of Work Hours and Schedule Satisfaction on Service Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=290)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.019	.006	.054	.018	.047	.015	.344	.011
	(p=.459)		*(p=.395)*		*(p=.404)*		*(p=.430)*	
Married	.073	.011	.084	.013	.134	.020	.113	.017
	(p=.426)		*(p=.415)*		*(p=.360)*		*(p=.382)*	
Income	- .591	-.192	- .605	-.197	- .563	-.183	- .570	-.185
	(p=.003)		*(p=.002)*		*(p=.003)*		*(p=.003)*	
No college	- .326	.043	- .329	-.043	- .200	-.026	- .179	-.023
	(p=.229)		*(p=.228)*		*(p=.318)*		*(p=.336)*	
Graduate degree	.246	.070	.234	.066	.241	.068	.232	.066
	(p=.113)		*(p=.127)*		*(p=.111)*		*(p=.120)*	
Manager	- .426	-.128	- .425	-.127	- .468	-.140	- .471	-.141
	(p=.028)		*(p=.028)*		*(p=.014)*		*(p=.014)*	
Years employed	.123	.040	.106	.035	.120	.039	.127	.042
	(p=.248)		*(p=.283)*		*(p=.249)*		*(p=.237)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.263	.085	.260	.084	.289	.093	.294	.095
	(p=.091)		*(p=.094)*		*(p=.064)*		*(p=.060)*	
SFR Unknown	.432	.091	.424	.089	.443	.093	.462	.097
	(p=.081)		*(p=.086)*		*(p=.068)*		*(p=.061)*	
Service Supports			- .049	-.030	- .070	-.043	- .007	-.004
			(p=.324)		*(p=.247)*		*(p=.480)*	
Co-worker Support					.864	.276	.989	.316
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Service x Co-worker Support							- .146	-.072
							(p=.213)	
Constant	6.078		6.111		5.710		5.682	
R^2	.097		.098		.173		.175	
p	.001		.001		.000		.000	

Table 6.5.3A: Regressions of Work Hours and Schedule Satisfaction on Service Supports. Supervisor Support. and Control Variables (N=290)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.019	.006	.054	.018	- .020	-.006	- .017	-.006
	(p=.459)		*(p=.395)*		*(p=.457)*		*(p=.463)*	
Married	.073	.011	.084	.013	.081	.012	.084	.013
	(p=.426)		*(p=.415)*		*(p=.409)*		*(p=.406)*	
Income	- .591	-.192	- .605	-.197	- .590	-.192	- .590	-.192
	(p=.003)		*(p=.002)*		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.001)*	
No college	- .326	.043	- .329	-.043	- .052	-.007	- .048	-.006
	(p=.229)		*(p=.228)*		*(p=.448)*		*(p=.452)*	
Graduate degree	.246	.070	.234	.066	.277	.078	.280	.079
	(p=.113)		*(p=.127)*		*(p=.067)*		*(p=.066)*	
Manager	- .426	-.128	- .425	-.127	- .384	-.115	- .384	-.115
	(p=.028)		*(p=.028)*		*(p=.028)*		*(p=.028)*	
Years employed	.123	.040	.106	.035	.155	.051	.157	.051
	(p=.248)		*(p=.283)*		*(p=.176)*		*(p=.173)*	
Supervisor Family	.263	.085	.260	.084	.309	.100	.311	.101
Responsibility (SFR)	*(p=.091)*		*(p=.094)*		*(p=.041)*		*(p=.040)*	
SFR Unknown	.432	.091	.424	.089	.481	.101	.484	.102
	(p=.081)		*(p=.086)*		*(p=.042)*		*(p=.042)*	
Service Supports			- .049	-.030	- .030	-.019	- .048	-.029
			(p=.324)		*(p=.377)*		*(p=.346)*	
Supervisor Support					1.294	.421	1.261	.410
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Service x Supervisor Support							.041	.020
							(p=.405)	
Constant	6.078		6.111		5.462		5.468	
R^2	.097		.098		.273		.273	
p	.001		.001		.000		.000	

Table 6.6.1A: Regressions of Work Role Conflict on Service Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=280)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	1.028	.185	.924	.167	.625	.113	.664	.120
	(p=.002)		*(p=.008)*		*(p=.096)*		*(p=.086)*	
Married	.819	.067	.789	.064	.887	.072	.908	.074
	(p=.136)		*(p=.145)*		*(p=.119)*		*(p=.115)*	
Income	.075	.013	.119	.021	.223	.040	.229	.041
	(p=.425)		*(p=.385)*		*(p=.296)*		*(p=.292)*	
No college	-1.007	-.071	-1.003	-.070	- .945	-.066	- .903	-.063
	(p=.120)		*(p=.121)*		*(p=.135)*		*(p=.148)*	
Graduate degree	- .207	-.032	- .173	-.027	- .176	-.027	- .178	-.028
	(p=.296)		*(p=.328)*		*(p=.325)*		*(p=.324)*	
Manager	.018	.003	.013	.002	.009	.001	.009	.001
	(p=.483)		*(p=.488)*		*(p=.492)*		*(p=.492)*	
Years employed	- .405	-.073	- .355	-.064	- .365	-.066	- .370	-.067
	(p=.119)		*(p=.156)*		*(p=.149)*		*(p=.146)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.148	.026	.153	.027	.146	.026	.141	.025
	(p=.346)		*(p=.342)*		*(p=.348)*		*(p=.354)*	
SFR Unknown	- .304	-.035	- .282	-.033	- .204	-.024	- .158	-.018
	(p=.302)		*(p=.316)*		*(p=.365)*		*(p=.396)*	
Service Supports			.144	.049	.113	.039	.296	.102
			(p=.237)		*(p=.288)*		*(p=.234)*	
Family Responsibility					.522	.092	.638	.113
					(p=.148)		*(p=.123)*	
Service x Family Responsibility							- .241	-.082
							(p=.303)	
Constant	8.688		6.273		8.304		8.209	
R^2	.056		.050		.061		.062	
p	.073		.094		.100		.131	

Table 6.6.2A: Regressions of Work Role Conflict on Service Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=280)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	1.028	.185	.924	.167	.946	.171	.922	.166
	(p=.002)		*(p=.008)*		*(p=.007)*		*(p=.008)*	
Married	.819	.067	.789	.064	.721	.059	.681	.055
	(p=.136)		*(p=.145)*		*(p=.165)*		*(p=.179)*	
Income	.075	.013	.119	.021	.090	.016	.082	.015
	(p=.425)		*(p=.385)*		*(p=.411)*		*(p=.419)*	
No college	-1.007	-.071	-1.003	-.070	-1.123	-.079	-1.082	-.076
	(p=.120)		*(p=.121)*		*(p=.093)*		*(p=.102)*	
Graduate degree	- .207	-.032	- .173	-.027	- .169	-.026	- .188	-.029
	(p=.296)		*(p=.328)*		*(p=.330)*		*(p=.313)*	
Manager	.018	.003	.013	.002	.029	.005	.017	.003
	(p=.483)		*(p=.488)*		*(p=.473)*		*(p=.483)*	
Years employed	- .405	-.073	- .355	-.064	- .368	-.066	- .353	-.064
	(p=.119)		*(p=.156)*		*(p=.144)*		*(p=.155)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.148	.026	.153	.027	.115	.021	.128	.023
	(p=.346)		*(p=.342)*		*(p=.378)*		*(p=.365)*	
SFR Unknown	- .304	-.035	- .282	-.033	- .304	-.035	- .261	-.030
	(p=.302)		*(p=.316)*		*(p=.300)*		*(p=.327)*	
Service Supports			.144	.049	.161	.055	.298	.102
			(p=.237)		*(p=.209)*		*(p=.120)*	
Co-worker Support					- .885	-.156	- .620	-.110
					(p=.004)		*(p=.086)*	
Service x Co-worker Support							- .306	-.084
							(p=.193)	
Constant	8.688		6.273		9.022		8.950	
R^2	.056		.050		.082		.084	
p	.073		.094		.016		.020	

Table 6.6.3A: Regressions of Work Role Conflict on Service Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=280)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	1.028	.185	.924	.167	1.018	.184	1.042	.188
	(p=.002)		*(p=.008)*		*(p=.003)*		*(p=.003)*	
Married	.819	.067	.789	.064	.753	.061	.780	.063
	(p=.136)		*(p=.145)*		*(p=.149)*		*(p=.140)*	
Income	.075	.013	.119	.021	.133	.024	.126	.022
	(p=.425)		*(p=.385)*		*(p=.368)*		*(p=.374)*	
No college	-1.007	-.071	-1.003	-.070	-1.273	-.089	-1.215	-.085
	(p=.120)		*(p=.121)*		*(p=.063)*		*(p=.072)*	
Graduate degree	- .207	-.032	- .173	-.027	- .195	-.030	- .164	-.026
	(p=.296)		*(p=.328)*		*(p=.302)*		*(p=.331)*	
Manager	.018	.003	.013	.002	- .079	-.013	- .074	-.012
	(p=.483)		*(p=.488)*		*(p=.424)*		*(p=.428)*	
Years employed	- .405	-.073	- .355	-.064	- .413	-.075	- .391	-.071
	(p=.119)		*(p=.156)*		*(p=.112)*		*(p=.125)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.148	.026	.153	.027	.094	.017	.114	.020
	(p=.346)		*(p=.342)*		*(p=.398)*		*(p=.376)*	
SFR Unknown	- .304	-.035	- .282	-.033	- .338	-.039	- .310	-.036
	(p=.302)		*(p=.316)*		*(p=.276)*		*(p=.292)*	
Service Supports			.144	.049	.116	.040	- .076	-.026
			(p=.237)		*(p=.276)*		*(p=.378)*	
Supervisor Support					-1.414	-.254	-1.781	-.320
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Service x Supervisor Support							.437	.119
							(p=.099)	
Constant	8.688		6.273		9.341		9.430	
R^2	.056		.050		.121		.127	
p	.073		.094		.000		.000	

Table 6.7.1A: Regressions of Marital Satisfaction on Service Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=251)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.053	.018	.060	.021	- .036	-.013	- .084	-.029
	(p=.388)		(p=.384)		(p=.443)		(p=.373)	
Income	- .530	-.185	- .533	-.185	- .499	-.174	- .505	-.176
	(p=.006)		(p=.006)		(p=.011)		(p=.010)	
No college	1.023	.140	1.023	.140	1.033	.141	.997	.136
	(p=.011)		(p=.011)		(p=.011)		(p=.014)	
Graduate degree	.389	.119	.387	.119	.388	.119	.390	.120
	(p=.025)		(p=.026)		(p=.027)		(p=.026)	
Manager	- .488	-.157	- .488	-.157	- .493	-.158	- .494	-.159
	(p=.013)		(p=.013)		(p=.012)		(p=.012)	
Years employed	- .095	-.033	- .098	-.034	- .099	-.035	- .099	-.035
	(p=.296)		(p=.294)		(p=.292)		(p=.292)	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.180	.062	.180	.062	.179	.062	.181	.062
	(p=.179)		(p=.181)		(p=.182)		(p=.179)	
SFR Unknown	.635	.144	.633	.143	.660	.149	.614	.139
	(p=.020)		(p=.021)		(p=.018)		(p=.027)	
Service Support			- .009	-.006	- .018	-.012	- .182	-.122
			(p=.466)		(p=.434)		(p=.183)	
Family Responsibility					.165	.057	.060	.021
					(p=.261)		(p=.416)	
Service x Family Responsibility							.225	.150
							(p=.174)	
Constant	6.338		6.346		6.286		6.359	
R^2	.136		.137		.138		.141	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.7.2A: Regressions of Marital Satisfaction on Service Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=251)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.053	.018	.060	.021	.045	.016	.063	.022
	(p=.388)		*(p=.384)*		*(p=.412)*		*(p=.378)*	
Income	- .530	-.185	- .533	-.185	- .528	-.184	- .516	-.179
	(p=.006)		*(p=.006)*		*(p=.006)*		*(p=.007)*	
No college	1.023	.140	1.023	.140	1.044	.142	1.017	.139
	(p=.011)		*(p=.011)*		*(p=.010)*		*(p=.012)*	
Graduate degree	.389	.119	.387	.119	.387	.119	.391	.120
	(p=.025)		*(p=.026)*		*(p=.026)*		*(p=.025)*	
Manager	- .488	-.157	- .488	-.157	- .495	-.159	- .488	-.157
	(p=.013)		*(p=.013)*		*(p=.011)*		*(p=.013)*	
Years employed	- .095	-.033	- .098	-.034	- .096	-.033	- .103	-.036
	(p=.296)		*(p=.294)*		*(p=.297)*		*(p=.285)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.180	.062	.180	.062	.203	.070	.199	.068
	(p=.179)		*(p=.181)*		*(p=.151)*		*(p=.156)*	
SFR Unknown	.635	.144	.633	.143	.630	.143	.618	.140
	(p=.020)		*(p=.021)*		*(p=.021)*		*(p=.023)*	
Service Support			- .009	-.006	- .013	-.008	- .078	-.052
			(p=.466)		*(p=.452)*		*(p=.277)*	
Co-worker Support					.332	.112	.198	.067
					(p=.032)		*(p=.205)*	
Service x Co-worker Support							.155	.080
							(p=.203)	
Constant	6.338		6.346		6.217		6.261	
R^2	.136		.137		.149		.151	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.7.3A: Regressions of Marital Satisfaction on Service Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=251)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.053	.018	.060	.021	- .018	-.006	- .016	-.005
	(p=.388)		*(p=.384)*		*(p=.465)*		*(p=.469)*	
Income	- .530	-.185	- .533	-.185	- .558	-.194	- .558	-.194
	(p=.006)		*(p=.006)*		*(p=.003)*		*(p=.004)*	
No college	1.023	.140	1.023	.140	1.121	.153	1.124	.153
	(p=.011)		*(p=.011)*		*(p=.005)*		*(p=.005)*	
Graduate degree	.389	.119	.387	.119	.405	.124	.406	.125
	(p=.025)		*(p=.026)*		*(p=.019)*		*(p=.019)*	
Manager	- .488	-.157	- .488	-.157	- .448	-.144	- .447	-.144
	(p=.013)		*(p=.013)*		*(p=.018)*		*(p=.018)*	
Years employed	- .095	-.033	- .098	-.034	- .064	-.022	- .062	-.022
	(p=.296)		*(p=.294)*		*(p=.358)*		*(p=.364)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.180	.062	.180	.062	.221	.076	.222	.076
	(p=.179)		*(p=.181)*		*(p=.126)*		*(p=.125)*	
SFR Unknown	.635	.144	.633	.143	.607	.137	.609	.138
	(p=.020)		*(p=.021)*		*(p=.023)*		*(p=.023)*	
Service Support			- .009	-.006	.009	.006	- .001	.000
			(p=.466)		*(p=.464)*		*(p=.497)*	
Supervisor Support					.637	.220	.615	.212
					(p=.000)		*(p=.004)*	
Service x Supervisor Support							.026	.013
							(p=.444)	
Constant	6.338		6.346		6.047		6.051	
R^2	.136		.137		.184		.184	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.8.1A: Regressions of Parental Satisfaction on Service Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=285)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .636	-.147	- .665	-.154	- .499	-.116	- .484	-.112
	(p=.010)		*(p=.013)*		*(p=.086)*		*(p=.096)*	
Married	.009	.000	.000	.000	- .060	-.006	- .051	-.005
	(p=.494)		*(p=.500)*		*(p=.458)*		*(p=.465)*	
Income	- .598	-.137	- .586	-.135	- .641	-.148	- .640	-.147
	(p=.026)		*(p=.030)*		*(p=.023)*		*(p=.023)*	
No college	.264	.025	.266	.025	.237	.022	.252	.024
	(p=.339)		*(p=.338)*		*(p=.355)*		*(p=.348)*	
Graduate degree	- .370	-.074	- .348	-.072	- .355	-.071	- .357	-.071
	(p=.107)		*(p=.117)*		*(p=.119)*		*(p=.119)*	
Manager	- .224	-.047	- .226	-.048	- .222	-.047	- .222	-.047
	(p=.247)		*(p=.245)*		*(p=.249)*		*(p=.250)*	
Years employed	.005	.001	.018	.004	.021	.005	.020	.005
	(p=.493)		*(p=.473)*		*(p=.469)*		*(p=.471)*	
Supervisor Family	.122	.028	.122	.028	.128	.029	.127	.029
Responsibility (SFR)	*(p=.336)*		*(p=.349)*		*(p=.329)*		*(p=.331)*	
SFR Unknown	.218	.033	.224	.034	.184	.028	.201	.030
	(p=.313)		*(p=.310)*		*(p=.342)*		*(p=.331)*	
Service Supports			.041	.018	.062	.027	.128	.055
			(p=.398)		*(p=.350)*		*(p=.343)*	
Family Responsibility					- .299	-.068	- .256	-.058
					(p=.216)		*(p=.270)*	
Service x Family							- .089	-.038
Responsibility							*(p=.404)*	
Constant	13.968		13.943		14.104		14.069	
R^2	.052		.052		.054		.055	
p	.095		.135		.160		.213	

Table 6.8.2A: Regressions of Parental Satisfaction on Service Supports. Co-worker Support. and Control Variables (N=285)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .615	-.143	- .652	-.151	- .668	-.155	- .672	-.156
	(p=.012)		*(p=.014)*		*(p=.011)*		*(p=.011)*	
Married	.009	.001	- .002	.000	.059	.006	.052	.006
	(p=.493)		*(p=.499)*		*(p=.458)*		*(p=.463)*	
Income	- .580	-.133	- .566	-.130	- .523	-.125	- .544	-.125
	(p=.030)		*(p=.035)*		*(p=.038)*		*(p=.038)*	
No college	.273	.025	.276	.026	.394	.037	.400	.037
	(p=.334)		*(p=.333)*		*(p=.265)*		*(p=.262)*	
Graduate degree	- .361	-.072	- .347	-.069	- .356	-.071	- .357	-.071
	(p=.112)		*(p=.124)*		*(p=.114)*		*(p=.114)*	
Manager	- .219	-.046	- .222	-.047	- .255	-.054	- .256	-.054
	(p=.251)		*(p=.249)*		*(p=.214)*		*(p=.213)*	
Years employed	.024	.005	.040	.009	.054	.013	.056	.013
	(p=.464)		*(p=.441)*		*(p=.420)*		*(p=.417)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.112	.026	.112	.026	.146	.034	.147	.034
	(p=.349)		*(p=.349)*		*(p=.303)*		*(p=.302)*	
SFR Unknown	.224	.034	.230	.035	.230	.035	.236	.036
	(p=.309)		*(p=.304)*		*(p=.301)*		*(p=.297)*	
Service Supports			.050	.022	.012	.005	.033	.014
			(p=.375)		*(p=.469)*		*(p=.434)*	
Co-worker Support					.879	.199	.918	.208
					(p=.000)		*(p=.004)*	
Service x Co-worker Support							- .046	-.016
							(p=.434)	
Constant	13.935		13.904		13.524		13.515	
R^2	.050		.050		.091		.091	
p	.095		.135		.005		.009	

Table 6.8.3A: Regressions of Parental Satisfaction on Service Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=285)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .615	-.143	- .652	-.151	- .734	-.170	- .725	-.168
	(p=.012)		*(p=.014)*		*(p=.005)*		*(p=.006)*	
Married	.009	.001	- .002	.000	.004	.000	.019	.002
	(p=.493)		*(p=.499)*		*(p=.497)*		*(p=.486)*	
Income	- .580	-.133	- .566	-.130	- .576	-.132	- .577	-.133
	(p=.030)		*(p=.035)*		*(p=.028)*		*(p=.028)*	
No college	.273	.025	.276	.026	.510	.048	.530	.049
	(p=.334)		*(p=.335)*		*(p=.204)*		*(p=.195)*	
Graduate degree	- .361	-.072	- .347	-.069	- .302	-.060	- .286	-.057
	(p=.112)		*(p=.124)*		*(p=.149)*		*(p=.163)*	
Manager	- .219	-.046	- .222	-.047	- .173	-.037	- .174	-.037
	(p=.251)		*(p=.249)*		*(p=.292)*		*(p=.291)*	
Years employed	.024	.005	.040	.009	.084	.019	.094	.022
	(p=.464)		*(p=.441)*		*(p=.374)*		*(p=.360)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.112	.026	.112	.026	.146	.034	.153	.035
	(p=.349)		*(p=.349)*		*(p=.300)*		*(p=.292)*	
SFR Unknown	.224	.034	.230	.035	.251	.038	.262	.039
	(p=.309)		*(p=.304)*		*(p=.281)*		*(p=.273)*	
Service Supports			.050	.022	.067	.029	- .013	-.006
			(p=.375)		*(p=.331)*		*(p=.472)*	
Supervisor Support					1.153	.266	.990	.228
					(p=.000)		*(p=.002)*	
Service x Supervisor Support							.198	.066
							(p=.231)	
Constant	13.935		13.904		13.355		13.386	
R^2	.050		.050		.122		.123	
p	.095		.135		.000		.000	

Table 6.9.1A: Regressions of Family Free-Time Conflict on Service Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=287)

	Equation 1 b	Equation 1 Beta	Equation 2 b	Equation 2 Beta	Equation 3 b	Equation 3 Beta	Equation 4 b	Equation 4 Beta
Female	.403	.129	.445	.143	.518	.166	.521	.167
	(p=.014)		*(p=.013)*		*(p=.019)*		*(p=.020)*	
Married	.333	.048	.345	.049	.320	.046	.322	.046
	(p=.197)		*(p=.189)*		*(p=.208)*		*(p=.208)*	
Income	.832	.265	.817	.260	.792	.252	.792	.252
	(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*	
No college	- .442	-.057	- .446	-.057	- .458	-.059	- .454	-.059
	(p=.151)		*(p=.149)*		*(p=.143)*		*(p=.147)*	
Graduate degree	- .060	-.017	- .072	-.020	- .074	-.020	- .074	-.020
	(p=.382)		*(p=.360)*		*(p=.358)*		*(p=.358)*	
Manager	.482	.142	.483	.142	.485	.142	.485	.142
	(p=.014)		*(p=.014)*		*(p=.013)*		*(p=.013)*	
Years employed	- .324	-.104	- .343	-.110	- .341	-.110	- .342	-.110
	(p=.034)		*(p=.029)*		*(p=.030)*		*(p=.030)*	
Supervisor Responsibility (SFR)	- .101	-.032	- .102	-.033	- .100	-.032	- .100	-.032
	(p=.300)		*(p=.297)*		*(p=.302)*		*(p=.301)*	
SFR Unknown	- .482	-.100	- .491	-.102	- .507	-.105	- .503	-.105
	(p=.055)		*(p=.052)*		*(p=.048)*		*(p=.051)*	
Service Supports			- .058	-.035	- .050	-.030	- .035	-.021
			(p=.289)		*(p=.320)*		*(p=.435)*	
Family Responsibility					- .126	-.040	- .116	-.037
					(p=.314)		*(p=.341)*	
Service x Family Responsibility							- .020	-.012
							(p=.468)	
Constant	4.954		4.993		5.059		5.051	
R^2	.178		.179		.180		.180	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.9.2A: Regressions of Family Free-Time Conflict on Service Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=287)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.403	.129	.445	.143	.461	.148	.437	.140
	(p=.014)		*(p=.013)*		*(p=.010)*		*(p=.013)*	
Married	.333	.048	.345	.049	.301	.043	.268	.038
	(p=.197)		*(p=.189)*		*(p=.217)*		*(p=.243)*	
Income	.832	.265	.817	.260	.793	.252	.784	.250
	(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*	
No college	- .442	-.057	- .446	-.057	- .530	-.068	- .492	-.063
	(p=.151)		*(p=.149)*		*(p=.105)*		*(p=.122)*	
Graduate degree	- .060	-.017	- .072	-.020	- .069	-.019	- .082	-.023
	(p=.382)		*(p=.360)*		*(p=.363)*		*(p=.339)*	
Manager	.482	.142	.483	.142	.505	.148	.495	.146
	(p=.014)		*(p=.014)*		*(p=.009)*		*(p=.010)*	
Years employed	- .324	-.104	- .343	-.110	- .346	-.111	- .336	-.108
	(p=.034)		*(p=.029)*		*(p=.026)*		*(p=.030)*	
Supervisor Responsibility (SFR)	- .101	-.032	- .102	-.033	- .120	-.038	- .108	-.034
	(p=.300)		*(p=.297)*		*(p=.263)*		*(p=.283)*	
SFR Unknown	- .482	-.100	- .491	-.102	- .501	-.104	- .466	-.097
	(p=.055)		*(p=.052)*		*(p=.046)*		*(p=.058)*	
Service Supports			- .058	-.035	- .044	-.027	.071	.043
			(p=.289)		*(p=.334)*		*(p=.293)*	
Co-worker Support					- .563	-.177	- .337	-.106
					(p=.001)		*(p=.075)*	
Service x Co-worker Support							- .026	-.127
							(p=.077)	
Constant	4.954		4.993		5.254		5.197	
R^2	.178		.179		.210		.216	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.9.3A: Regressions of Family Free-Time Conflict on Service Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=287)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.403	.129	.445	.143	.501	.161	.507	.163
	(p=.014)		*(p=.013)*		*(p=.005)*		*(p=.005)*	
Married	.333	.048	.345	.049	.330	.047	.335	.048
	(p=.197)		*(p=.189)*		*(p=.192)*		*(p=.189)*	
Income	.832	.265	.817	.260	.814	.259	.813	.259
	(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*	
No college	- .442	-.057	- .446	-.057	- .598	-.077	- .590	-.076
	(p=.151)		*(p=.149)*		*(p=.076)*		*(p=.079)*	
Graduate degree	- .060	-.017	- .072	-.020	- .085	-.023	- .080	-.022
	(p=.382)		*(p=.360)*		*(p=.332)*		*(p=.342)*	
Manager	.482	.142	.483	.142	.451	.132	.452	.133
	(p=.014)		*(p=.014)*		*(p=.017)*		*(p=.017)*	
Years employed	- .324	-.104	- .343	-.110	- .362	-.116	- .356	-.115
	(p=.034)		*(p=.029)*		*(p=.020)*		*(p=.022)*	
Supervisor	- .101	-.032	- .102	-.033	- .127	-.040	- .123	-.039
Responsibility (SFR)	*(p=.300)*		*(p=.297)*		*(p=.248)*		*(p=.255)*	
SFR Unknown	- .482	-.100	- .491	-.102	- .520	-.108	- .515	-.107
	(p=.055)		*(p=.052)*		*(p=.038)*		*(p=.040)*	
Service Supports			- .058	-.035	- .069	-.042	- .106	-.064
			(p=.289)		*(p=.247)*		*(p=.203)*	
Supervisor Support					- .710	-.227	- .781	-.249
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Service x Supervisor							.084	-.041
Support							*(p=.317)*	
Constant	4.954		4.993		5.351		5.366	
R^2	.178		.179		.230		.230	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.10.1A: Regressions of Family Scheduling Conflict on Service Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=283)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .060	-.013	- .048	-.010	.237	.050	.198	.041
	(p=.421)		*(p=.443)*		*(p=.280)*		*(p=.316)*	
Married	- .027	-.003	- .023	-.002	- .121	-.012	- .144	-.014
	(p=.483)		*(p=.485)*		*(p=.423)*		*(p=.410)*	
Income	.731	.152	.726	.151	.634	.132	.632	.131
	(p=.014)		*(p=.016)*		*(p=.033)*		*(p=.034)*	
No college	.399	.034	.398	.034	.349	.030	.315	.027
	(p=.284)		*(p=.285)*		*(p=.309)*		*(p=.327)*	
Graduate degree	.127	.023	.123	.022	.125	.023	.130	.024
	(p=.349)		*(p=.355)*		*(p=.352)*		*(p=.347)*	
Manager	.517	.099	.517	.099	.527	.101	.524	.100
	(p=.073)		*(p=.073)*		*(p=.069)*		*(p=.070)*	
Years employed	.058	.012	.052	.011	.058	.012	.064	.013
	(p=.422)		*(p=.431)*		*(p=.422)*		*(p=.415)*	
Supervisor Responsibility (SFR)	- .646	-.134	- .647	-.134	- .629	-.130	- .626	-.129
	(p=.022)		*(p=.022)*		*(p=.025)*		*(p=.026)*	
SFR Unknown	- .843	-.115	- .846	-.115	- .906	-.124	- .946	-.129
	(p=.044)		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.035)*		*(p=.031)*	
Service Supports			- .017	-.006	.016	.006	- .141	-.055
			(p=.462)		*(p=.463)*		*(p=.342)*	
Family Responsibility					- .503	-.104	- .602	-.124
					(p=.115)		*(p=.095)*	
Service x Family Responsibility							.213	.083
							(p=.299)	
Constant	7.366		7.377		7.639		7.722	
R^2	.067		.067		.072		.073	
p	.023		.037		.037		.051	

Table 6.10.2A: Regressions of Family Scheduling Conflict on Service Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=283)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .060	-.013	- .048	-.010	- .032	-.007	.002	.000
	(p=.421)		*(p=.443)*		*(p=.461)*		*(p=.497)*	
Married	- .027	-.003	- .023	-.002	- .086	-.008	- .039	-.004
	(p=.483)		*(p=.485)*		*(p=.443)*		*(p=.474)*	
Income	.731	.152	.726	.151	.676	.140	.690	.143
	(p=.014)		*(p=.016)*		*(p=.020)*		*(p=.018)*	
No college	.399	.034	.398	.034	.223	.019	.180	.015
	(p=.284)		*(p=.285)*		*(p=.372)*		*(p=.396)*	
Graduate degree	.127	.023	.123	.022	.121	.022	.134	.024
	(p=.349)		*(p=.355)*		*(p=.353)*		*(p=.337)*	
Manager	.517	.099	.517	.099	.550	.105	.562	.107
	(p=.073)		*(p=.073)*		*(p=.056)*		*(p=.052)*	
Years employed	.058	.012	.052	.011	.020	.004	.008	.002
	(p=.422)		*(p=.431)*		*(p=.473)*		*(p=.489)*	
Supervisor Responsibility (SFR)	- .646	-.134	- .647	-.134	- .679	-.140	- .689	-.142
	(p=.022)		*(p=.022)*		*(p=.015)*		*(p=.014)*	
SFR Unknown	- .843	-.115	- .846	-.115	- .860	-.117	- .899	-.123
	(p=.044)		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.038)*		*(p=.032)*	
Service Supports			- .017	-.006	.027	.011	- .123	-.048
			(p=.462)		*(p=.436)*		*(p=.289)*	
Co-worker Support					-1.137	-.233	-1.416	-.290
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Service x Co-worker Support							.326	.104
							(p=.140)	
Constant	7.366		7.377		7.896		7.955	
R^2	.067		.067		.121		.125	
p	.023		.037		.000		.000	

Table 6.10.3A: Regressions of Family Scheduling Conflict on Service Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=283)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .060	-.013	- .048	-.010	.085	.018	.108	.023
	(p=.421)		*(p=.443)*		*(p=.392)*		*(p=.363)*	
Married	- .027	-.003	- .023	-.002	- .005	.000	.017	.002
	(p=.483)		*(p=.485)*		*(p=.496)*		*(p=.488)*	
Income	.731	.152	.726	.151	.700	.146	.698	.145
	(p=.014)		*(p=.016)*		*(p=.013)*		*(p=.014)*	
No college	.399	.034	.398	.034	.016	.001	.045	.004
	(p=.284)		*(p=.285)*		*(p=.490)*		*(p=.473)*	
Graduate degree	.127	.023	.123	.022	.058	.010	.070	.013
	(p=.349)		*(p=.355)*		*(p=.426)*		*(p=.410)*	
Manager	.517	.099	.517	.099	.420	.080	.424	.081
	(p=.073)		*(p=.073)*		*(p=.103)*		*(p=.101)*	
Years employed	.058	.012	.052	.011	- .057	-.012	- .042	-.009
	(p=.422)		*(p=.431)*		*(p=.419)*		*(p=.441)*	
Supervisor	- .646	-.134	- .647	-.134	- .731	-.151	- .717	-.148
Responsibility (SFR)	*(p=.022)*		*(p=.022)*		*(p=.008)*		*(p=.009)*	
SFR Unknown	- .843	-.115	- .846	-.115	- .930	-.127	- .910	-.124
	(p=.044)		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.023)*		*(p=.025)*	
Service Supports			- .017	-.006	- .038	-.015	- .163	-.064
			(p=.462)		*(p=.408)*		*(p=.218)*	
Supervisor Support					-1.685	-.352	-1.910	-.398
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Service x Supervisor							.273	.086
Support							*(p=.169)*	
Constant	7.366		7.377		8.259		8.301	
R^2	.067		.067		.188		.191	
p	.023		.037		.000		.000	

Table 6.11.1A: Regressions of Dependability on Flexibility Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=402)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .518	-.137	- .436	-.116	- .277	-.073	- .108	-.029
	(p=.004)		*(p=.015)*		*(p=.129)*		*(p=.333)*	
Married	.025	.004	.082	.012	.027	.004	.093	.014
	(p=.470)		*(p=.403)*		*(p=.468)*		*(p=.392)*	
Income	.440	.117	.501	.134	.456	.121	.416	.111
	(p=.021)		*(p=.010)*		*(p=.019)*		*(p=.029)*	
No college	.326	.032	.385	.038	.369	.036	.422	.041
	(p=.259)		*(p=.222)*		*(p=.232)*		*(p=.200)*	
Graduate degree	- .048	-.011	- .028	-.006	- .028	-.006	- .066	-.015
	(p=.412)		*(p=.449)*		*(p=.449)*		*(p=.380)*	
Manager	.333	.084	.299	.075	.296	.074	.296	.074
	(p=.067)		*(p=.089)*		*(p=.091)*		*(p=.089)*	
Years employed	.155	.041	.133	.035	.125	.033	.039	.010
	(p=.206)		*(p=.240)*		*(p=.254)*		*(p=.419)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.127	.033	.135	.036	.132	.035	.100	.026
	(p=.274)		*(p=.260)*		*(p=.265)*		*(p=.316)*	
SFR Unknown	.095	.017	.116	.021	.098	.017	.075	.013
	(p=.382)		*(p=.356)*		*(p=.378)*		*(p=.405)*	
Flexibility Supports			- .218	-.109	- .211	-.105	- .199	-.099
			(p=.016)		*(p=.019)*		*(p=.024)*	
Family Responsibility					- .281	-. 074	- .074	-.019
					(p=.131)		*(p=.389)*	
Flexibility x Family Responsibility							- .338	-.157
							(p=.006)	
Constant	7.502		7.626		7.796		7.810	
R^2	.061		.072		.075		.090	
p	.003		.001		.001		.000	

Table 6.11.2A: Regressions of Dependability on Flexibility Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=402)

	Equation 1 b	Equation 1 Beta	Equation 2 b	Equation 2 Beta	Equation 3 b	Equation 3 Beta	Equation 4 b	Equation 4 Beta
Female	- .518	-.137	- .436	-.116	- .437	-.116	- .437	-.116
	(p=.004)		*(p=.015)*		*(p=.015)*		*(p=.015)*	
Married	.025	.004	.082	.012	.079	.012	.104	.015
	(p=.470)		*(p=.403)*		*(p=.407)*		*(p=.379)*	
Income	.440	.117	.501	.134	.501	.133	.506	.135
	(p=.021)		*(p=.010)*		*(p=.011)*		*(p=.010)*	
No college	.326	.032	.385	.038	.382	.037	.403	.039
	(p=.259)		*(p=.222)*		*(p=.224)*		*(p=.212)*	
Graduate degree	- .048	-.011	- .028	-.006	- .030	-.007	- .027	-.006
	(p=.412)		*(p=.449)*		*(p=.445)*		*(p=.450)*	
Manager	.333	.084	.299	.075	.300	.075	.300	.075
	(p=.067)		*(p=.089)*		*(p=.089)*		*(p=.088)*	
Years employed	.155	.041	.133	.035	.133	.036	.137	.037
	(p=.206)		*(p=.240)*		*(p=.240)*		*(p=.234)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.127	.033	.135	.036	.135	.035	.140	.037
	(p=.274)		*(p=.260)*		*(p=.261)*		*(p=.253)*	
SFR Unknown	.095	.017	.116	.021	.114	.020	.118	.021
	(p=.382)		*(p=.356)*		*(p=.358)*		*(p=.354)*	
Flexibility Supports			- .218	-.109	- .214	-.107	- .302	-.151
			(p=.016)		*(p=.019)*		*(p=.012)*	
Co-worker Support					- .028	-. 007	- .272	-.071
					(p=.443)		*(p=.186)*	
Flexibility x Co-worker Support							- .212	-.098
							(p=.150)	
Constant	7.502		7.626		7.638		7.686	
R^2	.061		.072		.072		.075	
p	.003		.001		.002		.002	

Table 6.11.3A: Regressions of Dependability on Flexibility Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=402)

	Equation 1 b	Equation 1 Beta	Equation 2 b	Equation 2 Beta	Equation 3 b	Equation 3 Beta	Equation 4 b	Equation 4 Beta
Female	- .518	-.137	- .436	-.116	- .436	-.116	- .427	-.113
	(p=.004)		*(p=.015)*		*(p=.015)*		*(p=.017)*	
Married	.025	.004	.082	.012	.083	.012	.055	.008
	(p=.470)		*(p=.403)*		*(p=.403)*		*(p=.435)*	
Income	.440	.117	.501	.134	.502	.134	.506	.135
	(p=.021)		*(p=.010)*		*(p=.010)*		*(p=.010)*	
No college	.326	.032	.385	.038	.385	.038	.398	.039
	(p=.259)		*(p=.222)*		*(p=.222)*		*(p=.215)*	
Graduate degree	- .048	-.011	- .028	-.006	- .028	-.006	- .015	-.003
	(p=.412)		*(p=.449)*		*(p=.449)*		*(p=.473)*	
Manager	.333	.084	.299	.075	.299	.075	.274	.069
	(p=.067)		*(p=.089)*		*(p=.089)*		*(p=.109)*	
Years employed	.155	.041	.133	.035	.133	.035	.119	.032
	(p=.206)		*(p=.240)*		*(p=.241)*		*(p=.264)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.127	.033	.135	.036	.135	.036	.120	.032
	(p=.274)		*(p=.260)*		*(p=.260)*		*(p=.284)*	
SFR Unknown	.095	.017	.116	.021	.116	.021	.080	.014
	(p=.382)		*(p=.356)*		*(p=.356)*		*(p=.399)*	
Flexibility Supports			- .218	-.109	- .218	-.109	- .083	-.042
			(p=.016)		*(p=.018)*		*(p=.272)*	
Supervisor Support					.006	.002	.350	.093
					(p=.487)		*(p=.119)*	
Flexibility x Supervisor Support							- .307	-.146
							(p=.066)	
Constant	7.502		7.626		7.623		7.547	
R^2	.061		.072		.072		.078	
p	.003		.001		.002		.002	

Table 6.12.1A: Regressions of Job Performance on Flexibility Supports. Family Responsibility. and Control Variables (N=400)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .019	-.004	.081	.017	.427	.088	.440	.091
	(p=.469)		*(p=.377)*		*(p=.089)*		*(p=.082)*	
Married	- .286	-.034	- .223	-.026	- .341	-.040	- .327	-.039
	(p=.253)		*(p=.302)*		*(p=.216)*		*(p=.226)*	
Income	.414	.280	.484	.101	.386	.080	.360	.075
	(p=.070)		*(p=043)*		*(p=.088)*		*(p=.106)*	
No college	- .074	-.006	- .011	.000	- .046	-.004	- .103	-.008
	(p=.455)		*(p=.494)*		*(p=.472)*		*(p=.438)*	
Graduate degree	.255	.045	.274	.048	.281	.050	.274	.048
	(p=.186)		*(p=.168)*		*(p=.161)*		*(p=.168)*	
Manager	.534	.105	.498	.097	.488	.095	.492	.096
	(p=.033)		*(p=.043)*		*(p=.046)*		*(p=.045)*	
Years employed	.266	.055	.242	.051	.222	.046	.228	.048
	(p=.140)		*(p=.162)*		*(p=.182)*		*(p=.176)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	- .190	-.039	- .183	-.038	- .189	-.039	- .174	-.036
	(p=.243)		*(p=.251)*		*(p=.243)*		*(p=.261)*	
SFR Unknown	- .104	-.014	- .087	-.012	- .129	-.018	- .100	-.014
	(p=.400)		*(p=.415)*		*(p=.376)*		*(p=.404)*	
Flexibility Supports			- .249	-.099	- .235	-.093	- .116	-.046
			(p=.027)		*(p=.034)*		*(p=.296)*	
Family Responsibility					- .619	-.127	- .443	-.091
					(p=.028)		*(p=.143)*	
Flexibility x Family Responsibility							- .183	-.073
							(p=.249)	
Constant	15.734		15.878		16.252		16.130	
R^2	.032		.041		.050		.051	
p	.171		.085		.042		.056	

Table 6.12.2A: Regressions of Job Performance on Flexibility Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=400)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .019	-.004	.081	.017	.080	.017	.082	.017
	(p=.469)		*(p=.377)*		*(p=.379)*		*(p=.377)*	
Married	- .286	-.034	- .223	-.026	- .225	-.027	- .253	-.030
	(p=.253)		*(p=.302)*		*(p=.301)*		*(p=.280)*	
Income	.414	.280	.484	.101	.483	.101	.482	.100
	(p=.070)		*(p=043)*		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.044)*	
No college	- .074	-.006	- .011	.000	- .012	.000	- .036	-.003
	(p=.455)		*(p=.494)*		*(p=.492)*		*(p=.478)*	
Graduate degree	.255	.045	.274	.048	.273	.048	.269	.048
	(p=.186)		*(p=.168)*		*(p=.170)*		*(p=.173)*	
Manager	.534	.105	.498	.097	.498	.098	.496	.097
	(p=.033)		*(p=.043)*		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.044)*	
Years employed	.266	.055	.242	.051	.242	.051	.239	.050
	(p=.140)		*(p=.162)*		*(p=.162)*		*(p=.165)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	- .190	-.039	- .183	-.038	- .183	-.038	- .183	-.038
	(p=.243)		*(p=.251)*		*(p=.251)*		*(p=.251)*	
SFR Unknown	- .104	-.014	- .087	-.012	- .088	-.012	- .084	-.012
	(p=.400)		*(p=.415)*		*(p=.414)*		*(p=.418)*	
Flexibility Supports			- .249	-.099	- .247	-.098	- .139	-.055
			(p=.027)		*(p=.031)*		*(p=.205)*	
Co-worker Support					- .023	-.005	.287	.058
					(p=.463)		*(p=.233)*	
Flexibility x Co-worker Support							- .268	-.097
							(p=.153)	
Constant	15.734		15.878		15.888		15.816	
R^2	.032		.041		.041		.044	
p	.171		.085		.121		.129	

Table 6.12.3A: Regressions of Job Performance on Flexibility Supports. Supervisor Support. and Control Variables (N=400)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .019	-.004	.081	.017	.090	.019	.089	.019
	(p=.469)		*(p=.377)*		*(p=.364)*		*(p=.366)*	
Married	- .286	-.034	- .223	-.026	- .200	-.024	- .195	-.023
	(p=.253)		*(p=.302)*		*(p=.321)*		*(p=.326)*	
Income	.414	.280	.484	.101	.498	.104	.497	.104
	(p=.070)		*(p=043)*		*(p=.039)*		*(p=.039)*	
No college	- .074	-.006	- .011	.000	.030	.002	.027	.002
	(p=.455)		*(p=.494)*		*(p=.482)*		*(p=.484)*	
Graduate degree	.255	.045	.274	.048	.286	.050	.283	.050
	(p=.186)		*(p=.168)*		*(p=.157)*		*(p=.160)*	
Manager	.534	.105	.498	.097	.486	.095	.492	.096
	(p=.033)		*(p=.043)*		*(p=.047)*		*(p=.046)*	
Years employed	.266	.055	.242	.051	.242	.050	.244	.051
	(p=.140)		*(p=.162)*		*(p=.162)*		*(p=.160)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	- .190	-.039	- .183	-.038	- .185	-.038	- .180	-.037
	(p=.243)		*(p=.251)*		*(p=.248)*		*(p=.255)*	
SFR Unknown	- .104	-.014	- .087	-.012	- .078	-.011	- .068	-.010
	(p=.400)		*(p=.415)*		*(p=.424)*		*(p=.433)*	
Flexibility Supports			- .249	-.099	- .289	-.115	- .322	-.128
			(p=.027)		*(p=.015)*		*(p=.035)*	
Supervisor Support					.318	.066	.233	.048
					(p=.099)		*(p=.272)*	
Flexibility x Supervisor Support							.075	.028
							(p=.387)	
Constant	15.734		15.878		15.749		15.769	
R^2	.032		.041		.045		.046	
p	.171		.085		.077		.108	

Table 6.13.1A: Regressions of Organization Commitment on Flexibility Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=398)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.678	.147	.730	.159	.614	.133	.619	.134
	(p=.002)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.020)*		*(p=.020)*	
Married	- .466	-.058	- .435	-.054	- .397	-.049	- .394	-.049
	(p=.124)		*(p=.141)*		*(p=.165)*		*(p=.168)*	
Income	- .159	-.035	- .120	-.026	- .088	-.019	- .095	-.021
	(p=.273)		*(p=.325)*		*(p=.372)*		*(p=.363)*	
No college	.685	.055	.722	.058	.734	.059	.718	.058
	(p=.132)		*(p=.120)*		*(p=.116)*		*(p=.123)*	
Graduate degree	.142	.026	.156	.029	.155	.029	.152	.028
	(p=.297)		*(p=.280)*		*(p=.281)*		*(p=.285)*	
Manager	- .186	-.038	- .207	-.042	- .200	-.041	- .200	-.041
	(p=.249)		*(p=.226)*		*(p=.233)*		*(p=.234)*	
Years employed	.552	.121	.538	.118	.541	.118	.544	.119
	(p=.009)		*(p=.010)*		*(p=.010)*		*(p=.010)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.427	.092	.425	.092	.429	.093	.432	.093
	(p=.048)		*(p=.048)*		*(p=.047)*		*(p=.046)*	
SFR Unknown	1.152	.167	1.157	.168	1.71	.170	1.180	.171
	(p=.001)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.001)*	
Flexibility Supports			- .135	-..056	- .139	-.057	- .104	-.043
			(p=.134)		*(p=.128)*		*(p=.307)*	
Family Responsibility					.203	.044	.254	.054
					(p=.255)		*(p=.259)*	
Flexibility x Family Responsibility							- .053	-.022
							(p=.417)	
Constant	13.204		13.288		13.165		13.130	
R^2	.072		.075		.076		.076	
p	.001		.001		.001		.002	

Table 6.13.2A: Regressions of Organization Commitment on Flexibility Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=398)

	Equation 1 b	Equation 1 Beta	Equation 2 b	Equation 2 Beta	Equation 3 b	Equation 3 Beta	Equation 4 b	Equation 4 Beta
Female	.678	.147	.730	.159	.775	.168	.782	.170
	(p=.002)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.006)*	
Married	- .466	-.058	- .435	-.054	- .334	-.041	- .362	-.045
	(p=.124)		*(p=.141)*		*(p=.199)*		*(p=.181)*	
Income	- .159	-.035	- .120	-.026	- .095	-.021	- .101	-.022
	(p=.273)		*(p=.325)*		*(p=.356)*		*(p=.348)*	
No college	.685	.055	.722	.058	.803	.065	.776	.062
	(p=.132)		*(p=.120)*		*(p=.091)*		*(p=.098)*	
Graduate degree	.142	.026	.156	.029	.228	.042	.226	.042
	(p=.297)		*(p=.280)*		*(p=.191)*		*(p=.193)*	
Manager	- .186	-.038	- .207	-.042	- .199	-.040	- .197	-.040
	(p=.249)		*(p=.226)*		*(p=.230)*		*(p=.231)*	
Years employed	.552	.121	.538	.118	.531	.116	.523	.114
	(p=.009)		*(p=.010)*		*(p=.010)*		*(p=.010)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.427	.092	.425	.092	.437	.094	.434	.094
	(p=.048)		*(p=.048)*		*(p=.040)*		*(p=.041)*	
SFR Unknown	1.152	.167	1.157	.168	1.204	.175	1.210	.175
	(p=.001)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.001)*	
Flexibility Supports			- .135	-..056	- .248	-.103	- .129	-.053
			(p=.134)		*(p=.021)*		*(p=.205)*	
Co-worker Support					1.002	.214	1.336	.285
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Flexibility x Co-worker Support							- .291	-.111
							(p=.114)	
Constant	13.204		13.288		12.863		12.785	
R^2	.072		.075		.118		.121	
p	.001		.001		.000		.000	

Table 6.13.3A: Regressions of Organization Commitment on Flexibility Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=398)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.678	.147	.730	.159	.773	.168	.780	.170
	(p=.002)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.000)*	
Married	- .466	-.058	- .435	-.054	- .344	-.043	- .363	-.045
	(p=.124)		*(p=.141)*		*(p=.188)*		*(p=.176)*	
Income	- .159	-.035	- .120	-.026	- .105	-.023	- .104	-.022
	(p=.273)		*(p=.325)*		*(p=.341)*		*(p=.342)*	
No college	.685	.055	.722	.058	.894	.072	.906	.073
	(p=.132)		*(p=.120)*		*(p=.065)*		*(p=.063)*	
Graduate degree	.142	.026	.156	.029	.231	.043	.244	.045
	(p=.297)		*(p=.280)*		*(p=.185)*		*(p=.172)*	
Manager	- .186	-.038	- .207	-.042	- .194	-.040	- .211	-.043
	(p=.249)		*(p=.226)*		*(p=.232)*		*(p=.213)*	
Years employed	.552	.121	.538	.118	.526	.115	.516	.113
	(p=.009)		*(p=.010)*		*(p=.009)*		*(p=.010)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.427	.092	.425	.092	.419	.090	.397	.086
	(p=.048)		*(p=.048)*		*(p=.045)*		*(p=.054)*	
SFR Unknown	1.152	.167	1.157	.168	1.187	.172	1.154	.167
	(p=.001)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.001)*	
Flexibility Supports			- .135	-..056	- .290	-.120	- .175	-.072
			(p=.134)		*(p=.008)*		*(p=.138)*	
Supervisor Support					1.247	.271	1.535	.333
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Flexibility x Supervisor Support							- .258	-.101
							(p=.139)	
Constant	13.204		13.288		12.771		12.706	
R^2	.072		.075		.144		.147	
p	.001		.001		.000		.000	

Table 6.14.1A: Regressions of Job Satisfaction and Progress on Flexibility Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=404)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .026	-.006	- .042	-.010	- .160	-.037	- .173	-.040
	(p=.454)		*(p=.427)*		*(p=.285)*		*(p=.270)*	
Married	- .459	-.060	- .469	-.062	- .429	-.056	- .439	-.058
	(p=.114)		*(p=.110)*		*(p=.134)*		*(p=.128)*	
Income	- .482	-.113	- .494	-.115	- .460	-.108	- .437	-.102
	(p=.025)		*(p=.024)*		*(p=.035)*		*(p=.044)*	
No college	.367	.031	.356	.031	.367	.031	.416	.036
	(p=.263)		*(p=.270)*		*(p=.264)*		*(p=.239)*	
Graduate degree	.055	.011	.051	.010	.050	.010	.056	.011
	(p=.413)		*(p=.419)*		*(p=.421)*		*(p=.411)*	
Manager	.431	.095	.437	.096	.443	.097	.440	.097
	(p=.046)		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.043)*		*(p=.044)*	
Years employed	.362	.085	.367	.086	.373	.087	.367	.086
	(p=.047)		*(p=.046)*		*(p=.043)*		*(p=.046)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.409	.095	.408	.094	.411	.095	.401	.093
	(p=.045)		*(p=.045)*		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.049)*	
SFR Unknown	1.019	.160	1.016	.159	1.032	.162	1.007	.158
	(p=.002)		*(p=.002)*		*(p=.002)*		*(p=..003*	
Flexibility Supports			.041	.018	.037	.017	- .067	-.030
			(p=.361)		*(p=.373)*		*(p=.364)*	
Family Responsibility					.209	.048	.056	.013
					(p=.235)		*(p=.440)*	
Flexibility x Family Responsibility							.161	.072
							(p=.251)	
Constant	8.956		8.931		8.803		8.909	
R^2	.047		.048		.049		.050	
p	.023		.036		.048		.062	

Table 6.14.2A: Regressions of Job Satisfaction and Progress on Flexibility Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=404)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .026	-.006	- .042	-.010	- .009	-.002	- .010	-.002
	(p=.454)		*(p=.427)*		*(p=.484)*		*(p=.482)*	
Married	- .459	-.060	- .469	-.062	- .397	-.052	- .388	-.051
	(p=.114)		*(p=.110)*		*(p=.147)*		*(p=.154)*	
Income	- .482	-.113	- .494	-.115	- .466	-.109	- .465	-.109
	(p=.025)		*(p=.024)*		*(p=.029)*		*(p=.030)*	
No college	.367	.031	.356	.031	.406	.035	.414	.035
	(p=.263)		*(p=.270)*		*(p=.240)*		*(p=.236)*	
Graduate degree	.055	.011	.051	.010	.097	.019	.099	.019
	(p=.413)		*(p=.419)*		*(p=.347)*		*(p=.345)*	
Manager	.431	.095	.437	.096	.416	.091	.416	.091
	(p=.046)		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.051)*		*(p=.051)*	
Years employed	.362	.085	.367	.086	.366	.086	.367	.086
	(p=.047)		*(p=.046)*		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.044)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.409	.095?	.408	.094	.414	.096	.415	.096
	(p=.045)		*(p=.045)*		*(p=.041)*		*(p=.041)*	
SFR Unknown	1.019	.160	1.016	.159	1.058	.166	1.057	.166
	(p=.002)		*(p=.002)*		*(p=.002)*		*(p=.002)*	
Flexibility Supports			.041	.018	- .033	-.015	- .069	-.031
			(p=.361)		*(p=.388)*		*(p=.321)*	
Co-worker Support					.689	.157	.586	.134
					(p=.001)		*(p=.044)*	
Flexibility x Co-worker Support							.089	.036
							(p=.348)	
Constant	8.956		8.931		8.638		8.661	
R^2	.047		.048		.071		.071	
p	.023		.036		.002		.004	

Table 6.14.3A: Regressions of Job Satisfaction and Progress on Flexibility Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=404)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .026	-.006	- .042	-.010	.008	.002	.014	.003
	(p=.454)		*(p=.427)*		*(p=.486)*		*(p=.475)*	
Married	- .459	-.060	- .469	-.062	- .374	-.049	- .392	-.052
	(p=.114)		*(p=.110)*		*(p=.155)*		*(p=.144)*	
Income	- .482	-.113	- .494	-.115	- .451	-.106	- .452	-.106
	(p=.025)		*(p=.024)*		*(p=.030)*		*(p=.030)*	
No college	.367	.031	.356	.031	.513	.044	.523	.045
	(p=.263)		*(p=.270)*		*(p=.179)*		*(p=.174)*	
Graduate degree	.055	.011	.051	.010	.119	.024	.127	.025
	(p=.413)		*(p=.419)*		*(p=.311)*		*(p=.298)*	
Manager	.431	.095	.437	.096	.413	.091	.395	.087
	(p=.046)		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.047)*		*(p=.055)*	
Years employed	.362	.085	.367	.086	.364	.085	.354	.083
	(p=.047)		*(p=.046)*		*(p=.041)*		*(p=.045)*	
Supervisor Family	.409	.095	.408	.094	.401	.093	.381	.088
Responsibility (SFR)	*(p=.045)*		*(p=.045)*		*(p=.042)*		*(p=.051)*	
SFR Unknown	1.019	.160	1.016	.159	1.065	.167	1.032	.162
	(p=.002)		*(p=.002)*		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.002)*	
Flexibility Supports			.041	.018	- .108	-.048	.008	.004
			(p=.361)		*(p=.170)*		*(p=.478)*	
Supervisor Support					1.204	.280	1.494	.347
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Flexibility x							- .258	-.109
Supervisor Support							*(p=.122)*	
Constant	8.956		8.931		8.421		8.356	
R^2	.047		.048		.121		.124	
p	.023		.036		.000		.000	

Table 6.15.1A: Regressions of Work Hours and Schedule Satisfaction on Flexibility Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=406)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.039	.013	- .101	-.034	- .189	-.063	- .182	-.060
	(p=.401)		*(p=.258)*		*(p=.159)*		*(p=.168)*	
Married	- .015	-.003	- .102	-.019	- .072	-.013	- .066	-.012
	(p=.478)		*(p=.346)*		*(p=.392)*		*(p=.401)*	
Income	- .556	-.186	- .654	-.218	- .627	-.209	- .639	-.213
	(p=.001)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*	
No college	- .033	-.004	- .125	-.015	- .116	-.014	- .144	-.018
	(p=.467)		*(p=.374)*		*(p=.383)*		*(p=.358)*	
Graduate degree	.107	.030	.072	.021	.071	.020	.067	.019
	(p=.267)		*(p=.333)*		*(p=.336)*		*(p=.346)*	
Manager	- .193	-.060	- .143	-.045	- .142	-.044	- .141	-.044
	(p=.138)		*(p=.204)*		*(p=.206)*		*(p=.208)*	
Years employed	.209	.070	.250	.083	.254	.085	.257	.086
	(p=.080)		*(p=.043)*		*(p=.041)*		*(p=.039)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.267	.088	.259	.086	.261	.086	.267	.088
	(p=.054)		*(p=.055)*		*(p=.054)*		*(p=.050)*	
SFR Unknown	.532	.118	.506	.112	.518	.115	.532	.118
	(p=.017)		*(p=.019)*		*(p=.017)*		*(p=.015)*	
Flexibility Supports			.351	.222	.348	.220	.406	.257
			(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.001)*	
Family Responsibility					.159	.052	.244	.080
					(p=.206)		*(p=.162)*	
Flexibility x Family Responsibility							- .089	-.057
							(p=.290)	
Constant	6.042		5.833		5.736		5.676	
R^2	.074		.120		.122		.123	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.15.2A: Regressions of Work Hours and Schedule Satisfaction on Flexibility Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=406)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.039	.013	- .101	-.034	- .069	-.023	- .063	-.021
		(p=.401)		*(p=.258)*		*(p=.324)*		*(p=.337)*
Married	- .015	-.003	- .102	-.019	- .027	-.005	- .051	-.010
		(p=.478)		*(p=.346)*		*(p=.457)*		*(p=.420)*
Income	- .556	-.186	- .654	-.218	- .625	-.209	- .624	-.208
		(p=.001)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*
No college	- .033	-.004	- .125	-.015	- .069	-.008	- .091	-.011
		(p=.467)		*(p=.374)*		*(p=.428)*		*(p=.405)*
Graduate degree	.107	.030	.072	.021	.123	.035	.118	.033
		(p=.267)		*(p=.333)*		*(p=.226)*		*(p=.235)*
Manager	- .193	-.060	- .143	-.045	- .162	-.051	- .165	-.052
		(p=.138)		*(p=.204)*		*(p=.166)*		*(p=.161)*
Years employed	.209	.070	.250	.083	.240	.080	.237	.079
		(p=.080)		*(p=.043)*		*(p=.045)*		*(p=.047)*
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.267	.088	.259	.086	.270	.089	.268	.089
		(p=.054)		*(p=.055)*		*(p=.042)*		*(p=.043)*
SFR Unknown	.532	.118	.506	.112	.551	.122	.555	.123
		(p=.017)		*(p=.019)*		*(p=.010)*		*(p=.009)*
Flexibility Supports			.351	.222	.270	.171	.366	.232
				(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*
Co-worker Support					.752	.245	1.028	.335
						(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*
Flexibility x Co-worker Support							- .239	-.139
								(p=.056)
Constant	6.042		5.833		5.517		5.451	
R^2	.074		.120		.178		.183	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.15.3A: Regressions of Work Hours and Schedule Satisfaction on Flexibility Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=406)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.039	.013	- .101	-.034	- .051	-.017	- .044	-.015
	(p=.401)		*(p=.258)*		*(p=.362)*		*(p=.380)*	
Married	- .015	-.003	- .102	-.019	- .016	-.003	- .036	-.007
	(p=.478)		*(p=.346)*		*(p=.473)*		*(p=.440)*	
Income	- .556	-.186	- .654	-.218	- .604	-.202	- .602	-.201
	(p=.001)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*	
No college	- .033	-.004	- .125	-.015	.012	.001	.023	.003
	(p=.467)		*(p=.374)*		*(p=.487)*		*(p=.475)*	
Graduate degree	.107	.030	.072	.021	.128	.036	.136	.039
	(p=.267)		*(p=.333)*		*(p=.208)*		*(p=.192)*	
Manager	- .193	-.060	- .143	-.045	- .168	-.053	- .190	-.059
	(p=.138)		*(p=.204)*		*(p=.149)*		*(p=.119)*	
Years employed	.209	.070	.250	.083	.241	.081	.230	.077
	(p=.080)		*(p=.043)*		*(p=.038)*		*(p=.045)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.267	.088	.259	.086	.258	.085	.236	.078
	(p=.054)		*(p=.055)*		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.059)*	
SFR Unknown	.532	.118	.506	.112	.571	.139	.536	.119
	(p=.017)		*(p=.019)*		*(p=.006)*		*(p=.009)*	
Flexibility Supports			.351	.222	.220	.139	.344	.218
			(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*	
Supervisor Support					1.066	.354	1.376	.456
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Flexibility x Supervisor Support							- .275	-.166
							(p=.028)	
Constant	6.042		5.833		5.371		5.300	
R^2	.074		.120		.239		.246	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.16.1A: Regressions of Work Role Conflict on Flexibility Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=394)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.628	.112	.584	.104	.246	.044	.195	.035
		(p=.019)		(p=.029)		(p=.256)		(p=.301)
Married	- .071	-.007	- .101	-.010	.013	.001	- .036	-.004
		(p=.445)		(p=.423)		(p=.490)		(p=.472)
Income	.141	.025	.111	.020	.213	.038	.292	.052
		(p=.336)		(p=.371)		(p=.267)		(p=.197)
No college	- .890	-.057	- .924	-.059	- .897	-.057	- .686	-.044
		(p=.131)		(p=.123)		(p=.130)		(p=.195)
Graduate degree	- .145	-.022	- .154	-.023	- .162	-.025	- .142	-.022
		(p=.332)		(p=.322)		(p=.314)		(p=.335)
Manager	- .052	-.009	- .033	-.006	- .022	-.004	- .027	-.004
		(p=.440)		(p=.462)		(p=.475)		(p=.469)
Years employed	- .428	-.077	- .414	-.074	- .407	-.073	- .429	-.077
		(p=.070)		(p=.077)		(p=.081)		(p=.069)
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	- .150	-.026	- .155	-.027	- .144	-.025	- .191	-.034
		(p=.322)		(p=.317)		(p=.328)		(p=.278)
SFR Unknown	- .581	-.069	- .591	-.070	- .546	-.065	- .651	-.078
		(p=.115)		(p=.112)		(p=.131)		(p=.091)
Flexibility Supports			.112	.038	.099	.034	- .325	-.110
				(p=.232)		(p=.258)		(p=.107)
Family Responsibility					.597	.105	- .013	-.002
						(p=.062)		(p=.490)
Flexibility x Family Responsibility							.644	.220
								(p=.023)
Constant	9.728		13.288		9.300		9.741	
R^2	.030		.037		..037		.047	
p	.231		.271		.201		.097	

Table 6.16.2A: Regressions of Work Role Conflict on Flexibility Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=394)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.628	.112	.584	.104	.556	.099	.552	.098
	(p=.019)		*(p=.029)*		*(p=.034)*		*(p=.035)*	
Married	- .071	-.007	- .101	-.010	- .205	-.020	- .189	-.019
	(p=.445)		*(p=.423)*		*(p=.346)*		*(p=.358)*	
Income	.141	.025	.111	.020	.090	.016	.091	.016
	(p=.336)		*(p=.371)*		*(p=.394)*		*(p=.393)*	
No college	- .890	-.057	- .924	-.059	- .967	-.062	- .953	-.061
	(p=.131)		*(p=.123)*		*(p=.110)*		*(p=.114)*	
Graduate degree	- .145	-.022	- .154	-.023	- .199	-.030	- .194	-.029
	(p=.332)		*(p=.322)*		*(p=.275)*		*(p=.280)*	
Manager	- .052	-.009	- .033	-.006	- .032	-.005	- .033	-.006
	(p=.440)		*(p=.462)*		*(p=.462)*		*(p=.462)*	
Years employed	- .428	-.077	- .414	-.074	- .397	-.071	- .394	-.070
	(p=.070)		*(p=.077)*		*(p=.084)*		*(p=.086)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	- .150	-.026	- .155	-.027	- .178	-.031	- .176	-.031
	(p=.322)		*(p=.317)*		*(p=.291)*		*(p=.293)*	
SFR Unknown	- .581	-.069	- .591	-.070	- .641	-.076	- .645	-.077
	(p=.115)		*(p=.112)*		*(p=.092)*		*(p=.091)*	
Flexibility Supports			.112	.038	.199	.067	.141	.048
			(p=.232)		*(p=.100)*		*(p=.239)*	
Co-worker Support					- .805	-.141	- .966	-.169
					(p=.003)		*(p=.018)*	
Flexibility x Co-worker Support							.141	.044
							(p=.323)	
Constant	9.728		13.288		10.026		10.060	
R^2	.030		.037		.050		.050	
p	.231		.271		.048		.068	

Table 6.16.3A: Regressions of Work Role Conflict on Flexibility Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=394)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.628	.112	.584	.104	.557	.099	.558	.099
	(p=.019)		*(p=.029)*		*(p=.033)*		*(p=.032)*	
Married	- .071	-.007	- .101	-.010	- .212	-.021	- .218	-.022
	(p=.445)		*(p=.423)*		*(p=.339)*		*(p=.335)*	
Income	.141	.025	.111	.020	.093	.017	.095	.017
	(p=.336)		*(p=.371)*		*(p=.389)*		*(p=.388)*	
No college	- .890	-.057	- .924	-.059	-1 .045	-.067	-1 .043	-.067
	(p=.131)		*(p=.123)*		*(p=.091)*		*(p=.092)*	
Graduate degree	- .145	-.022	- .154	-.023	- .200	-.030	- .198	-.030
	(p=.332)		*(p=.322)*		*(p=.272)*		*(p=.274)*	
Manager	- .052	-.009	- .033	-.006	- .034	-.006	- .039	-.006
	(p=.440)		*(p=.462)*		*(p=.460)*		*(p=.455)*	
Years employed	- .428	-.077	- .414	-.074	- .396	-.071	- .399	-.071
	(p=.070)		*(p=.077)*		*(p=.083)*		*(p=.082)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	- .150	-.026	- .155	-.027	- .156	-.028	- .161	-.028
	(p=.322)		*(p=.317)*		*(p=.312)*		*(p=.308)*	
SFR Unknown	- .581	-.069	- .591	-.070	- .626	-.075	- .634	-.075
	(p=.115)		*(p=.112)*		*(p=.095)*		*(p=.093)*	
Flexibility Supports			.112	.038	.243	.083	.272	.092
			(p=.232)		*(p=.058)*		*(p=.095)*	
Supervisor Support					-1.079	-.192	-1 .009	-.179
					(p=.000)		*(p=.012)*	
Flexibility x Supervisor Support							- .063	-.020
							(p=.417)	
Constant	9.728		13.288		10.136		10.121	
R^2	.030		.037		.066		.066	
p	.231		.271		.006		.010	

Table 6.17.1A: Regressions of Marital Satisfaction on Flexibility Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=390)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .139	-.042	- .184	-.055	- .397	-.119	- .380	-.114
	(p=.208)		*(p=.144)*		*(p=.031)*		*(p=.038)*	
Income	- .813	-.247	- .854	-.259	- .792	-.240	- .821	-.249
	(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*	
No college	1.199	.131	1.155	.126	1.177	.128	1.113	.121
	(p=.004)		*(p=.005)*		*(p=.005)*		*(p=.007)*	
Graduate degree	- .110	-.029	- .122	-.032	- .124	-.032	- .133	-.035
	(p=.280)		*(p=.259)*		*(p=.254)*		*(p=.239)*	
Manager	- .283	-.081	- .259	-.074	- .255	-.073	- .252	-.072
	(p=.076)		*(p=.096)*		*(p=.099)*		*(p=.101)*	
Years employed	.015	.005	.027	.008	.033	.010	.041	.012
	(p=.464)		*(p=.436)*		*(p=.420)*		*(p=.401)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.039	.012	.040	.012	.040	.012	.055	.016
	(p=.417)		*(p=.414)*		*(p=.423)*		*(p=.383)*	
SFR Unknown	.267	.054	.266	.054	.289	.059	.319	.065
	(p=.165)		*(p=.165)*		*(p=.145)*		*(p=.122)*	
Flexibility Support			.120	.068	.112	.064	.252	.144
			(p=.087)		*(p=.101)*		*(p=.040)*	
Family Responsibility					.368	.111	.580	.174
					(p=.042)		*(p=.017)*	
Flexibility x Family Responsibility							- .222	-.126
							(p=.109)	
Constant	6.950		6.849		6.699		6.571	
R^2	.105		.110		.117		.120	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.17.2A: Regressions of Marital Satisfaction on Flexibility Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=390)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .139	-.042	- .184	-.055	- .157	-.047	- .155	-.047
		(p=.208)		*(p=.144)*		*(p=.180)*		*(p=.181)*
Income	- .813	-.247	- .854	-.259	- .829	-.251	- .831	-.252
		(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*
No college	1.199	.131	1.155	.126	1.181	.129	1.143	.125
		(p=.004)		*(p=.005)*		*(p=.004)*		*(p=.005)*
Graduate degree	- .110	-.029	- .122	-.032	- .095	-.025	- .097	-.025
		(p=.280)		*(p=.259)*		*(p=.304)*		*(p=.229)*
Manager	- .283	-.081	- .259	-.074	- .267	-.076	- .266	-.076
		(p=.076)		*(p=.096)*		*(p=.086)*		*(p=.086)*
Years employed	.015	.005	.027	.008	.020	.006	.017	.005
		(p=.464)		*(p=.436)*		*(p=.450)*		*(p=.457)*
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.039	.012	.040	.012	.055	.017	.050	.015
		(p=.417)		*(p=.414)*		*(p=.380)*		*(p=.389)*
SFR Unknown	.267	.054	.266	.054	.326	.066	.327	.066
		(p=.165)		*(p=.165)*		*(p=.113)*		*(p=.112)*
Flexibility Support			.120	.068	.060	.034	.201	.115
				(p=.087)		*(p=.246)*		*(p=.035)*
Co-worker Support					.633	.187	1.041	.308
						(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*
Flexibility x Co-worker Support							- .355	-.184
								(p=.020)
Constant	6.950		6.849		6.628		6.500	
R^2	.105		.110		.143		.153	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.17.3A: Regressions of Marital Satisfaction on Flexibility Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=390)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .139	-.042	- .184	-.055	- .170	-.051	- .167	-.050
	(p=.208)		*(p=.144)*		*(p=.158)*		*(p=.163)*	
Income	- .813	-.247	- .854	-.259	- .826	-.251	- .824	-.250
	(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*	
No college	1.199	.131	1.155	.126	1.229	.134	1.234	.135
	(p=.004)		*(p=.005)*		*(p=.003)*		*(p=.003)*	
Graduate degree	- .110	-.029	- .122	-.032	- .100	-.026	- .093	-.024
	(p=.280)		*(p=.259)*		*(p=.294)*		*(p=.307)*	
Manager	- .283	-.081	- .259	-.074	- .272	-.077	- .284	-.081
	(p=.076)		*(p=.096)*		*(p=.081)*		*(p=.072)*	
Years employed	.015	.005	.027	.008	.019	.006	.013	.004
	(p=.464)		*(p=.436)*		*(p=.454)*		*(p=.468)*	
Supervisor Family Responsibility (SFR)	.039	.012	.040	.012	.037	.011	.022	.007
	(p=.417)		*(p=.414)*		*(p=.419)*		*(p=.451)*	
SFR Unknown	.267	.054	.266	.054	.293	.059	.271	.055
	(p=.165)		*(p=.165)*		*(p=.137)*		*(p=.156)*	
Flexibility Support			.120	.068	.039	.022	.113	.065
			(p=.087)		*(p=.327)*		*(p=.165)*	
Supervisor Support					.710	.211	.887	.267
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Flexibility x Supervisor Support							*- .166*	*-.090*
							(p=.167)	
Constant	6.950		6.849		6.608		6.554	
R^2	.105		.110		.152		.154	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.18.1A: Regressions of Parental Satisfaction on Flexibility Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=402)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .715	-.158	- .871	-.192	- .573	-.126	- .577	-.127
	(p=.001)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.025)*		*(p=.024)*	
Married	.265	.033	.176	.022	.074	.009	.071	.009
	(p=.255)		*(p=.329)*		*(p=.427)*		*(p=.430)*	
Income	- .746	-.165	- .850	-.188	- .938	-.208	- .930	-.206
	(p=.002)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*	
No college	.303	.025	.199	.016	.166	.014	.183	.015
	(p=.310)		*(p=.371)*		*(p=.391)*		*(p=.382)*	
Graduate degree	- .148	-.028	- .174	-.033	- .170	-.032	- .169	-.032
	(p=.288)		*(p=.253)*		*(p=.257)*		*(p=.259)*	
Manager	- .198	-.041	- .138	-.029	- .147	-.031	- .148	-.031
	(p=.233)		*(p=.304)*		*(p=.219)*		*(p=.291)*	
Years employed	- .012	-.003	.034	.007	.018	.004	.017	.004
	(p=.479)		*(p=.441)*		*(p=.468)*		*(p=.470)*	
Supervisor Responsibility (SFR)	.115	.025	.105	.023	.097	.021	.094	.021
	(p=.326)		*(p=.339)*		*(p=.350)*		*(p=.354)*	
SFR Unknown	- .291	-.043	- .318	-.047	- .359	-.053	- .367	-.054
	(p=.223)		*(p=.200)*		*(p=.170)*		*(p=.167)*	
Flexibility Supports			.382	.160	.395	.166	.360	.151
			(p=.001)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.041)*	
Family Responsibility					- .539	-.117	- .588	-.128
					(p=.036)		*(p=.062)*	
Flexibility x Family Responsibility							.053	.022
							(p=.418)	
Constant	13.611		13.382		13.711		13.745	
R^2	.052		.076		.083		.083	
p	.013		.001		.000		.001	

Table 6.18.2A: Regressions of Parental Satisfaction on Flexibility Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=402)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .715	-.158	- .871	-.192	- .840	-.185	- .834	-.184
	(p=.001)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*	
Married	.265	.033	.176	.022	.250	.031	.209	.026
	(p=.255)		*(p=.329)*		*(p=.263)*		*(p=.298)*	
Income	- .746	-.165	- .850	-.188	- .821	-.182	- .830	-.184
	(p=.002)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.001)*	
No college	.303	.025	.199	.016	.247	.020	.214	.017
	(p=.310)		*(p=.371)*		*(p=.340)*		*(p=.360)*	
Graduate degree	- .148	-.028	- .174	-.033	- .130	-.024	- .142	-.027
	(p=.288)		*(p=.253)*		*(p=.308)*		*(p=.292)*	
Manager	- .198	-.041	- .138	-.029	- .141	-.029	- .144	-.030
	(p=.233)		*(p=.304)*		*(p=.297)*		*(p=.294)*	
Years employed	- .012	-.003	.034	.007	.036	.008	.023	.005
	(p=.479)		*(p=.441)*		*(p=.436)*		*(p=.459)*	
Supervisor Responsibility (SFR)	.115	.025	.105	.023	.112	.024	.113	.025
	(p=.326)		*(p=.339)*		*(p=.327)*		*(p=.325)*	
SFR Unknown	- .291	-.043	- .318	-.047	- .259	-.040	- .261	-.039
	(p=.223)		*(p=.200)*		*(p=.236)*		*(p=.242)*	
Flexibility Supports			.382	.160	.313	.131	.463	.194
			(p=.001)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.001)*	
Co-worker Support					.690	.149	1.121	.242
					(p=.001)		*(p=.001)*	
Flexibility x Co-worker Support							- .379	-.143
							(p=.057)	
Constant	13.611		13.382		13.074		12.983	
R^2	.052		.076		.097		.103	
p	.013		.001		.000		.000	

Table 6.18.3A: Regressions of Parental Satisfaction on Flexibility Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=402)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	- .715	-.158	- .871	-.192	- .838	-.185	- .833	-.184
	(p=.001)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*	
Married	.265	.033	.176	.022	.246	.031	.229	.029
	(p=.255)		*(p=.329)*		*(p=.264)*		*(p=.279)*	
Income	- .746	-.165	- .850	-.188	- .822	-.182	- .823	-.182
	(p=.002)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.001)*	
No college	.303	.025	.199	.016	.317	.026	.326	.027
	(p=.310)		*(p=.371)*		*(p=.297)*		*(p=.291)*	
Graduate degree	- .148	-.028	- .174	-.033	- .116	-.022	- .110	-.021
	(p=.288)		*(p=.253)*		*(p=.326)*		*(p=.334)*	
Manager	- .198	-.041	- .138	-.029	- .143	-.030	- .161	-.033
	(p=.233)		*(p=.304)*		*(p=.294)*		*(p=.271)*	
Years employed	- .012	-.003	.034	.007	.033	.007	.021	.005
	(p=.479)		*(p=.441)*		*(p=.441)*		*(p=.463)*	
Supervisor Responsibility (SFR)	.115	.025	.105	.023	.090	.020	.074	.016
	(p=.326)		*(p=.339)*		*(p=.358)*		*(p=.382)*	
SFR Unknown	- .291	-.043	- .318	-.047	- .280	-.041	- .310	-.046
	(p=.223)		*(p=.200)*		*(p=.225)*		*(p=.202)*	
Flexibility Supports			.382	.160	.277	.116	.378	.158
			(p=.001)		*(p=.011)*		*(p=.009)*	
Supervisor Support					.890	.196	1.143	.252
					(p=.000)		*(p=.001)*	
Flexibility x Supervisor Support							- .228	-.090
							(p=.168)	
Constant	13.611		13.382		13.002		12.949	
R^2	.052		.076		.112		.114	
p	.013		.001		.000		.000	

Table 6.19.1A: Regressions of Family Scheduling Conflict on Flexibility Supports, Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=404)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.427	.137	.407	.131	.551	.177	.534	.172
	(p=.003)		*(p=.005)*		*(p=.002)*		*(p=.003)*	
Married	.181	.033	.169	.030	.121	.022	.108	.019
	(p=.247)		*(p=.262)*		*(p=.325)*		*(p=.344)*	
Income	.749	.242	.735	.237	.693	.224	.721	.233
	(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*	
No college	- .499	-.059	- .512	-.061	- .526	-.062	- .467	-.055
	(p=.105)		*(p=.099)*		*(p=.093)*		*(p=.122)*	
Graduate degree	.058	.016	.054	.015	.052	.014	.062	.017
	(p=.369)		*(p=.377)*		*(p=.382)*		*(p=.360)*	
Manager	.305	.092	.313	.095	.307	.093	.304	.092
	(p=.042)		*(p=.039)*		*(p=.041)*		*(p=.043)*	
Years employed	- .325	-.105	- .320	-.104	- .325	-.105	- .332	-.107
	(p=.015)		*(p=.016)*		*(p=.015)*		*(p=.013)*	
Supervisor Responsibility (SFR)	- .205	-.066	- .206	-.066	- .211	-.067	- .223	-.072
	(p=.107)		*(p=.107)*		*(p=.101)*		*(p=.089)*	
SFR Unknown	- .645	-.140	- .648	-.140	- .666	-.144	- .695	-.151
	(p=.005)		*(p=.004)*		*(p=.004)*		*(p=.003)*	
Flexibility Supports			.049	.030	.054	.033	- .071	-.043
			(p=.265)		*(p=.248)*		*(p=.297)*	
Family Responsibility					- .252	-.080	- .432	-.138
					(p=.103)		*(p=.044)*	
Flexibility x Family Responsibility							.192	.118
							(p=.122)	
Constant	5.202		5.173		5.326		5.452	
R^2	.142		.143		.149		.150	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.19.2A: Regressions of Family Scheduling Conflict on Flexibility Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=404)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.427	.137	.407	.131	.385	.124	.379	.122
	(p=.003)		*(p=.005)*		*(p=.007)*		*(p=.007)*	
Married	.181	.033	.169	.030	.103	.019	.143	.026
	(p=.247)		*(p=.262)*		*(p=.347)*		*(p=.292)*	
Income	.749	.242	.735	.237	.718	.232	.723	.233
	(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*	
No college	- .499	-.059	- .512	-.061	- .552	-.065	- .517	-.061
	(p=.105)		*(p=.099)*		*(p=.080)*		*(p=.092)*	
Graduate degree	.058	.016	.054	.015	.026	.007	.034	.009
	(p=.369)		*(p=.377)*		*(p=.439)*		*(p=.421)*	
Manager	.305	.092	.313	.095	.318	.096	.316	.096
	(p=.042)		*(p=.039)*		*(p=.034)*		*(p=.034)*	
Years employed	- .325	-.105	- .320	-.104	- .313	-.101	- .306	-.099
	(p=.015)		*(p=.016)*		*(p=.017)*		*(p=.018)*	
Supervisor Responsibility (SFR)	- .205	-.066	- .206	-.066	- .215	-.069	- .213	-.068
	(p=.107)		*(p=.107)*		*(p=.093)*		*(p=.093)*	
SFR Unknown	- .645	-.140	- .648	-.140	- .685	-.148	- .691	-.150
	(p=.005)		*(p=.004)*		*(p=.002)*		*(p=.002)*	
Flexibility Supports			.049	.030	.111	.068	- .045	-.028
			(p=.265)		*(p=.080)*		*(p=.325)*	
Co-worker Support					- .576	-.181	-1.021	-.322
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Flexibility x Co-worker Support							.386	.217
							(p=.006)	
Constant	5.202		5.173		5.420		5.524	
R^2	.142		.143		.175		.188	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.19.3A: Regressions of Family Scheduling Conflict on Flexibility Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=404)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.427	.137	.407	.131	.393	.126	.387	.124
	(p=.003)		*(p=.005)*		*(p=.005)*		*(p=.006)*	
Married	.181	.033	.169	.030	.107	.019	.122	.022
	(p=.247)		*(p=.262)*		*(p=.339)*		*(p=.318)*	
Income	.749	.242	.735	.237	.719	.232	.718	.232
	(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*		*(p=.000)*	
No college	- .499	-.059	- .512	-.061	- .604	-.072	- .612	-.072
	(p=.105)		*(p=.099)*		*(p=.060)*		*(p=.057)*	
Graduate degree	.058	.016	.054	.015	.020	.005	.014	.004
	(p=.369)		*(p=.377)*		*(p=.454)*		*(p=.466)*	
Manager	.305	.092	.313	.095	.312	.095	.327	.099
	(p=.042)		*(p=.039)*		*(p=.035)*		*(p=.029)*	
Years employed	- .325	-.105	- .320	-.104	- .310	-.100	- .303	-.098
	(p=.015)		*(p=.016)*		*(p=.016)*		*(p=.018)*	
Supervisor Responsibility (SFR)	- .205	-.066	- .206	-.066	- .206	-.066	- .190	-.061
	(p=.107)		*(p=.107)*		*(p=.100)*		*(p=.119)*	
SFR Unknown	- .645	-.140	- .648	-.140	- .678	-.147	- .652	-.141
	(p=.005)		*(p=.004)*		*(p=.002)*		*(p=.003)*	
Flexibility Supports			.049	.030	.135	.083	.044	.027
			(p=.265)		*(p=.043)*		*(p=.336)*	
Supervisor Support					- .714	-.229	- .940	-.302
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Flexibility x Supervisor Support							.202	.118
							(p=.094)	
Constant	5.202		5.173		5.475		5.525	
R^2	.142		.143		.193		.197	
p	.000		.000		.000		.000	

Table 6.20.1A: Regressions of Family Scheduling Conflict on Flexibility Supports. Family Responsibility, and Control Variables (N=402)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.022	.005	.189	.041	.508	.109	.466	.100
	(p=.463)		*(p=.219)*		*(p=.043)*		*(p=.057)*	
Married	- .049	-.006	.050	.006	- .058	-.007	- .096	-.012
	(p=.452)		*(p=.451)*		*(p=.443)*		*(p=.406)*	
Income	.676	.147	.793	.172	.703	.152	.777	.169
	(p=.005)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.009)*		*(p=.002)*	
No college	- .012	.000	.096	.008	.064	.005	.235	.019
	(p=.492)		*(p=.438)*		*(p=.458)*		*(p=.351)*	
Graduate degree	.164	.030	.193	.036	.197	.036	.222	.041
	(p=.270)		*(p=.233)*		*(p=.227)*		*(p=.199)*	
Manager	.569	.116	.504	.103	.497	.101	.484	.099
	(p=.019)		*(p=.031)*		*(p=.032)*		*(p=.035)*	
Years employed	.196	.043	.155	.034	.142	.031	.123	.027
	(p=.199)		*(p=.249)*		*(p=.267)*		*(p=.294)*	
Supervisor Responsibility (SFR)	- .452	-.097	- .439	-.094	- .443	-.095	- .483	-.103
	(p=.041)		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.042)*		*(p=.029)*	
SFR Unknown	- .842	-.123	- .807	-.118	- .847	-.123	- .930	-.135
	(p=.015)		*(p=.017)*		*(p=.013)*		*(p=.008)*	
Flexibility Supports			- .408	-.168	- .396	-.162	- .755	-.310
			(p=.000)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.000)*	
Family Responsibility					- .567	-.121	-1.094	-.234
					(p=.031)		*(p=.002)*	
Flexibility x Family Responsibility							.554	.227
							(p=.014)	
Constant	7.202		7.439		7.777		8.142	
R^2	.063		.090		.098		.109	
p	.002		.000		.000		.000	

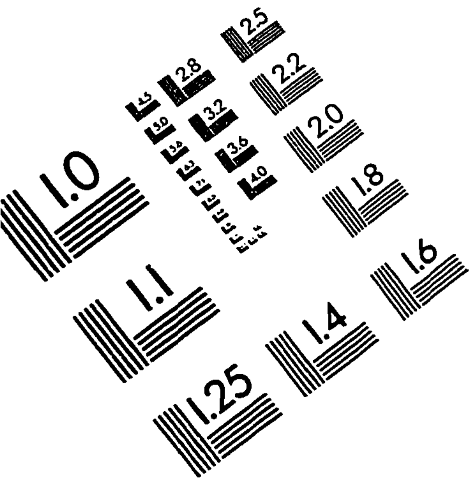
Table 6.20.2A: Regressions of Family Scheduling Conflict on Flexibility Supports, Co-worker Support, and Control Variables (N=402)

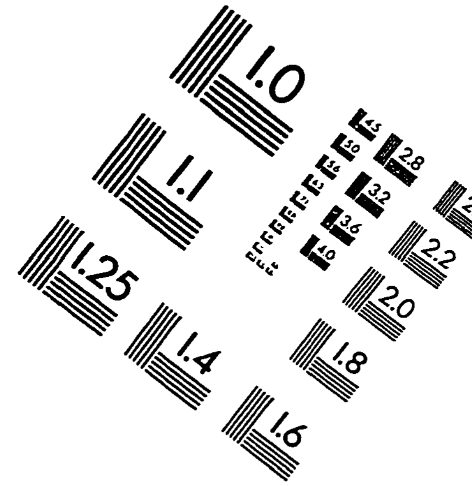
	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.022	.005	.189	.041	.156	.034	.144	.031
	(p=.463)		*(p=.219)*		*(p=.256)*		*(p=.270)*	
Married	-.049	-.006	.050	.006	-.043	-.005	.032	.004
	(p=.452)		*(p=.451)*		*(p=.456)*		*(p=.467)*	
Income	.676	.147	.793	.172	.756	.164	.761	.165
	(p=.005)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.002)*		*(p=.001)*	
No college	-.012	.000	.096	.008	.025	.002	.085	.007
	(p=.492)		*(p=.438)*		*(p=.484)*		*(p=.443)*	
Graduate degree	.164	.030	.193	.036	.133	.025	.142	.026
	(p=.270)		*(p=.233)*		*(p=.304)*		*(p=.290)*	
Manager	.569	.116	.504	.103	.513	.104	.520	.106
	(p=.019)		*(p=.031)*		*(p=.026)*		*(p=.024)*	
Years employed	.196	.043	.155	.034	.155	.034	.166	.036
	(p=.199)		*(p=.249)*		*(p=.245)*		*(p=.228)*	
Supervisor Responsibility (SFR)	-.452	-.097	-.439	-.094	-.453	-.097	-.455	-.097
	(p=.041)		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.036)*		*(p=.034)*	
SFR Unknown	-.842	-.123	-.807	-.118	-.869	-.126	-.887	-.129
	(p=.015)		*(p=.017)*		*(p=.010)*		*(p=.008)*	
Flexibility Supports			-.408	-.168	-.311	-.128	-.597	-.245
			(p=.000)		*(p=.005)*		*(p=.000)*	
Co-worker Support					-.958	-.203	-1.778	-.376
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Flexibility x Co-worker Support							.717	.267
							(p=.001)	
Constant	7.202		7.439		7.854		8.046	
R^2	.063		.090		.129		.149	
p	.002		.000		.000		.000	

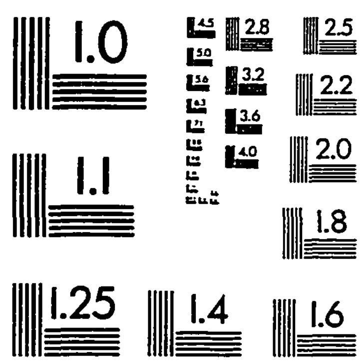
Table 6.20.3A: Regressions of Family Scheduling Conflict on Flexibility Supports, Supervisor Support, and Control Variables (N=402)

	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3		Equation 4	
	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Female	.022	.005	.189	.041	.16	.036	.150	.032
	(p=.463)		*(p=.219)*		*(p=.238)*		*(p=.260)*	
Married	- .049	-.006	.050	.006	- .027	-.003	.013	.002
	(p=.452)		*(p=.451)*		*(p=.472)*		*(p=.487)*	
Income	.676	.147	.793	.172	.748	.162	.750	.163
	(p=.005)		*(p=.001)*		*(p=.002)*		*(p=.001)*	
No college	- .012	.000	.096	.008	- .074	-.006	- .092	-.007
	(p=.492)		*(p=.438)*		*(p=.450)*		*(p=.438)*	
Graduate degree	.164	.030	.193	.036	.122	.022	.104	.019
	(p=.270)		*(p=.233)*		*(p=.317)*		*(p=.341)*	
Manager	.569	.116	.504	.103	.509	.104	.558	.114
	(p=.019)		*(p=.031)*		*(p=.025)*		*(p=.016)*	
Years employed	.196	.043	.155	.034	.144	.031	.171	.037
	(p=.199)		*(p=.249)*		*(p=.259)*		*(p=.219)*	
Supervisor Responsibility (SFR)	- .452	-.097	- .439	-.094	- .447	-.096	- .397	-.085
	(p=.041)		*(p=.044)*		*(p=.036)*		*(p=.054)*	
SFR Unknown	- .842	-.123	- .807	-.118	- .868	-.126	- .790	-.115
	(p=.015)		*(p=.017)*		*(p=.009)*		*(p=.016)*	
Flexibility Supports			- .408	-.168	- .261	-.107	- .524	-.215
			(p=.000)		*(p=.015)*		*(p=.001)*	
Supervisor Support					-1.197	-.258	-1.833	-.395
					(p=.000)		*(p=.000)*	
Flexibility x Supervisor							.574	.225
							(p=.008)	
Constant	7.202		7.439		7.954		8.092	
R^2	.063		.090		.153		.165	
p	.002		.000		.000		.000	

IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)







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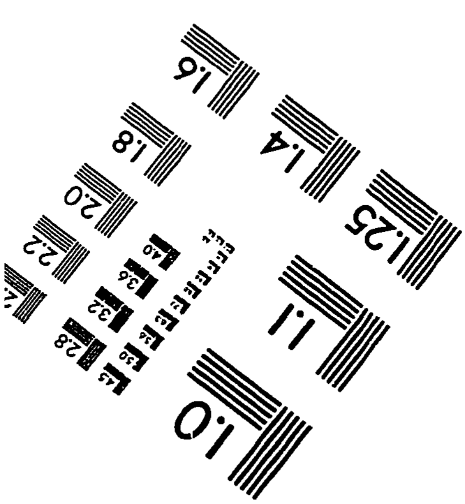

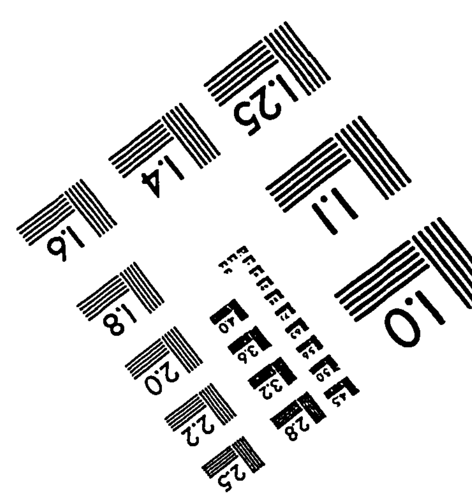

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