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CHILD-CARE:
THE RETURN ON INVESTMENT FOR AMERICAN BUSINESS

A Thesis
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degrees

Master of Arts
in
Life-Span Developmental
and
Master of Science
in
Industrial/Organizational
Psychology

by
Jennifer Louise Kellum

December 1998

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THE RETURN ON INVESTMENT FOR AMERICAN BUSINESS

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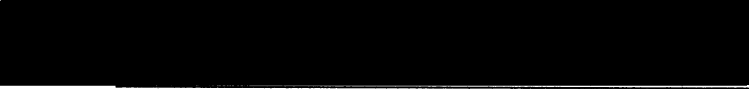
December 1998

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the importance of childcare availability relative to other desired job features: salary, rate of promotion, and health care benefits. The hypothesis stated that the availability of a child-care program would be rated highly and significantly in job selection by working parents (with children still at home) in comparison with other job benefits. The second hypothesis stated that parents with small children would forgo career development opportunities in a job offer in favor of child-care. Using a policy capturing method, job offer-scenarios consisting of all possible combinations of four benefits (salary, promotion rate, health-care, child-care) at above, equal to, and below average for industry standards were presented to 175 participants, who rated each scenario on a scale from one to nine, with nine representing the most desirable job offer rating. The beta weights (salary, promotion rate, health care, and childcare) were inter-correlated and correlated with the number of children, age of the youngest child, respondents'

level of education, and respondents' current salaries.

Salary was the most highly rated job offer feature; child-care was rated lower than both salary and health-care.

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INTRODUCTION

During World War I, women were summoned to work outside the home, taking the place of their husbands, fathers, and brothers who had joined the war effort. When the war ended, most of them returned to their homes as wives, mothers, and daughters. Again during World War II, women went back to work en masse and became a critical part of the war effort as "factory and clerical workers in war-related industries" (Neft and Levine, 1997, p. 49). This time, however, more women than ever before elected to stay in the labor force, filling clerical and service positions that were becoming available in the postwar economy.

During the war years, many employers sponsored child-care programs for the women working in their factories. The Lanham Act provided government support for these programs but when the war ended, so did the child-care programs (Miller, 1984).

This unprecedented movement of women into the labor force sparked a new field of research as to the effects of maternal employment on child development. It also marked the beginning of child-care as a business. At the close of

the twentieth century, child-care had become a 20 to 30 billion dollar industry in the United States (Kossek and Nichol, 1992, Jordano and Oates, 1997). As more and more women with children have elected to remain in the workforce, the need for child-care has increased proportionately. In 1994, 57.9 percent of all women with at least one child under the age of six were in the labor force (Maynard, 1994). That figure was up from 39 percent in 1975 (U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1987) and is expected to be more than 60 percent by the year 2000 (Jordano and Oates, 1997).

Fewer than seven percent of U. S. families are now represented by the traditional two-parent model of father/husband as financial supporter and mother/wife as homemaker. The increased number of women remaining in the work force at the close of World War II began a trend that has continued to the present. The result is that this traditional family is no longer the norm. Women with children working outside the home has replaced the norm of the mother as homemaker as was traditional prior to World War II (Braverman, 1989).

Seventy percent of all school-age children in the

U.S. are in families in which both parents work outside the home. Sixty percent of these children are under the age of six (Zigler, 1989). The percentage of single parent head-of-household families has increased dramatically over the past 25 years; this family type is now the fastest growing segment of the work force (Solomon, 1994). Despite persuasive evidence documenting a dramatic change in the composition of U.S. families, there has been little change in the workplace to assist employees in the battle of balancing job/family issues. For the most part, the workplace has been relatively unresponsive to the needs of men and women who both work and bear the responsibility of rearing children (Scarr, Phillips, and McCartney, 1990). This changing workforce, now including a high percentage of women of child-bearing age, many single parents, and more dual income families, calls for organizations to help people manage the duality of work and family.

Women have become contributors in the workplace and American business, as well as major contributors to the family budget. As the number of working mothers with young children increases, the need for child-care is crucial as families struggle to maintain a balance between their jobs

and their home life. Of the working mothers interviewed by Stipek and McCroskey in 1989, nine percent of them said they had taken a less-than-desirable position with a company because the location was nearer to affordable child-care (either a relative or a low cost facility). Stipek and McCroskey (1989) also found that 26 percent of the non-working mothers they interviewed would work if affordable child-care was available. In addition, mothers who were working part-time said they would increase their hours on the job if affordable child-care were made available.

Importance of Child-care to Working Parents

The increase of mothers in the workforce has also increased the number of studies done on the impact of work/family conflict on the well-being of the employee/parent (Galinsky, 1986; Hughes and Galinsky, 1994; Hoffman, 1989; Zigler, 1989;). In these studies, well-being is measured in terms of stress related to work/family conflict and its impact on effectiveness in the workplace. Women who have had children during a time when they were also committed to working outside the home, know that critical issues related to child-care affect their personal

well-being and performance on the job. Even those who have supportive spouses and well paying jobs experience distress and anxiety when child-care arrangements break down (Mason and Duberstein, 1992).

In 1987, Galinsky and Hughes conducted a study of dual-income parents with children age 12 and under. They found that on-the-job stress related to difficulties with child-care arrangements was predictive of absenteeism at work (Galinsky, 1992). Other literature supports this finding and also reports that mothers with preschool children were tardy more often, missed work more often, and experienced more work/family conflict (Emlen and Koren, 1984; Frenandez, 1986; Galinsky, 1988; Goff, Mount, and Jamison, 1990).

According to Kossek and Nichol (1990), job performance is a combination of ability, opportunity, and motivation. Child-care may provide employees an opportunity to perform to the highest of their abilities. "Employees who are freed from child care worries may hold better attitudes about managing work and child-care, be better able to concentrate, and less frequently have to play catch up on the job" (Kossek and Nichol, 1990). Ready access to child-

care gives employees more control over work/family conflict, helping to reduce the negative spillover between the two domains (Goff, Mount, and Jamison, 1990).

Child care programs may also increase women's self confidence in their abilities to manage the duality of maternal and professional work roles (Bandura, 1986). An on-site child-care center is a visible organizational step towards creating a climate in which women with young children view their professional work roles as a priority as well as a normal function in their lives (Kossek and Nichol, 1992). Even though more men are participating in parenting at a greater level of involvement than in previous decades, research shows that working women continue to spend more time on child-care than men do, regardless of marital status (Hughes and Galinsky, 1994; Naff, 1994; O'Carolan, 1987). Research also shows that women with children have fewer chances for career advancement than men with children. Frequently being the primary source of child-care, women often do not have the flexibility to work longer hours. Because of these obligations, women may be bypassed in consideration for promotions or important career developmental opportunities

(Naff, 1994).

Because women are more likely to be responsible for the care of children and therefore cannot work as late, or may be absent more frequently, employers may believe that women are less committed to their careers than men. The impact of these assumptions on the developmental aspects of women's careers is an important factor for organizations to recognize. Even though many businesses are taking steps to assist families in their struggle to maintain balance between home and the workplace by providing child-care, women with young children may still be denied career development opportunities based on an assumption of lesser commitment to their careers (Lewis, 1993). Ellen Galinsky of the Work and Family Institute says, "...work and family programs may allow women to work fewer hours, perhaps inadvertently creating a 'mommy track' where women are seen as less committed and less worthy of promotion" (Shellenberger, 1992).

Preferences for Job Attributes

Past research has shown that men place more importance on job content, self-expression, long-term career objectives, and decision-influencing factors at work than

do women. Women tend to identify work environment and interpersonal relationships as more important factors of consideration in job satisfaction (Jurgensen, 1978).

Several factors may influence these preferences for job attributes including cultural values of society and family, perception of the feminine role, and the lack of self confidence among women (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974).

In 1983, Lacy, Brokemeier, and Shepard examined preferences for job attributes and commitment to work as categorized by sex differences. The five job characteristics they examined were 1) salary, 2) job security, 3) hours spent at work, 4) rate of promotion, and 5) meaningful accomplishment at work. Men (47.1%) and women (52.9) chose meaningful accomplishment as the most important job attribute. Income (men, 19.8% and women, 19.5%) and promotion (men, 19.4% and women, 17.9%) were ranked second and third. Job security (men, 9.0% and women, 5.8%) was third and hours at work (men, 4.7% and women, 3.9%) was ranked last. Although similar results were found for men and women, women showed a significantly higher ($p < .001$) preference for meaningful accomplishment than men (Lacy, et al, 1983).

Previous research had shown marital status as a variable affecting preferences of job attributes according to sex (Jurgensen, 1978). Lacy, Brokemeier, and Shepard (1983), found only slight differences, in that divorced women and widows were more likely to choose income as their first preference in job attributes. One limitation to this study, however, was that it did not mention the presence of children to support as a variable.

The "Mommy Track"

Felice Schwartz (1989), examined the differences between professional men and women at work in their commitment, turnover rates, likelihood of promotion, and career interruptions. She proposed that two separate career tracks should be developed within organizations because many gender differences result from issues involving maternity rather than socialization. She labeled the two tracks as "career-primary" and "career-and-family" (Schwartz, 1989). The career-and-family track was designed to put "mommies" into part-time positions with fewer benefits and opportunities for promotion. The career-primary woman would be in a full-time track in competition with men and not associated with the potential of

"mothering" responsibilities taking her out of the workplace for child-bearing and child-care responsibilities (Dubeck and Borman, 1997). Unfortunately, though this division of roles may recognize the importance of parenting, these career tracks appear to penalize women who desire to have a family and develop careers simultaneously.

Although men are parents in the same percentage as women, in the process of developing their careers they do not spend as much time caring for their children as women. Women have moved into the professional workforce to a greater extent than men have moved into handling home/family responsibilities such as child-care and housework (Valian 1998). Working women are averaging three hours a day on housework while their husbands are averaging 17 minutes. Further, although more women are working than ever before, there is still a wage gap in the workforce. One hundred years ago, women earned 60% of what men did. Today they earn 70% of what men do and after working a full day outside the home, they start a "second shift" when they arrive at home (Hochschild, 1990). Few workplaces assist employees of either gender in the balancing of family and professional lives (Valian, 1998).

The importance of income cannot be underestimated because parents with a dual income pay an average of 10% of their combined earnings for child-care; single mothers average over 21% (Maynard, 1994). Some employers are addressing the issues of cost and on-the-job stress related to child-care problems through their willingness to implement child-care programs to meet their employees' needs (Petersen & Massengill, 1988; Maynard, 1994). Many are realizing that child-care benefits enable employees to perform at a greater capacity by relieving some of the stress of juggling work/family issues and allowing them to focus on their jobs (Kossek and Nichol, 1992).

The numbers of working parents and the percentage of their salaries spent on child-care clearly indicate a growing need for child-care programs. However impressive these statistics that document the inadequacies of child-care availability, they do not adequately portray the issues employees encounter in daily conflict between their work and family responsibilities. They don't tell the story of anxiety in the early morning rush as parents get their kids out of bed and begin the daily routine of getting everyone fed, dressed, and off to school or day-

care, while getting themselves to work on time. Nor do they show the angst that a working parent experiences on days when their child is ill and needs a doctor's care, or is having trouble in school (Stipek and McCroskey, 1989). Statistics do not give a realistic picture of the "three o'clock syndrome" - the anxiety parents experience in late afternoons when the clock says school is out and their thoughts travel to the bus stop and whether their child has arrived safely at home or their point of after school day-care. Employees do not believe they can be honest about work and family issues that overlap, causing conflict, without jeopardizing their careers and may disguise time away from the job for reasons other than child-care. Parents still prefer to say they have car trouble rather than child-care problems (Solomon, 1994).

Former U. S. Congresswoman Pat Schroeder claimed that many of our representatives in Washington argue that business needs to come to the aid of the family unit. However, few legislators have taken action toward the implementation of "family-friendly" initiatives. Her study of the issues showed that one argument often made by business owners and employees, as well, is that child-care

is unavailable, or if available, limited in scope or too expensive (Schroeder,1989).

Costs to Business Related to Inadequate Child-care

Ellen Galinsky is the president of the Work and Families Institute of New York, where extensive research has been conducted on business efforts to help employees balance their work/family responsibilities. Galinsky says, ..."people who have more child-care breakdowns are more stressed; those who pay a higher proportion of their family income for child-care have more conflict" (Solomon, 1994). In 1991, Galinsky and her colleagues conducted a study for *Fortune* magazine on the effects of inadequate child-care on absenteeism at 188 companies, including Johnson & Johnson, IBM, Marriott International, and General Electric. Their survey of employees with children under the age of 12 showed that 25% experienced instances of absenteeism, tardiness, and lower concentration due to child-care breakdowns, two to five times every three months (Solomon, 1994). The Merrill-Palmer Institute surveyed working parents about lost time on the job due to child-care problems. The Institute estimated the related cost to the employers in this study to be between \$66,000 to \$3 million

a year in businesses ranging from 500 to over 50,000 employees. Rosemary Jordano, president of Children First, Incorporated, a firm that develops and operates corporate child-care centers, said that child-care related absences resulted in a cost of \$3 billion in lost productivity for businesses nationwide (Jordano and Oates, 1997). In a review of these data, Solomon (1994) concluded that businesses who help their employees with child-care will experience a decrease in absenteeism, tardiness and productivity.

Benefits to Businesses Who Sponsor Child-care

In the U. S., 6,000 businesses (out of a total of six million) offer child-care benefits to their employees. This number has increased an estimated 400 hundred percent over the figures reported ten years ago by the Family and Work Institute of New York City (Maynard, 1994). An example is provided by Union Bank of Monterey Park, California, which built an on-site center for 60 children of their 1,500 employees in 1987. The cost of the child-care is subsidized by the bank to keep the cost to the employee at a minimum. The cost to the employee at the start-up time was \$80 per week for infants and \$60 per week for children

aged one or more years. The bank's experience provides a look at how companies can benefit from helping their employees who have child-care needs.

The effects of Union Bank's on-site child-care center on work behaviors of selected employees were compared before and after using the center. They were compared to one or more of the following groups:

- Themselves during the year prior to using the center.
- Employees using other types of child-care.
- Employees who were on the waiting list for use of the on-site center.
- Other bank employees in the same area.

(Ransom, et al, 1989)

In the first year of operation, the turnover rate at Union Bank decreased by 7.3 percent (Ransom, et al, 1989). Twenty-seven percent of applicants for open positions at the bank said that the child-care benefit was an important factor in their decision to apply for work at the bank, supporting the contention that successful recruitment is partly the result of employer provided child-care.

Furthermore, 61 percent of Union Bank's new hires said that

the on-site center was a factor in their decision to accept a position at the bank (U. S. Small Business Administration, (1994)).

Union Bank also found that absenteeism decreased by 1.9 days per person among parents utilizing the center. This reduction translated to an estimated savings of \$19,000. Moreover, maternity leaves averaged 1.2 weeks shorter than for those mothers who used child-care elsewhere. In the first year, Union Bank estimated that it reduced labor costs by \$138,000 to 232,000, through a reduction in absenteeism, tardiness, and turnover. This figure was based on the weighted average of monthly salaries of those absent and compared with the average cost of a replacement worker in areas where a replacement was necessary (Ransom, et al, 1989). Data from actual profit and loss statements have not been made available, but similar success stories have been reported by numerous other companies of varying sizes. These results from Union Bank's experience suggest that the payback period for recovering the initial outlay of funds for on-site child-care is less than five years (U. S. Small Business Administration, 1994). Although actual statistics have not

been made available, Nyloncraft, Inc., of Mishawaka, Indiana, Lincoln National Life Insurance Company in Fort Wayne, Indiana, and Hoffman-La Roche, Inc., in Nutley, New Jersey, all reported significant drops in levels of absenteeism and turnover, as well as improvements in productivity with the implementation of child-care programs (Petersen & Massengill, 1988).

The start-up costs for Union Bank were \$430,000. The bank's contribution to the annual costs amount to 40 percent of the operating expense of the child-care center, with the remainder of the funds coming from the individuals using the center. Although Union Bank reported a recovery of initiating funds through reduced labor costs (Ransom, et al, 1989; Maynard, 1994), to what extent can other companies expect this same outcome? Can a firm with fewer employees afford to implement a similar program to help meet the needs of its employees? The answers to these questions lie in careful scrutiny of the type of benefits offered to employees and how closely the benefits fulfill the needs of the company as well as its employees. A business owner might think of child-care only in terms of an on-site center, with substantial start-up costs,

additional administrative duties, and increased liability concerns (Maynard, 1994). There are, however, some alternatives to fit the diversified needs of both the organization and its employees.

Alternative Approaches to On-Site Child-care

Flexible benefits. Donald J. Petersen and Douglas Massengill (1988) outline five approaches to child-care used by businesses within the United States. The first is the flexible benefits and spending accounts program in which the employer does not become involved in the actual service of child-care but provides funds to the employee in need, to subsidize her/his individual costs. Hoffman-La Roche, a pharmaceutical company in Nutley, N.J., uses this approach. In this program, the employee pays \$1.50 per hour, per child and the company subsidizes the remainder of the cost up to a preset amount. Other companies offer a yearly stipend to be used for child-care arrangements at the discretion of the employee. This arrangement does not disadvantage the employee who does not need child-care. The same dollar amount is available to employees for use on other benefits.

Referral centers. The second arrangement is referral

centers. Again the employer is not actually providing child-care, *per se*. Instead, a contract is established with a referral service that is expert in locating available child-care facilities and can assist employees as they interview and select a potential child-care center. The cost of referral services is low in comparison to operating an on-site center or subsidizing the fees charged by day care centers.

Consortium of firms. Petersen and Massengill (1988), label the third possibility a consortium of firms. In this case, several businesses pool resources to support a common child-care facility. An example would be an industrial park where several businesses collectively provide the funds, space, operation, and maintenance for a center intended for the combined use of their employees. An example of this type of arrangement can be found in Atlanta where the First National Bank and four other organizations pooled resources to build a child-care center that was in a location central to all five contributing businesses. One organization donated the space and all five split the cost of construction for a facility that provides day-care for 120 children. The cost of operation is covered by fees paid by

those using the facility plus subsidizing funds from the sponsoring employers (Petersen & Massengill, 1988).

Public-private partnerships. A fourth possibility is the public-private partnership. In this situation, businesses contribute funds to city and/or county government agencies to be used for local child-care centers. In some instances, local governments require businesses to provide child-care or to contribute funds to be used towards affordable child-care facilities for low to moderate income families. Such partnerships are usually found in large metropolitan cities. An example in California was the joining of the BankAmerica Corporation, Chevron, Clorox Company, Mervyn's, McKesson Corporation, and Pacific Gas and Electric Company in committing funds to San Francisco and Contra Costa counties for local child-care centers and referral agencies (Petersen & Massingill, 1988).

Flex-time scheduling. A fifth option for assisting parents in balancing work/family responsibilities exercised by some businesses is the flex-time work schedule. Even though the sliding band of the time frame may be only one to two hours, it is generally enough to cover the

difference in work, school, and day care hours of one or both parents (Solomon, 1994). According to Barney Olmsted, co-director of the San Francisco based firm, New Ways to Work, "Flexible work arrangements mean the ability to reallocate hours of labor without hire/fire ramifications" (Solomon, 1994). One third of dual income couples handle their child-care issues by working sequential shifts. One parent works the day shift, while the other stays home with the child/ren, then they switch roles for the evening shift. These couples rely on the flex-time schedules to balance their work and child-care needs. The down side to this approach, according to Dr. Harriet Presser, of the University of Maryland, is that the lack of time couples spend together may contribute to a higher divorce rate (Shellenbarger, 1998).

Benefits of On-site Child-care

The final arrangement Petersen and Massengill (1988) outlined is the on-site program. Despite the relatively high start-up costs previously mentioned, on-site facilities are the most advantageous arrangement for the employee with child-care needs. Employees can bring their children with them when they come to work and visit them

during breaks throughout the day. When the work day is finished, parents have their child with them during the ride home, eradicating another worry that traffic will delay their arrival at day care (Solomon, 1994). Also, businesses that operate around the clock, seven days a week can accommodate their employees' needs when the conventional hours of off-site centers may not be able to do so (Petersen & Massengill, 1988).

With more innovative programs being developed in response to the changing needs of the workforce, business interest in the possible involvement in child-care is increasing (Stipek & McCroskey (1989). However, systemic change is not an easy task. In most work environments, managers still establish performance standards for employees who work at the same desk from nine to five (Solomon, 1994). Kossek and Nichol (1992) report that supervisors and/or managers are more likely to rate employee performance highly, if child-care-related absenteeism is viewed as being low. Goff, Mount, and Jamison (1990) found that the less work/family conflict related to child-care that employees experienced, the lower the level of absenteeism.

Considerations in Establishing On-site Child-care

Good business sense dictates that benefits to employers and employees alike be weighed against the costs of implementing any child-care program. There needs to be an accurate assessment of employee needs and preferences as well as an investigation of all possible child-care options, followed by a complete utility/cost analysis resulting in a realistic expectation of profit and loss (Petersen & Massengill, 1988). American businesses have an opportunity to realize a return on their investment through lower absenteeism and turnover, improved productivity, higher morale, and more successful recruitment when they provide child-care programs (Petersen & Massengill, 1988; Stipek & McCroskey, 1989; Zigler, 1989; Goff, et al, 1990; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Maynard, 1994; Solomon, 1994; Jordano & Oates, 1997).

The literature reviewed shows a need and desire for child-care programs that function in harmony with the demands of parents' work schedules and salaries, along with improved work records and productivity that comes to employers when the anxiety of work/family conflict is relieved. For many businesses, employer sponsored child-

care may be a sound business decision.

Employee Benefits

Benefits are an expected means of compensation for most employees. For most employers, benefits beyond salary may account for 50% of an employee's cost. As with child-care, the history of benefits extends to World War II. During World War II, there were few people available for the number of jobs left vacant by those fighting the war. There were federal controls on the maximum amount of salaries that made it difficult to attract, motivate and retain employees. As a result, employers began offering benefits such as health insurance, multi-year contracts and training to recruit the best applicants. Benefits also became a strong bargaining tool for unions. When a benefit becomes part of a labor contract, it remains a benefit for the duration of that contract and any price increases for that benefit are absorbed by the employer. From the employee's perspective, the face value of many benefits is greater when compared to the out-of-pocket expense involved if the employee pays for an individual insurance policy or private service such as child-care (Wallace and Fay, 1988). Salary, on the other hand is a finite sum paid on a regular

basis, and according to Heneman and Schwab (1985), employee satisfaction with benefits is independent of and separate from salary satisfaction. Benefits tend to be given in a "blanket" style by organizations. If one employee receives a benefit, all employees of a bargaining group receive that benefit.

In a study done on compensation satisfaction in relation to the amount of coverage and the supplemental cost to the individual employee, researchers found that employees who had accurate information as to the actual costs of benefit coverage placed a higher value on the benefit than on the cash compensation (Dreher, Ash, & Bretz, 1988). Employees who had no perception of the individual cost of benefits such as health insurance placed a higher value on salary. Their conclusion was that any increase in the level of coverage would have a positive effect only on a specific group of employees.

Specifically, those who had an accurate perception of the out-of-pocket expense required to provide the same coverage for themselves and their dependents, valued the benefits over the salary level. They further suggested that companies invest in programs to educate employees on the

cost of benefits and keep employees informed as to any changes in the levels of benefits (Dreher, Ash, & Bretz, 1988).

As corporate downsizing and outsourcing have become a means of trimming overhead expense for large corporations and more and more college graduates enter the competitive job market, benefits have become an important tool in recruiting and retaining the best applicants for employment. For parents in the job market, benefits have become a critical issue in balancing work and family life. From the developmental aspect, this study examines the correlations of age, education, and type of child-care used by parents with at least one child in need of full time care during the workday.

The purpose of this research is to show how the parameters of the workplace directly or indirectly effect an individual's development across the life-span through the choices they make in order to balance their family needs with their work schedules. Developmental levels such as age, education, and type of child-care used were correlated with choices of job-offer scenarios with varying levels of employer-sponsored benefits. The researcher also

looked at the respondents' choices involving career advancement over their choices of benefits such as child-care and health-care provisioning. These choices might effect the developmental processes of working parents as well as the type of care received by their children during working hours. The choices made by job applicants might also effect the quality of staffing sought by employers. It is difficult to accurately assess the needs of an individual at work without integrating the developmental processes and growth patterns of that same person (Kossek & Nichol, 1992).

Hypotheses

Two hypotheses were proposed:

- 1.) the availability of a child-care program will be rated highly and significantly in job selection by working parents who have children still at home, in comparison with other job benefits;
- 2.) parents with small children will rate child-care higher than career advancement opportunities.

METHOD

Pilot Study

Purpose. A pilot study was conducted to select the most desirable job characteristics to be used as the dependent variables in the main research project. Previous research has compared different salary levels to "blanket-style" benefits coverage with varied costs to the individual employee (Dreher, et al, 1988). The pilot study sought to separate the benefits previous research compared in combination to salary alone.

Sample. One hundred-fifty students in psychology classes at California State University, San Bernardino, who had at least one child under the age of six, participated in the pilot study.

Materials. The survey consisted of two parts. The first part of the survey listed ten job characteristics. The participants were asked to rate them according to their personal preference on a Likert scale of one to five with one being *not important*, and five being *extremely important*.

The second part of the survey presented the same job

characteristics in the same order. The participants were asked to rank them from one to ten with one being the most important and ten being the least important. (See Appendix E for the pilot survey.)

Results. In Part I of the pilot study, the five categories receiving the highest percentage of fours (very important) and fives (extremely important) were as follows: Salary, 97.3%, 2.) Child-care, 82.7%, 3.) Comfortable driving distance from home, 82%, 4.) Health-care, 78.7%, and 5.) Rate of promotion, 73.4%. Table 1 shows the breakdown of responses.

In part II of the pilot study, participants ranked the following items a five or less with a 1 representing the most desirable characteristic: 1.) Salary, 98.0%, 2.) Comfortable driving distance from home, 94.7%, 3.) Child-care, 93.3%, 4.) Health-care, 92.7% and 5.) Rate of promotion, 88.7%. The rationale for choosing the number five as a cutoff point was to maintain a manageable length for the survey. Table 2 presents the distribution of ranks.

Table 1

Frequency Distribution for Pilot Study Part I

	N	Freq.	Percent
Salary			
< 4	4	4	2.7
4	19	15	10.0
5	150	131	87.3
Child-care			
< 4	26	26	17.3
4	90	64	42.7
5	150	60	40.0
Driving Dist.			
< 4	27	27	18.0
4	84	57	38.0
5	150	66	44.0
Health-care			
< 4	32	32	21.4
4	95	63	42.0
5	150	55	36.7
Promotion			
< 4	40	40	26.6
4	86	46	30.7
5	150	64	42.7

Table 2

Frequency Distributions for Pilot Study Part II

	N	Freq.	Percent
Salary			
1	119	119	79.3
2	133	14	9.3
3	141	8	5.3
4	146	5	3.3
5	147	1	.7
=/>5	150	3	2.0
Driving Dist.			
1	9	9	6.0
2	35	26	17.3
3	49	14	9.3
4	90	41	27.3
5	142	52	34.7
=/>5	150	8	5.4
Child-care			
1	5	5	3.3
2	33	28	18.7
3	93	60	40.0
4	132	39	26.0
5	140	8	5.3
=/>5	150	10	6.7
Health-care			
1	1	1	.7
2	40	39	26.0
3	79	39	26.0
4	110	31	20.7
5	139	29	19.3
=/>5	150	11	7.4
Promotion			
1	14	14	9.3
2	49	35	23.3
3	68	19	12.7
4	92	24	16.0
5	133	41	27.3
=/>5	150	17	11.4

The category of *comfortable driving distance from home* is not a job benefit readily controlled by an employer and was therefore held at a constant within each scenario in the main thesis study. Salary, promotion rate, health-care and child-care had the highest percentages and were used to compile the scenarios used in the thesis measure.

Main Thesis Study

Sample I. Sample I consisted of 87 students at California State University, San Bernardino, who answered a brief demographic questionnaire after they had responded to scenarios depicting hypothetical job offers. The modal respondent was 28 years old, female, white, had some college and was the parent of one child. See Appendix B for the demographic questionnaire and refer to Tables 3 and 4 for descriptives and frequencies.

Sample II. Sample II consisted of 88 working parents from the students and faculty of California State University, San Bernardino, as well as working parents utilizing three day-care centers in San Bernardino County, California. This group answered a more detailed demographic questionnaire than Sample I, pertaining to the type and cost of child-care they were presently using, level of

education and employment record since high school. The average respondent in Sample II was 31 years old, female, white, had some college and had two children. (See Appendix C for the demographic sheet and refer to tables 3 and 4 for statistics regarding the differences between the two samples).

Table 3

Descriptives of Samples I, II and Combined Group

	Sample I	Sample II	Combined Samples
<u>Gender</u>			
Female	71 (81.6%)	68 (77.3%)	139 (79.2%)
Male	16 (18.4%)	20 (22.7%)	36 (20.6%)
Total	87 (100%)	88 (100%)	175 (100%)
<u>Ethnicity</u>			
White	46 (52.9%)	49 (55.7%)	95 (54.3%)
Afro.-Amer.	15 (17.2%)	16 (18.2%)	31 (17.7%)
Latino	10 (11.5%)	17 (19.3%)	27 (15.4%)
Asian	5 (5.7%)	6 (6.8%)	11 (6.3%)
Native Amer. Indian	1 (1.1%)	0 (0%)	1 (.6%)
Other	4 (4.6%)	0 (0%)	4 (2.3%)
Undisclosed	5 (5.7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Total	87 (100%)	88 (100%)	175 (100%)
<u>Level of Ed.*</u>			
High School		4 (4.5%)	4 (2.3%)
Some College	84 (96.6%)	58 (65.9%)	142 (81.1%)
B.S./B.A.	16 (3.4%)	9 (10.2%)	9 (5.1%)
Grad. Student		7 (8.0%)*	10 (5.7%)
M.S./M.A.		8 (9.1%)*	8 (4.6%)
Ph.D.		2 (2.3%)*	2 (1.1%)
Total	87 (100%)	88 (100%)	175 (100%)
<u>Marital Status</u>			
Married	42 (42.3%)	54 (61.4%)	96 (54.9%)
Divorced	11 (12.6%)	8 (9.1%)	19 (10.9%)
Separated	4 (4.6%)	1 (1.1%)	5 (2.9%)
Widowed	0 (0%)	2 (2.3%)	2 (1.1%)
Single	29 (33.3%)	23 (26.1%)	52 (29.7%)
Undisclosed	1 (1.1%)		1 (.6%)
Total	87 (100%)	88 (100%)	175 (100%)

Note * Indicates significant differences between the two samples.

Table 4

Descriptives for Samples I, II and Combined Group.

	Sample I	Sample II	Combined Samples
<u>Age *</u>			
N	87	88	175
Mean	28.40	30.57	29.09
Std. Dev.	7.10	8.69	7.92
Minimum	19.00	18.00	18.00
Maximum	58.00	51.00	58.00
<u>Age/Youngest Child</u>			
N	87	88	175
Mean	1.71	2.79	2.78
Std. Dev.	2.78	1.77	1.74
Minimum	.20	.25	.20
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00
<u>Number of Kids *</u>			
N	87	88	175
Mean	1.72	2.17	1.95
Std. Dev.	.96	1.27	1.15
Minimum	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum	6.00	6.00	6.00
<u>Annual Income</u>			
N	87	88	175
Mean	\$31,479	\$38,264	\$34,891
Std. Dev.	\$23,209	\$26,829	\$25,253
Minimum	0	\$3,000	0
Maximum	\$105,000	\$130,000	\$130,000

Note * Indicates significant differences between the 2 samples.

Collapsed Sample

To determine if the two samples could be collapsed, t-tests were run for Sample I and II on respondent's age, number of children, respondent's age and annual income. As can be seen in Table 5, participants in Sample I were younger and had fewer children than in Sample II.

Table 5

t-tests Comparing Sample I with Sample II

	Sample #	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	Sig.
Age	1.00	72	28.47	6.68	10.84	.001
	2.00	80	30.54	8.76		
Age of Youngest Child	1.00	72	2.76	1.73	.247	.620
	2.00	80	2.78	1.72		
Number Of Kids	1.00	72	1.71	1.01	4.650	.033
	2.00	80	2.18	1.30		
Annual Income	1.00	72	\$34,024	\$23,936	1.337	.249
	2.00	80	\$38,850	\$27,867		

Chi-squares were run for ethnicity, gender, level of education and marital status. Differences were found for

the level of education. Participants in Sample I had less education than those in Sample II.

Table 6

Chi-Squares for Samples I and II

	Ethnic	Gender	LevelEd	Marstat
Chi-Square	11.23	.739	24.99	4.87
Df	7	1	5	4
Sig. Level	.129	.390	.000	.301

For the main study, the samples were combined and the variables age, education, and number of children were analyzed for the combined sample and the samples separately. With the two samples combined, the typical respondent was 29 years old, white, female, had some college, married and the parent of two children. See Tables 3 and 4 for descriptives of the combined samples.

While all the respondents of the first group indicated an annual income, they were not specifically asked if they, themselves were employed. All eighty-eight respondents of the second group indicated they were employed; almost all (96.6%) were employed outside the home. For sample II, the weekly average number of hours spent on the job was 34.

The average number of years in the work force since graduating from high school was 11. The total household annual income reported ranged from \$2,200 to \$130,000, and the mean was \$34,891.

MATERIALS

Sample I

The survey for the first sample consisted of 81 job scenarios with all possible combinations of four job characteristics (salary, promotion rate, type of health-care, and child-care provisioning) at levels of above average, average and below average for the industry. The scenarios ranged from one combination having the highest of each job benefit to one scenario having all below average job benefits. For example, scenario number one offered a job with above average salary, fast rate of promotion, best health plan and on-site child-care. Scenario number 81 offered a job with below average salary, slow rate of promotion, not the best health plan and no child-care. Respondents were asked to rate on a scale of 1 to 9, with 9 being the highest the degree to which each of these hypothetical job offer scenarios was most acceptable to

them for employment (see Appendix A for the actual survey).

Sample II

The second sample received a survey with the same set of scenarios with a more detailed set of demographic questions, including specified choices of child-care, monthly cost of child-care, specified range of education in both undergraduate and graduate levels, specified choices of ethnicity including White, Afro-American, Latino, Asian, Native American, Indian, and Other. Questions concerned with employment included whether or not the respondent was currently employed, how many hours per week spent on the job, how many years since high school have been spent in the work force, and the total household annual income (see surveys in Appendix A).

PROCEDURE

Sample I

The first survey was distributed to students in psychology classes at all levels of education at California State University, San Bernardino, who had at least one child under the age of six. Upon completion, students

returned the surveys to the Psychology Department Peer Advising Center, where they received an extra credit receipt.

Sample II

The second set of surveys was distributed to working parents with at least one child under the age of six. The respondents came from the Psychology Department at California State University, San Bernardino, utilizing both graduate and undergraduate students, as well as faculty members, and at four day-care facilities in San Bernardino County. The researcher personally collected the surveys. Psychology students were given an extra credit receipt if the survey was completed and all requirements for participation were met. The parents at the day-care facilities were approached by the researcher. The respondents filled out an entry blank at their respective day-care centers and were automatically entered into a drawing for \$50.00. The managers of the day-care centers collected the surveys and submitted the entry blanks.

ANALYSES

The policy capturing method was used to develop the scenarios and to explain the judgment of each participant's strategy for combining the informational cues (Dougherty, Ebert, and Callender, 1986). Using a simple model of linear regression, the value assigned by each participant to the individual scenarios was regressed against the values assigned to each of the different levels of the job benefits within the scenarios. As each participant's judgment is observed, the decision making policy is summarized in the beta weights and R^2 values that result. "This approach, called *bootstrapping*, has generally been superior to the decision maker in a variety of judgmental settings because it systematically smoothes the variances in the cue-to-judgment relationships" (Dougherty, Ebert, and Callender, 1986, p 9).

Before the regressions were conducted, SPSS DESCRIPTIVES and FREQUENCIES were run to verify that all responses were within the appropriate ranges and that none of the responses were miscoded outside the expected range.

After all known errors were located and corrected, t-tests and chi-squares were run, as noted earlier, to determine if the two samples could be combined.

For each participant, the 81 scenarios were the initial data points. The rating each participant assigned to each scenario was the dependent variable. The independent variables were the quality level of the salary and promotion rates, type of child-care, and the amount of health-care benefits offered. For example, scenario number one was composed of: above industry average salary (coded 3 on a 1 to 3 point scale); faster rate of promotion (coded 3 on a 3 point scale) than other companies in the area; one of the best health-care plans available (coded 3 on a 3 point scale); and an on-site child-care at no cost to the employee (coded 3 on a 3 point scale). Scenario number 41 (average salary; average rate of promotion; average health-care plan; subsidized child-care) was coded 2 each, as a "middle of the road" combination of all possible offerings. The last scenario (81) represented the least of all possible combinations and each job benefit was coded 1.

Multiple regressions were run to determine standardized weights (betas) for each of the four

employment incentives for each participant. These values were the data of interest and were entered into the demographic data file, along with the multiple R for each participant and the error term for the regression equation to determine the relative importance of each of these four independent variables on the dependent variable (respondent's respective rating).

Correlations were run to determine if regression weights were related to the demographics of level of education, age, type of child-care used, cost of child-care, time in the work force, and annual income. All participants had one or more children aged 6 years or less. The age of the youngest child (chage 1) was correlated with the beta weights in each case assigned to child-care and rate of promotion to test for significance as to whether or not parents of small children in need of full time day-care might forgo possible career advancement in a job offer, in favor of child-care as a job benefit.

Table 7

Correlations of Betas Related to Selected Demographics

N = 152	Age	Promot	Health	Salary
Promot	-.095 .245			
Health	-.057 .489	.005 .947		
Salary	-.049 .549	-.150 .067	-.136 .097	
Childcar	.068 .410	-.234** .004	.164* .044	-.596** .000

Note ** Indicates significance at the .01 level.

* Indicates significance at the .05 level.

ANCILLARY ANALYSES

Correlations were run within the individual samples to determine the effect of the increased demographic information collected in Sample II. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) of beta weights was run by the type of child-care used. A subsequent multivariate analysis of co-variance (MANCOVA) was run with salary as the co-variate to determine the effect of respondents' actual salary on the type of child-care sought by the participant. The same analysis was repeated with participants with children under the age of six (the group

needing the maximum amount of child-care during normal working hours), level of education of and annual income reported by the respondent.

RESULTS

Rs for the regressions ranged from .087 to .971 with a median of .829 and a mean of .793. Respondents' data whose R-values were below .7 were considered to be sufficiently inconsistent in their responses (less than 50% of the variance accounted for in their ratings) and were removed from subsequent analyses. Participants 3, 5, 7, 65, and 175 were removed from the analysis, as their responses appeared to be random. Removing these respondents left 152 participants whose R-values ranged from .708 to .971 with a median of .843 and a mean of .841. The beta weights for the salary component ranged from .120 to .955 with a median of .542 and a mean of .537; for promotion rate, the betas ranged from -.068 to .648 with a median of .218 and a mean of .238; for health-care benefits, the betas ranged from -.037 to .785 with a median of .395 and a mean of .379; and finally for child-care, the betas ranged from -.367 to .846 with a median of .146 and a mean of .204.

Table 8

Descriptives for Betas of Scenarios

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Median	Std. Dev.
R	152	.708	.971	.841	.843	.058
Salary	152	.120	.955	.537	.542	.205
Promotion	152	-.068	.648	.238	.218	.142
Health-care	152	-.037	.785	.379	.395	.182
Child-care	152	-.367	.846	.204	.146	.292

A repeated ANOVA indicated that the beta weight for salary was significantly greater than the other job characteristics ($F = 58.136, p < .005$). Health-care was rated less important than salary, but more important than child-care and promotion rate ($F = 58.176, p < .005$).

The betas for variables of interest (salary, health-care benefits, promotion rate and child-care) were inter-correlated and correlated with number of children, age of the youngest child, respondents' level of education, and respondents' current salaries. Betas for salary correlated negatively and significantly with child-care availability (-.595) and health-care benefits (-.590). Salary

correlated negatively but not significantly with the amount of money respondents reported spending on child-care (COSTCC, $-.302$) and their level of education ($-.319$). The level of education correlated positively with child-care ($.410$) and the amount of money spent on child-care ($.657$).

Table 9

Correlation of Betas

N = 152	Promot	Health	Childcar	CostCC	LevelEd
Salary	$-.153$	$-.590^*$	$-.595^*$	$-.302^*$	$-.319^*$
Promot		$.008$	$-.233$	$-.168$	$-.151$
Health			$.103$	$.156$	$.131$
Childcar				$.441^*$	$.410^*$
CostCC					$.657^*$

Note * Indicates significance, $p < .05$.

The second hypothesis stated that parents with children under the age of 6, and in need of full time day-care would forgo possible career advancement opportunities in favor of child-care as a job benefit. Correlations were run between the ages of the 2 youngest children (to include those who had more than one child under the age of 6) and the betas for child-care and rate of promotion. The age of

the youngest child correlated negatively and significantly with rate of promotion (-.182).

Table 10

Correlations of Betas and Ages of Two Youngest Children

Child	Child-care	Rate of Promotion
Child 1 N = 170	-.047	-.182*
Child 2 N = 93	-.170	-.121

Note * Indicates significance, $p. < .05$.

DISCUSSION

Salary was designated the most salient feature of any job offer, even for parents with small children. These results may be a reflection of the youth of the sample. Most participants were undergraduate students at California State University, San Bernardino (81.1%). More than half the participants were less than 28 years old with a dual mode of 21 and 22 years. Most had little to no experience in a job market that offered benefits as part of their employment status as 50.7% reported working only part-time.

Although many employees do not realize the cost of benefits to their employer, most have direct knowledge of the out of pocket expense when they are paying for these benefits themselves (Dreher, Ash, & Dretz, 1988).

An income status less than the national poverty level was reported by 23.8%, and 19% percent reported earnings of less than \$10,000. Even with these reports of low income, employment inexperience and youthful ages, all participants were parents of at least one child. Many were still living at home with *their* parents acting as the primary source of child-care with no monetary cost to the participant, themselves.

On the one hand, the youthfulness of the sample may be a strength, as most of these young college students will be seeking full time employment after graduation. These results suggest that what young job seekers want most is salary. In contrast, child-care may be more valued by older employees who had experienced the frustration of combining parenting and working full time for an unsympathetic employer. Employees with children in need of child-care programs have experience in the cost and availability of such programs. Employees with this type of

knowledge and experience might be in a better position to weigh the value of job-benefits programs, enabling them to make a more informed choice. They also have experience in balancing their home life and job responsibilities. A sample of participants drawn from these parents may render a more adequate picture on what employers may base their decisions when composing benefits packages for the recruitment and retainment of qualified job applicants.

The ability to determine the value of child-care as a benefit might have been enhanced had salary been held at a constant level of acceptability, according to industry standards, while rate of promotion, health-care and child-care maintained the variability of high, medium, and low desirability. Again the demographics of the participants point to low income and job status, which may have made the attraction of the salary levels seem more important.

Several participants commented that the measure was long and tedious. Seventy-one surveys were disqualified because of random answering or the lack of completion. Holding salary at a constant, just as each scenario presented a job that was a "comfortable driving distance from home" would have shortened the measure from 81 to 27

scenarios, making it less tedious.

An overall picture of the study points to the importance of the sample in capturing the needs of working parents in the workplace today. Young college students who have a young child before they have begun a professional life as a contributor to their chosen field may not have been the most appropriate sample for this type of study. Although there was no overwhelming significance in the rating of child-care over other job benefits, some of the data collected from older parents with more education and experience in the workforce, as well as from those having utilized professional child-care centers, show a trend toward valuing child-care as a job benefit.

In their study of child-care as a job benefit, Petersen and Massengill (1988), conclude that it is a valuable tool for employers to consider in the recruitment of desirable job applicants. "No matter how carefully the data are collected and how accurate they are, however, it is extremely difficult to keep conditions in the organization constant enough so that the impact of child-care can be isolated and measured. Still, widespread positive reports by employers suggest that while benefits

to the organization may be difficult to measure, they are real and, in many cases, considerable" (Petersen and Massengill, 1988).

The lack of significance in support of the hypothesis that parents with small children would forego developmental opportunities in their career paths in favor of employer sponsored/subsidized child-care may also be due to the youth of the sample. The indication here is also that, given a high enough salary other benefits may be purchased as an out-of-pocket expense to the employee.

FUTURE STUDIES

Further assessment of the needs and preferences of parents in the workforce would give a more reliable picture of the impact child-care programs might have on the parameters of profit and loss that sustain and expand business. A sample taken in the workplace of parents who have been working long enough to have personal experience in balancing work/family schedules as well as budgeting finances to cover child-care may yield a clearer picture of the impact child-care might have as a job benefit. Also the paring of the measure to a more precise survey in

addition to more specific demographic questions might provide a clearer picture of the importance of child-care to working parents.

SUMMARY

Fifty years ago, for many middle class Americans, the world of work and family rarely collided. Daddy went to work. Mommy stayed home. Child-care was not a significant issue in the balancing of work and family life.

Now that the briefcase is just as likely to be in Mom's hand as well, child-care problems are spilling over into the workplace. A great deal of data has been cited that support the contention that the lack of sufficient child-care programs does affect absenteeism, tardiness and productivity levels of many employees who are parents. The emotional fatigue, anxiety levels and paths of career development of these same employees are also affected by the lack of sufficient child-care programs.

Much of the literature says that most business structures reflect a cultural foundation that is a thing of the past. The data also shows that some businesses are taking action to assist their employees by implementing

child-care programs as a benefit of employment. However, results of these programs are difficult to measure. To obtain reliable data about the true impact of child-care programs on issues such as absenteeism, turnover, productivity, recruitment and morale, accurate measurements of these functions would be crucial. A time series analysis dating back to at least one year before the implementation of a child-care program would be best suited for the generalizing of any results impacting absenteeism and tardiness. A longitudinal study would be called for in the accurate measurement of productivity, morale and recruitment. A comparison of data collected a year following the introduction of a child-care program to the data documented before may yield reliable information on which companies can base a decision for change in policy. Realistic expectation of profit and loss through the implementation of any child-care program ought to be based on: 1) an accurate assessment of the employee needs and desires, 2) an in-depth investigation of all possible options and 3) a thorough analysis of projected costs.

The effects of insufficient child-care programs on the career development of parents in the workforce might best

be measured over time in comparison studies done on matched groups of employees with to those without children.

The results of this study show that most workers still believe that a rich enough salary would allow them the purchasing power needed to fulfill the needs of health and child-care. The immediate impact of salary increases have a direct impact on the cash flow and operating costs of businesses large and small. As noted earlier, the cost of benefits to an employer may be less than to the individual employee for the same coverage. Additionally, benefits packages often provide tax breaks for both the employer and the employee. Therefore, it may become more prudent for business to provide more in benefits than in hard cash for salaries.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

Read each scenario carefully and **rate it according to your preference by circling one of the numbers from 1 to 9**, with a 1 = Not at all acceptable, and a 9 = A job I'd take in a second, with the numbers in between representing varying degrees of acceptability.

Salary = monies paid for job performance.

Rate of promotion = amount of time on the job before being considered for promotion and/or raise in pay.

Health-care = health insurance paid by the employer.

On-site child-care = day-care center at the job site.

Subsidized child-care = employer provides monetary payment up to a certain amount paid directly to the child-care center of the employees choice.

1. Job offer with above average salary; fast rate of promotion; best health plan; on-site child-care .

A company has offered you a job within a comfortable driving distance from your home. This company is known to offer salaries that are about 30% above industry average and a faster rate of promotion than most of the companies in the area. They offer one of the best health-care plans available and they have an on-site child-care center at the job site.

Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second

TO REDUCE YOUR READING, RELEVANT CHANGES IN EACH OFFER ARE UNDERLINED

All further job offers are within a comfortable driving distance from your home.

2. Average salary ; fast rate of promotion ; best health plan ; on-site child-care .

Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second

3. Below average salary; fast rate of promotions; best health plan; on-site child-care.

Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second

4. Above average salary; average rate of promotion; best health plan; on-site child-care.

Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second

5. Average salary; average rate of promotions; best health plan; on-site child-care.

Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second

6. Below average salary; average rate of promotion; best health plan; on-site child-care.

Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second

7. Above average salary; slow promotions; best health plan; on-site child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
8. Average salary; slow promotions; best health plan; on-site child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
9. Below average salary; slow promotions; best health plan; on-site child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
10. Above average salary; fast rate of promotion; average health plan; on-site child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
11. Average salary; fast rate of promotion; average health plan; on-site child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
12. Below average salary; fast rate of promotion; average health plan; on-site child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
13. Above average salary; fast rate of promotion; not the best health plan; on-site child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
14. Average salary; fast rate of promotion; not the best rate health plan; on-site child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
15. Below average salary; fast rate of promotion; not the best rate health plan; on-site child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
16. Above average salary; average rate of promotion; average health plan; on-site child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
17. Average salary; average rate of promotion; average health plan; on-site child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
18. Below average salary; average rate of promotion; average health plan; on-site child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
19. Above average salary; average rate of promotion; not the best health plan; on-site child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second

20. Average salary; average rate of promotion; not the best health plan; on-site child-care.
 Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
21. Below average salary; average rate of promotion; not the best health plan; on-site child-care.
 Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
22. Above average salary; slow rate of promotion; average health plan; on-site child-care.
 Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
23. Average salary; slow rate of promotion; average health plan; on-site child-care.
 Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
24. Below average salary; slow rate of promotion; average health plan; on-site child-care.
 Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
25. Above average salary; slow rate of promotion; not the best health plan; on-site child-care.
 Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
26. Average salary; slow rate of promotion; not the best health plan; on-site child-care.
 Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
27. Below average salary; slow rate of promotion; not the best health plan; on-site child-care.
 Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
28. Above average salary; fast rate of promotion; best health plan; subsidized child-care.
 Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
29. Average salary; fast rate of promotion; best health plan; subsidized child-care.
 Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
30. Below average salary; fast rate of promotion; best health plan; subsidized child-care.
 Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
31. Above average salary; average rate of promotion; best health plan; subsidized child-care.
 Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
32. Average salary; average rate of promotion; best health plan; subsidized child-care.
 Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second

33. Below average salary; average rate of promotion; best health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
34. Above average salary; slow rate of promotion; best health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
35. Average salary; slow rate of promotion; best health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
36. Below average salary; slow rate of promotion; best health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
37. Above average salary; fast rate of promotion; average health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
38. Average salary; fast rate of promotion; average health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
39. Below average salary; fast rate of promotion; average health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
40. Above average salary; average rate of promotion; average health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
41. Average salary; average rate of promotion; average health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
42. Below average salary; average rate of promotion; average health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
43. Above average salary; slow rate of promotion; average health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
44. Average salary; slow rate of promotion; average health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
45. Below average salary; slow rate of promotion; average health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second

46. Above average salary; fast rate of promotion; not the best health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
47. Average salary; fast rate of promotion; not the best health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
48. Below average salary; fast rate of promotion; not the best health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
49. Above average salary; average rate of promotion; not the best health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
50. Average salary; average rate of promotion; not the best health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
51. Below average salary; average rate of promotion; not the best health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
52. Above average salary; slow rate of promotion; not the best health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
53. Average salary; slow rate of promotion; not the best health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
54. Below average salary; slow rate of promotion; not the best health plan; subsidized child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
55. Above average salary; fast rate of promotion; best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
56. Average salary; fast rate of promotion; best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
57. Below average salary; fast rate of promotion; best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
58. Above average salary; average rate of promotion; best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second

59. Average salary; average rate of promotion; best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
60. Below average salary; average rate of promotion; best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
61. Above average salary; slow rate of promotion; best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
62. Average salary; slow rate of promotion; best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
63. Below average salary; slow rate of promotions; best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
64. Above average salary; fast rate of promotion; average health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
65. Average salary; fast rate of promotion; average health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
66. Below average salary; fast rate of promotion; average health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
67. Above average salary; average rate of promotion; average health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
68. Average salary; average rate of promotion; average health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
69. Below average salary; average rate of promotion; average health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
70. Above average salary; slow rate of promotion; average health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
71. Average salary; slow rate of promotion; average health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second

72. Below average salary; slow rate of promotion; average health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
73. Above average salary; fast rate of promotion; not the best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
74. Average salary; fast rate of promotion; not the best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
75. Below average salary; fast rate of promotion; not the best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
76. Above average salary; average rate of promotion; not the best health; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
77. Average salary; average rate of promotion; not the best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
78. Below average salary; average rate of promotion; not the best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
79. Above average salary; slow rate of promotion; not the best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
80. Average salary; slow rate of promotion; not the best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second
81. Below average salary; slow rate of promotion; not the best health plan; no child-care.
Not at all acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 A job I'd take in a second

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE - SAMPLE I

DEMOGRAPHICS

Age _____

Number of children _____

Ages of children _____

Type of child-care used _____

Level of education _____

Male _____

Female _____

Marital status:

Married _____ Divorced _____ Separated _____ Widowed _____

Single _____

Ethnic background _____

APPENDIX C

DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE - SAMPLE II

DEMOGRAPHICS

Age _____

Number of Children: _____

Ages of Children: _____

Type of Child-care Used: 1. _____ Professional Day-care
2. _____ I pay a sitter. 3. _____ A relative or friend
provides day-care at no cost to me.

Average amount of money I spend on day-care per month: _____
(if you pay nothing for child-care, please enter zero).

Level of Education: 1. _____ High School 2. _____ Some
College 3. _____ Bachelor's Degree 4. _____ Grad. Student
5. _____ Master's Degree 6. _____ Ph. D.

Female _____ Male _____

Marital Status: 1. Married _____ 2. Divorced _____
3. Separated _____ 4. Widowed _____ 5. Single _____

Ethnic Background: 1. _____ White 2. _____ Afro-Amer.
3. _____ Latino 4. _____ Asian 5. _____ Native Amer.
6. _____ Indian 7. _____ Other (please specify).

Employed: _____ Yes _____ No

Average Number of Hours Worked Per Week: _____

Since high school, how many years have you been in the work force?

Total Household Income Per Year: _____

Additional comments:

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PILOT STUDY

Please rank the following job characteristics according to your personal preference in the prospect of seeking employment upon college graduation;

1 = not important, 2 = somewhat important, 3 = important, 4 = very important, and 5 = extremely important.

- _____ 1. Autonomy in job description.
- _____ 2. Chance for rapid rate of promotion.
- _____ 3. Child-care provision.
- _____ 4. Comfortable driving distance from home.
- _____ 5. Flex-time hours.
- _____ 6. Health-care.
- _____ 7. Opportunity to exercise individual creativity on the job.
- _____ 8. Profit sharing.
- _____ 9. Salary.
- _____ 10. Stock purchase options.
- _____ 11. Other _____.

APPENDIX D

PART II

Now that you have rated each of these aspects of possible jobs, please rank order them with 1 representing the most important and 11 being your least important job characteristic.

- _____ Autonomy in job description.
- _____ Opportunity to exercise individual creativity on the job.
- _____ Chance for rapid rate of promotion.
- _____ Child-care provision.
- _____ Profit sharing.
- _____ Comfortable driving distance from home.
- _____ Salary.
- _____ Flex-time hours.
- _____ Stock purchase options.
- _____ Health-care.
- _____ Other _____.

APPENDIX E

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Informed Consent

The study in which you are about to participate is designed to investigate the desirability of job characteristics and benefits as priorities for applicants. The survey will take approximately 30 minutes to complete. The study is being conducted by Jennifer L. Kellum, graduate student in psychology, under the supervision of Dr. Janet L. Kottke, Professor of Psychology. This study has been approved by the Psychology Department Human Subject Review Board, California State University, San Bernardino.

All information you provide will be held in the strictest confidence by the researcher. All data will be reported in group form only. Your participation in this research is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw and to remove your data at any time during the study. Any additional questions about this study should be directed to Dr. Kottke by calling 909-880-5585. You may obtain a copy of the results by contacting Dr. Kottke after July 15, 1998.

I acknowledge that I have been informed of, and understand, the nature and purpose of this study, and I freely consent to participate. I am at least 18 years of age.

Check here if you consent to participate _____. Today's date is _____.

APPENDIX F

DEBRIEFING STATEMENT FORM

Debriefing Statement

The purpose of this study is to investigate the importance that college graduates place on child-care provisioning as a benefit of employed by companies in recruiting and retaining employees. The results will be used to better understand the types of benefits most effective in recruiting the best job candidates. It is not the intention of the researchers to mislead the participants in the project, in any way.

Researcher's signature

Date

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