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FAMILY-SUPPORTIVE BENEFITS AND THEIR EFFECT
ON EXPERIENCED WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

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

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science
in
Psychology:
Industrial/Organizational

by
Alison Anna Maitlen

December 2002


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Approved by:


Dr. Janelle Gilbert, Chair, Psychology

11/24/02
Date


Dr. Jodie Ullman


Dr. Kenneth S. Shultz

ABSTRACT

As increasing numbers of women continue to join and remain a part of America's workforce, America's employers need to re-evaluate the ways in which they do business. Not only is it difficult for women to balance the responsibilities that come with being a working mother, but men are beginning to take on more responsibilities at home thus increasing the balancing act required of them as working fathers. It can no longer be assumed with certainty that women are the primary caregivers of their child(ren). It is time that America's employers begin to adapt to meet the changing needs of this new diverse workforce.

The goal of this study was to provide a link between the family-supportive benefits offered by an employer, and the work-family conflict experienced by that organization's employees. In order for employee outcomes such as job satisfaction to remain high, the work-family conflict experienced by the employee needs to remain low. One way to possibly lower the amount of work-family conflict experienced is to offer family-supportive benefits.

Participants for this study consisted of 74 male and 182 female working parents. Structural equation modeling

was used to analyze the estimated model. Significant relationships were found between family-supportive benefits and work-family conflict, and between work-family conflict and job satisfaction. Also, for primary caregivers, a relationship was found between family-supportive benefits and intention to leave. A variety of implications arising from these findings are discussed from both an organizational and individual perspective.

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CHAPTER ONE

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The demographics of America's paid workforce are changing, bringing with it a number of new challenges to be addressed by organizations. One of the most noticeable changes in the workforce is an increase in female participation. This increase in the number of women in the workforce means that there is an increase of working married mothers, working single mothers, and dual-income families in today's workforce. These new female entrants are quickly coming to the realization that corporate life is not tailored to their needs as women nor as mothers. Men with working wives are beginning to realize that organizations are not set up to meet their needs either. Working parents are expected to conform to the norms of corporate life and to be satisfied with the benefits that corporate life has to offer.

Friedman (1990), however, proposes that corporate life should actually be adapting to meet the needs of the changing workforce. According to Thomas and Ganster (1995), the benefits offered by corporations are not keeping up with the changing structure of the American family. The benefit packages that organizations continue to offer are not

addressing the needs of mothers, single parents, or dual-income couples. Friedman agrees, and states that corporate culture must change and adjust to become more family-supportive. She points out that three-fourths of the women entering the workforce today will become pregnant at some point in their career. Half of those women will return to work before their child's first birthday. Balancing the role of employee and mother will be difficult under the circumstances currently present in the majority of organizations.

Galinsky, Bond, and Friedman (1996) believe that the goal of employers should be to find ways to alter organizational policies, benefit packages, and characteristics of the jobs and the workplace itself to create more satisfying lives for their employees. There needs to be a shift in corporate America towards more family-friendly organizations offering family-supportive benefits. This may seem to be an idealistic goal, but employers and organizations could benefit from such a change as much as their employees.

Family-supportive policies and practices have been identified as those services offered by an organization that make the everyday management of family responsibilities easier (Fallon, 1996). However, there is no single benefit

that an organization could offer to employees that would solve all of the problems faced by single mothers and fathers, and dual-income couples (Friedman, 1990). The family-supportive policies and procedures studied by Zedeck and Mosier in their 1990 review of the work and family literature were childcare (broken down into three levels: corporate-sponsored daycare programs, payment for childcare, and provision of information), alternative work schedules (broken down into three categories: flextime, part-time, and job sharing), and alternative work stations (specifically telecommuting). These are the most often studied family-supportive policies and procedures. But, research as to the outcomes of these types of benefits has been flawed.

What has been determined to date is that organizations offering family-supportive benefits do so as a means of attracting and retaining employees and that success in these areas has been found (Auerbach, 1990). What needs to be considered next is the affect that these family-supportive benefits can have on reducing the family to work conflict that is experienced by today's working parents. This, in turn, could be shown to lead to positive organizational outcomes such as increased job satisfaction and decreased intention to leave the organization. Also, working parents

need to be studied in terms of their degree of primary care giving responsibility. This responsibility has historically been classified by gender, but that is no longer an accurate link. This study investigates the connection between family-supportive policies and procedures and work-family conflict, paying close attention to the role that primary care giving responsibility plays in this process.

Childcare

Finding reliable and acceptable childcare has been deemed the most worrisome problem for working parents (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Traditionally, most of this burden has fallen on mothers. Employer-supported childcare programs have the potential to enhance women's careers by allowing them to work more consistently, invest more of themselves into their work, and worry less about their childcare systems (Auerbach, 1990). Many of these benefits also apply to working fathers. Satisfaction with the benefits offered by an organization (including childcare) has been shown to contribute to the overall job satisfaction of employees (Buffardi & Erdwins, 1997). Still, definitive outcomes of employer-supported childcare cannot be asserted. According to the review written by Friedman (1990), there have been seventeen evaluations of on-site childcare programs. Of these seventeen, only six have been empirical

studies; and most suffer from methodological flaws and poor (if any) statistical analysis. Few companies have conducted formal evaluations of the success of their childcare programs on increasing productivity and decreasing absenteeism, turnover, and tardiness. Still, those companies who have evaluated their programs have found significant positive results (Auerbach, 1990).

Management continues to believe that employer-supported childcare is a "special interest" benefit serving women only. But, according to Mize and Freeman (1989), women and men alike are equally likely to be late, leave early, or miss work in order to care for children when their childcare arrangements fail. Parents of young children have also been deemed the most likely group of employees to spend unproductive time at work. Still, 54.7% of companies believe that the childcare needs of their employees (men and women alike) are minimal to non-existent (Mize & Freeman, 1989). With this mindset, most organizations are resistant to implementing childcare programs. Businesses do not appear interested in offering childcare programs solely out of a feeling of social responsibility, so we must find a way to show management that childcare related problems affect their bottom-line and affect their ability to compete economically (Goldberg, Greenberger, Koch-Jones, O'Neil, &

Hamill, 1989). While managers are probably accurate in estimating that, at any given time, childcare benefits would affect only about 20% of their workforce directly, they need to realize that the absence of one of these 20% due to a childcare conflict would indirectly cause many employees' work to suffer (Mize & Freeman, 1989).

The time that working parents are forced to spend on searching for acceptable childcare and dealing with the complications of childcare cost organizations money (Friedman, 1990). Zedeck and Mosier (1990) reported results of a study done on the Los Angeles Department of Water and Power. Their study revealed that 7,318 work days had been lost in one year due to employee problems with their outside childcare. These lost work days cost the Department approximately one million dollars. In general, it has been found that problems with childcare cost each individual an average of eight days absence from the job and eight hours of tardiness/early departure each year (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990).

Corporate-Sponsored Childcare

Corporate-sponsored childcare can take the shape of either an on-site or an off-site daycare center. Benefits of this type of organizational response to the childcare needs of working parents include allowing parents to drop in

to check up on children throughout the day (possibly leading to reduced stress while at work due to worrying about children in daycare) and a decreased hassle for parents having to locate and maintain quality childcare (this way it is monitored by the organization). Goldberg et al.'s 1989 study of various corporate-supported benefits found that 65% of married women with children, 70% of single women with children, and 45% of all men could be recruited away from their current job to an organization that offered either an on-site or off-site childcare facility as part of its benefits package. The difference between men and women here seems to represent that women may still be seen as being the person primarily responsible for the childcare needs of the family, even if she is employed outside of the home (Goldberg et al., 1989).

Organizational benefits also include increased commitment to and satisfaction with the job from employees, decreased turnover, and a benefit when recruiting (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Mize and Freeman's 1989 survey of 350 employees of a large state university calculated that, in one year, of the 415 cases of work disruption that could be attributed to some sort of child care problem, 241 cases (58%) could have been prevented by an employer sponsored childcare facility.

Problems with corporate-sponsored childcare include monetary cost to the organization and the question of fairness (which could be addressed by offering a "cafeteria style" benefits package to alleviate the fairness issues for employees who would not use the childcare center) (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Limited space on-site and increased liability concerns could be seen as other obstacles for on-site childcare facilities. However, off-site locations have been shown to yield the same positive outcomes as on-site (Goldberg et al., 1989). Friedman (1990) has found that most organizations offering this type of a childcare program have chosen to contract the management of the center out to a for-profit or nonprofit agency.

Information, Referrals, and Subsidies

Employer-supported childcare can also come in the form of providing information and referrals regarding childcare in the area. This type of program is thought to decrease stress in working parents by assisting them in the search for acceptable childcare and is possibly a way in which organizations can get new mothers back into the workplace sooner. It is also the least costly of the various employer-supported childcare systems (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Some employers have also been known to subsidize the childcare programs of their employees' choice. Goldberg et

al. (1989) found that 30% of working fathers, 40% of married working mothers, and 50% of all single working mothers would be willing to change jobs to move to a company that would assist them in finding acceptable childcare. They also discovered that 20% of working fathers, 25% of working married mothers, and 40% of working single mothers would change jobs for a financial contribution towards the childcare of their choice.

When looking to offer any type or degree of employer-supported childcare, it is important that companies take into account the level of satisfaction that employed mothers and fathers are attaining with their current childcare arrangements. If employees are currently satisfied with their form of childcare, employer-supported programs will be of little use. On the other hand, if employees are not satisfied, it is in the companies' best interest to develop some sort of a childcare program in order to boost this satisfaction level--as this satisfaction is central to the functioning of mothers and fathers while at work (Buffardi & Erdwins, 1997).

Flexible Scheduling and Work Locations

Work schedule inflexibility and the number of hours one works per week have consistently been shown to be positively

related to work-family conflict (Eagle, Icenogle, Maes, & Miles, 1998). Because of this, flexible scheduling and work locations are among the other benefits that are considered to be family-supportive. Examples of this type of benefit include flextime, part-time work, job sharing, and telecommuting. In 1985, 12.3% of the workforce was taking advantage of at least one of these options. By 1991, that number had grown to 15.1%. As of 1993, twenty-one million workers were enjoying the benefits of some sort of flexible schedule and/or work location (Hammer & Barbera, 1999). By switching to a flexible schedule or work location situation, employees are granted increased flexibility in allocating time to non-work activities (such as education advancement, community and church activities, family and child-rearing) leading to more balanced and well-rounded employees (Ronen & Primps, 1980).

Flexible scheduling and flexible work locations have been shown to decrease absenteeism and interrole conflict while producing no adverse effect on productivity (although they have been said to hinder promotional opportunities for those choosing to use them) (Hammer & Barbera, 1999). Primarily, flexible scheduling and flexible work locations have been suggested as recruitment tools. Offering these benefits seems to grant companies a recruiting edge. Their

labor pool is broadened greatly due to the increased number of applicants who do not want to work under traditional schedules (Hammer & Barbera, 1999).

Success of flexible scheduling and work location programs seems to be nested in how these programs are implemented. Hammer and Barbera (1999) assert that a job analysis must be completed for any job which takes on an alternate schedule or location to assure that the KSA's necessary to do the job are the same as they were prior to the policy change. If not, recruitment for that position, as well as the performance appraisal system for that position, must be adapted. Training is also important to the success of flexible scheduling and work locations in that managers need to be trained in how to effectively manage those on flexible schedules/locations. Training can also be used to help avoid misconceptions of employees choosing to use the new benefits (Hammer & Barbera, 1999). If those choosing to take advantage of such benefits are given the stigma of being lazy, lacking motivation, lacking career drive, or being on a "mommy-track", employees will think twice about using these benefits and the programs will fail. This failure would be largely due to the fact that peer use is one of the strongest predictors of use of any

form of flexible scheduling or work location (Kossek, Barber, & Winters, 1999).

Flextime

Flextime allows employees to work hours not normally considered nine to five—to arrive later or leave earlier so long as an 8-hour day is worked. Employers impose constraints through the use of bandwidths (daily operating hours) and certain core hours (e.g., 10am-2pm when all employees must be present, Hammer & Barbera, 1999). Flextime is thought to help working parents juggle the demands of work and family. However, there have been relatively few longitudinal studies on flextime (Harrick, Vanek, & Michlitsch, 1986). It has been shown to decrease absenteeism and tardiness while increasing productivity and adding little financial burden to the organization (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Flextime has also been credited with decreasing automobile use during peak commuting periods (Ronen & Primps, 1980; Kossek et al., 1999). Overall, employees who have chosen to go on a flextime schedule have been satisfied with their choice (Harrick et al., 1986). In fact, based on the 1989 study done by Goldberg et al., one out of every four men and one out of every three women would actually leave their current job if offered similar pay by another organization which allows flextime.

Organizational benefits associated with flextime include decreased absenteeism (both sick leave and annual leave usage), decreased turnover, increased operable service hours, and increased or unaffected productivity (Hammer & Barbera, 1999; Harrick et al., 1986). Ronen and Primps (1980) also link flextime to increased organizational effectiveness (due to improvements in performance and interpersonal relations among employees) and to increase organizational citizenship behaviors (credited to decreased absenteeism and tardiness). Training opportunities are also enhanced by flextime because of the opportunities of cross-training (since all employees are not present on the job at the same time) and educational advancement (Hammer & Barbera, 1999).

While researchers have tentatively blamed increased health complaints and sleeping problems on flextime, the majority of studies where flextime has been examined in conjunction with compressed work weeks show that rotating shifts seem to be more logically related to these outcomes (Martens, Nijhuis, Van Boxtel, & Knottnerus, 1999). Most companies offering flextime do not give room for schedules to fluctuate to the point of causing negative outcomes on employees' health or sleep (Goldberg et al., 1989). Based on this same premise, flextime may not allow employees

enough flexibility on its own to make a significant impact on work-family conflict (there are not enough flexible hours to allow total fulfillment of family roles) (Goldberg et al., 1989; Kossek et al., 1999). However, Hammer and Barbera (1999) did find flextime significantly reduced interrole conflict.

The major problems that have been cited with regards to flextime are manager resistance, the fear of negative career impact, and unsupportive organizational cultures (Kossek et al., 1999). All three of these problems can be linked to Kossek et al.'s 1999 finding that managers themselves fail to take advantage of the opportunity to use flextime. Encouraging managers to use flextime could serve as a "change agent" to getting the program implemented and supported. This would decrease employees' fear of a negative career impact and would also help to change the view of the overall culture of the organization. Flextime cannot help the processes of recruitment and retainment if it exists only on paper but not in reality (Kossek et al., 1999).

Finally, a negative effect of flextime is that it decreases the amount of interaction that managers have with employees which decreases supervision and performance evaluation opportunities (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). A logical

solution to this inevitable aspect of flextime is instating a 360° feedback system so that performance assessments can also come from peers and subordinates who work more closely with each particular employee (Hammer & Barbera, 1999)

Part-Time Work and Job Sharing

Other flexible scheduling options are part-time work and job sharing. Both of these options are thought to put less stress on the parent most responsible for childcare and to decrease absenteeism and turnover (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Part-time work, as defined by the U.S. Government, involves less than 35 hours of work per week. As of 1990, nineteen million people (20% of the workforce) were classified as part-timers. Of this nineteen million, two-thirds were women--women with children being the majority (Statham, Vaughn, & Houseknecht, 1987; Feldman, 1990).

Part-time work in this country has become especially important for three groups: younger workers (ages 16-24 years), older workers (age 65+), and female workers (Feldman, 1990). It has been found that those most likely to make use of a part-time work opportunity are young women of childbearing age who are working in low-level jobs (Kossek et al., 1999). However, Goldberg et al.'s survey (1989) found that 16% of men would be willing to leave their current job for one that offered the option to work only

part-time with full benefits. While, 58% of married women with children from the same survey would be willing to switch jobs for part-time work, as would 25% of single women with children (single women probably having more of a need for a full-time salary). Women's work commitment prior to having children has also been found to be predictive of desire to work part-time after starting a family (Amstey & Whitbourne, 1988).

Part-time work with full benefits has been shown to decrease turnover and absenteeism among parents (both men and women) of young children (Goldberg et al., 1989). Also, adverse effects to productivity have not been found (Hammer & Barbera, 1999). The major downfall of part-time work is the lack of upward mobility within an organization for employees in this type of position. Most upper level positions within an organization require a full-time commitment (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Part-time arrangements have been shown to be most beneficial for jobs that are repetitive, high stress, requiring of minimal supervision, or involving discrete tasks (Hammer & Barbera, 1999).

A special form of part-time work, as implemented within an organization, is job sharing. Job sharing occurs when two part-time employees are brought in to do the job of one formerly full-time position. The cost to the organization

of such an arrangement could possibly be greater than the cost of employing one full-time employee (depending on whether or not each part-time position comes complete with a full benefits package) (Hammer & Barbera, 1999). However, the work done by two part-timers is often greater than the work done by one full-timer (Kossek et al., 1999). Also, with job sharing, the strengths of one worker may offset the weaknesses in another (and vice versa) allowing a broader range of skills and abilities to be successfully utilized (Hammer & Barbera, 1999).

On the organizational side, job analyses need to be conducted to establish the degree to which coordination skills are required in job sharers as well as the KSA's needed for executing each part of the job successfully have to be established (Hammer & Barbera, 1999). Also, in order for any part-time or job sharing arrangements to benefit those involved, companies need to examine the needs that are unique to part-timers as far as recruiting, scheduling, rewarding, and retaining are concerned (Feldman, 1990).

Telecommuting

The most often found situation allowing flexible work locations is telecommuting. Telecommuting is defined by Zedeck and Mosier (1990) as the ability to perform job-related work away from the office. Friedman (1990) believes

that this is the most flexible of the flexible scheduling and work location benefits because it allows work to be done on into the evening after children are in bed. Zedeck and Mosier offer other benefits of telecommuting stating that it enables people to remain in the workforce who would not otherwise be able to do so; it yields more quality work, while decreasing absenteeism and turnover; it increases commitment; and it increases organizational attractiveness. Other cited positives include increased job autonomy, decreased role conflict, and increased feeling of power (Shamir & Salomon, 1985).

On the other hand, Zedeck and Mosier (1990) offer a more negative view of telecommuting. They state that telecommuting may actually increase the amount of role-conflict experienced by working parents through the elimination of physical boundaries between the workplace and the family. They also warn against problems of worker isolation and lack of advancement opportunities due to decreased office time where managers can observe performance. However, the 360° feedback solution, offered above as a solution to the performance appraisal dilemma in flextime programs, could be of similar benefit here.

As examples of occupations in which a telecommuting option may be successful, two positions that have already

been deemed successful when using telecommuting are lower level clerical workers and skilled information analysts. The clerical position is composed primarily of routinized tasks, including data entry/retrieval and typing. Analysts could be either high-level researchers or programmers who feel more of a need for interaction with peers than for work-place interaction with co-workers (Shamir & Salomon, 1985). Still, looking at the workforce holistically, 25% of mothers and 20% of fathers would be interested enough in the thought of being able to complete at least part of their work at home, that they would be willing to switch jobs to work for a company that would allow it (Goldberg et al., 1989).

Work-Family Conflict

Working parents report more of a spillover of home life to work life than do working non-parents (Galinsky et al., 1996). In the literature, this spillover is called work-family conflict (and then broken down further into work-family conflict and family-work conflict). In a general sense, work-family conflict is defined by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) as a form of inter-role conflict in which role pressures from work and role pressures from family are incompatible in some respect making participation in one role more difficult by virtue of participation in the other.

Galinsky et al. (1996) define work-family conflict as the psychological point where work roles and family roles intersect. Work-family conflict is associated with stress in the lives of working parents and, inevitably, ends up costing organizations money (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Reifman, Biernat, and Lang (1991) propose that research should be conducted to look at company programs that can help employees to deal with this work-family conflict; and Fallon (1996) believes that this could provide an important link between conditions at work and the quality of family life, and vice versa.

Some sections of the literature on work-family conflict have split the variable itself into two factors: strain-based work family conflict and time-based work family conflict. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) define strain-based conflict by the strain symptoms (e.g., irritability, fatigue) that develop at home, are then brought to the workplace, and end up interfering with the job. This phenomenon could also occur in the opposite direction with strain at work being brought home and interfering with the home life. Greenhaus and Beutell then define time-based conflict as the conflict arising from attempting to proportion time between work and the family. Time spent with the family is time that cannot be spent at work, and

time spent at work is time that cannot be spent with the family.

As the examples above suggest, work can cause conflict with the family and family can cause conflict at work. For this reason, the general phenomenon of work-family conflict is often studied in terms of work→family conflict (work's interference with the family) and family→work conflict (family's interference with work). Both work-family and family-work conflict affect organizations and both could stand to be affected by family-supportive benefits. For example, the option of flextime could allow a father to drop his children at school prior to reporting to work in the morning, thus avoiding work's interference on family responsibilities. On the other hand, an employer-supported childcare facility could keep a mother from missing a day of work due to an ill baby-sitter, thus family issues would not affect work.

Regardless of the definitions or factors that we use, when family issues interfere with work, the resulting conflict predicts a withdrawal from work which, in turn, causes problems for the organization (MacEwen & Barling, 1994). High levels of work-family conflict have been shown to be related to adverse effects on an individual's well-being and have also been found to correlate with decreased

productivity, increased tardiness and absenteeism, increased turnover and intentions to leave, and high degrees of job dissatisfaction (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, & Rabinowitz, 1989).

In 1989, Greenhaus et al.'s research turned to the actual work domain pressures that could be influencing the amounts of both time- and strain-based work-family conflict experienced by the employee. Conclusions from this study were that there are four work-domain pressures that contribute to work family conflict: work role stressors (role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload), task characteristics (variety, autonomy, complexity), work schedule characteristics (inflexibility of schedule, work related travel), and work salience (perceived feeling of importance, emotional involvement). Gender differences were also found in the importance of each of these influences on the work-family conflict experienced by individuals.

Greenhaus et al.'s (1989) hierarchical regression analysis of strain-based work family conflict concluded that the best predictors of strain-based conflict for men were age and job tenure (both negatively correlated), task characteristics (specifically autonomy-negatively correlated), work schedule inflexibility (positively correlated), and role stressors (both role ambiguity and

role overload and both positively correlated). For women, the most prominent predictors, all positively correlated, were: education (years of), work salience (job involvement), task characteristics (complexity), and role stressors (role conflict and role overload). After looking at the beta-weights of these predictors, it was concluded that age and job tenure were the most important predictors of strain-based conflict for men, while education and job involvement were the most important predictors for women (Greenhaus et al., 1989). Other than the fact that there were different predictors for strain-based conflict in men and women, Greenhaus et al. (1989) found no gender differences in actual level of strain-based conflict. While in 1998, Eagle et al. found that men experienced greater degrees of strain-based conflict than women.

The hierarchical regression for time-based conflict found that, for men, job tenure (negatively correlated) and role stressors (role ambiguity and role overload--both positively correlated) were predictive of time-based conflict. Beta-weights for these predictors portrayed role ambiguity as the strongest predictor. For women, work salience (specifically job involvement-positively correlated), task characteristics (autonomy, negatively correlated, and complexity, positively correlated), and role

stressors (role overload being positively correlated) were found to have predictive abilities. Job involvement seemed to be the strongest of these predictors for women. The highest levels of time-based conflict were found in divorced women with children. However, there did not appear to be any significant differences in time-based conflict overall. In fact, demographic differences, between the men and women in the study, could have been the cause of most differences. In other words, family does not seem to limit the time spent at work. Family's contribution to work-family conflict for both men and women then seems to be most related to the fatigue symptoms that it causes, leading to negative outcomes on the job (Greenhaus et al., 1989).

Work-Family Conflict as Predicted by Family-Supportive Policies and Procedures

In the past, studies focusing on the relationship between family-supportive policies and procedures and work-family conflict experienced, have been relatively inconclusive (Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990). Most of this research has been done on non-representative samples, leading to the acknowledgment that even when significant results are found, generalizable conclusions cannot be drawn (Galinsky et al., 1996). Psychologists and business people alike say that a more family-oriented working atmosphere

could possibly decrease work-family conflict and stress. But, no one seems to have the statistical analysis to back up this assertion (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Goldberg et al. (1989) also believe that a more family-friendly environment could be found to assist in recruitment, to reduce attrition, and to boost the productivity of parents in the workforce.

Thomas and Ganster (1995) studied hospital employees and found that childcare benefits were not related to work-family conflict but that flexible scheduling can increase perceptions of control which then have the ability to decrease work-family conflict. They then stated that there was very little variance in their childcare-benefits variable (of the hospitals sampled, very few had any type of childcare program), so statistical significance was virtually impossible. They believe that, had this not been the case, the results of their study could possibly have provided the first link between family-supportive policies and work-family conflict.

An earlier study by Goff et al. (1990) failed to support the hypothesis that use of an on-site childcare center would reduce work-family conflict for those parents participating in the program which would then reduce absenteeism. These results lend support to the hypothesis

that childcare related problems are associated with work-family conflict. However, they failed to show that the on-site childcare program that was in place at this particular organization was reducing work-family conflict. Duxbury, Higgins, and Lee (1994) suggest that organizations should change the way that they organize and structure work to make it easier for both working mothers and fathers to combine work and family roles, thus reducing work-family conflict. They propose that family-supportive policies and procedures might help to reduce the amount of overload experienced by working parents, which should in turn reduce tardiness, absenteeism, and turnover while maintaining or increasing employee productivity.

Frone and Yardley's 1996 study of importance ratings of family-supportive benefits given by working parents found that working parents want family-supportive benefits and feel that these benefits will reduce the work-family conflict that they experience. Working parents with high levels of work-family conflict gave high importance ratings to family-supportive benefit options. Whether or not the relationship between family-supportive benefits and decreased work-family conflict can be shown through empirical research has yet to be determined.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is perhaps most simply defined by Moorhead and Griffin (1995) as "an attitude that reflects the extent to which an individual is gratified by or fulfilled in his or her work" (p. 64). Employees' satisfaction with their jobs requires the utmost attention from employers due to its relations with such organizational behaviors as absenteeism, stress, turnover, job involvement, mental/physical health, and organizational climate. High levels of job satisfaction have been shown to correlate with positive organizational outcomes (Hakim, 1993), while a consistent negative relationship has been found between job satisfaction and all forms of work-family conflict (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998).

As a part of this study, job satisfaction was examined from a global standpoint. This view operates on the assumption that job satisfaction is an overall internal feeling of satisfaction or dissatisfaction that is determined by the intensity and frequency of positive and negative experiences on the job (Cherrington, 1973). According to Cherrington (1994), job satisfaction is determined primarily by the kinds of rewards, the amount of reward, and the reward expectations of employees. There are three domains through which these determinants can be

affected: the job, the organization, and the individual.

This study concentrated primarily on aspects of the organization that have the ability to affect the job satisfaction of its employees, however it is also important to understand how the individual affects job satisfaction.

Characteristics of the individual that have been linked with job satisfaction are age, education, and occupation. Older workers tend to report higher levels of job satisfaction than do younger workers (possibly due to higher pay, longer tenure, or higher status jobs). The correlation between job satisfaction and education level is negative and the relationship between job satisfaction and job level is positive (Zeitz, 1990).

Organizations have the ability to affect job satisfaction in many ways. Again according to Cherrington (1994), there is evidence that both technological improvements and administrative improvements improve employee job satisfaction. Family-supportive policies and procedures fall under the heading of administrative improvements. In fact, Cherrington (1994) also reports that surveys completed by the University of Michigan, the University of California, and the National Opinion Research Center (Gallup) suggest that organizational policies and

management practices are generally successful in creating satisfied employees.

Intention to Leave

Intention to leave has often been studied as a sub-dimension of job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Intention to leave is one of the most frequently studied of the organizational withdrawal behaviors and is often linked to such organizational behaviors as absenteeism, tardiness, poor job performance, and inevitably turnover (Steel & Ovalle, 1984). Intention to leave has been said to be the best predictor of turnover. It is thought that the best predictor of turnover *should* be the intention to turnover (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979).

Turnover has been found to be the result of a number of factors including the individual, family influences, aspects of the job, the organization, and the labor market (Steel, Hendrix, & Balogh, 1990). For the purpose of this study, factors of the individual and family influences are considered to be important issues. Both the individual (employee) and his or her family are in positions to impact turnover and also the intent to turnover--the intention to leave. These are the factors influencing intention to leave that could be most impacted by family-supportive benefits and reduced work-family conflict.

Specific factors of the individual that have been studied and shown to be related to intentions to leave are the perceived availability of alternative job opportunities, the age of the worker, and tenure with the organization (Miller & Wheeler, 1992). Perceived availability of alternative job opportunities is said to be positively related to intentions to leave, while age and tenure have been found to be negatively correlated with turnover intentions (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Steers & Mowday, 1981). Gender differences have also been associated with the intention to leave literature. However, conclusions regarding this relationship have been mixed. Some studies show women as more likely to have intentions to leave, some have found men to be more likely to have intentions to leave, and other studies still have found no gender differences in intention to leave (Mobley, 1982).

Aside from the confusion over the impact that gender has on intentions to leave an organization, it is important to remember that anyone leaving an organization costs that organization money. Organizations not only incur the costs of replacing that individual, but they also lose their investment in that individual in terms of knowledge, experience, and training. It is due to this loss that everything possible needs to be done on the part of the

organization to try and reduce employee's intentions to leave. A good place to start this prevention is with the development of family-supportive policies and procedures.

Gender as a Variable—An Issue
of Primary Care Giving
Responsibility?

Zedeck and Mosier (1990) propose that research should be attempting to discover how American adults can strike a balance between their family lives and their jobs. What has yet to be established is the role that gender plays in this balance. Very little is known about how men and women respond differently to work family conflict and the organizational policies and procedures set in place to help reduce that conflict (Friedman, 1990; Greenhaus et al., 1989). Some studies have found gender differences (Wiersma, 1990) while some have found no gender differences (Frone & Yardley, 1996). We know that there are life-style differences between men and women that need to be addressed by benefits packages (Jaffe, 1985) and we know that there are gender differences in experienced stress (Narayanan, Menon, & Spector, 1999). However, beyond this point, research findings have been mixed.

Literature in the area of work-family conflict has been pursuing gender differences in the levels of work-family conflict reported under various circumstances. It has been

assumed for quite some time that only women can experience a reduction in work-family conflict when offered family-supportive benefits. However, what is being found is that men are becoming more active parents and therefore increasing their desire for family-supportive benefits. It now seems as if it is not an issue of gender itself determining desire for family-supportive benefits, but instead an issue of primary care giving responsibilities.

For example, if a woman is working full-time, childcare responsibilities in her household are not necessarily all hers. In a situation such as this one, the man may have a great desire for family-supportive benefits from his employer; especially if he is also employed full-time. On the other hand, if the woman is working only part-time or is not employed outside of the home, these benefits may be less important for the man due to the fact that he is not responsible for very much of the childcare responsibilities. Likewise, if the man is employed part-time or not at all, these benefits would presumably be less important to the woman due to her lack of primary childcare responsibilities.

Researchers in this area have been searching for gender differences in work-family conflict and desire for family-supportive benefits because organizations have continued to believe that primary care giving responsibilities do not

fall to the men. Study results have been inconclusive because traditional family roles are changing. It is no longer a gender issue because it can no longer be assumed that the woman will be responsible as the primary caregiver. This has now become an issue of who is responsible for the primary childcare within each family.

In summary, this study looked at relationships between family-supportive benefits and work-family conflict, and between work-family conflict and employee outcomes. It also looked at the indirect effect between family-supportive benefits and employee outcomes. Researchers studying these variables have been unsuccessful at demonstrating the relationship of family-supportive benefits to work-family conflict. It is for this reason that this study examined this link. It is believed that it can be shown that as the discrepancy between family-supportive benefits desired and family-supportive benefits offered increases, experienced work-family conflict will also increase. This study looked for a positive relationship between the difference of family-supportive benefits desired and attained and experienced work-family conflict. If employees perceive a small to zero difference between what benefits they want and what benefits they get, their experienced work-family

conflict will be low. However, if this discrepancy is high, work-family conflict will also be high.

This study also set out to re-affirm the relationships between work-family conflict and job satisfaction that has been so well documented in the literature. Based on the work of Kossek and Ozeki (1998), a negative relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction was expected. As work-family conflict increases, job satisfaction will decrease. Finally, care giving status was studied as a factor which influences the degree to which these relationships occur. A person's role as caregiver, either primary or secondary, should influence the degree to which family-supportive benefits can influence work-family conflict. It was expected that primary caregivers would report higher levels of work-family conflict due to the increased role-strain experienced, and that family-supportive benefits would be more influential in reducing work-family conflict for this group.

A compilation of the above mentioned variables and relationships lead to a proposed model (Appendix A). Using structural equation modeling, relationships were examined between family-supportive benefits, work-family conflict, and the employee outcome of job satisfaction. Family-supportive benefits is a latent variable with three

indicators: the difference between desired and attained benefits in the areas of childcare (childcare facility, childcare information, childcare referrals, childcare subsidy), flextime (part-time work, job sharing), and telecommuting. Work-family conflict is a latent variable with two indicators: work-family conflict and family-work conflict. Job satisfaction is a latent variable with four indicators: satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with pay, general satisfaction, and intention to leave. Gender is an independent variable related to work-family conflict but was predicted to be non-significant. In the hypothesized model, circles represent the latent variables and rectangles represent measured variables. The absence of a line connecting variables implies the lack of a hypothesized direct effect. Within the text of the model, latent variables are referred to with initial capital letters, while measured variables are fully lower case.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

There will be an indirect effect between Family-supportive Benefits and Job Satisfaction, and direct effects between Family-supportive Benefits and Work-Family Conflict, and between Work-Family Conflict and Job Satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1a. Family-Supportive Benefits is a latent variable indicated by the difference between desired and attained benefits in the areas of childcare, flexible scheduling, and telecommuting.

Hypothesis 1b. Work-Family Conflict is a latent variable indicated by work-family conflict and family-work conflict.

Hypothesis 1c. Job Satisfaction is a latent variable indicated by general satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with pay, and intention to leave.

Hypothesis 2

There will be a difference in experienced work-family conflict between primary and secondary caregivers (regardless of gender) with primary caregivers reporting higher levels of work-family conflict than secondary caregivers.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODS

Participants

Participants consisted of 256 working parents (74 men and 182 women). Of the 256 participants, 161 reported working full-time while 95 reported that they work part-time (at least 20 hours per week). Twenty-nine participants have spouses working part-time, and 166 participants have spouses who work full-time. Sixty-seven participants responded that they are single parents. In order to participate in this study, a parent had to have at least one child living at home at least part time. Also, at least one of the participant's children had to be under the age of eight in order to assure that childcare was still a major concern for that parent.

Four hundred subjects were necessary for this study in order to have enough power to run EQS for all models. This is based on the recommendation of ten subjects per parameter (Ullman, 1996). There are twenty parameters in the model (eleven variances and nine paths) and two models tested through multiple groups analysis.

Procedure

Survey packets were distributed to individual employees of numerous Southern California companies as well as to parent participants of multiple youth organizations. Participants were informed that their involvement was voluntary and anonymous. Participants were instructed to complete the questionnaire and return it to the researcher either directly or via mail in a self-addressed stamped envelope provided by the researcher.

Measures

Each survey packet contained an informed consent form (see Appendix B), a questionnaire composed of the scales described below (see Appendix C), and a debriefing form (see Appendix D).

Benefits Offered vs. Benefits Desired

This scale was written for this study so that a difference could be established. The difference calculated is what benefits are offered versus what benefits are desired. Participants are first asked whether or not their company offers the family-supportive benefits. Five-point Likert scales were then established to measure the extent to which the participant's company offers the benefits pertinent to this study and to measure the extent to which

the participants desire each specific benefit (with anchors of "to a small extent" and "to a great extent"). The difference calculated then was the rating of attained benefit, minus the rating of desired benefit. Participants who had previously stated that they do not receive a particular benefit were assigned a "0" for their rating of attained benefit.

The specific benefits measured by this scale were chosen based on their appearance in the literature. According to Zedeck and Mosier's 1990 review of the work and family literature, childcare, flexible schedules, and flexible work locations are the most often cited employer-supported benefits. Also, within these categories, corporate sponsored facilities, information, referrals, and subsidies have been the most often studied of the childcare programs (Mize & Freeman, 1989; Goldberg et al., 1989; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Of the flexible work schedules and locations, flextime, part-time work, job sharing, and telecommuting have received the most attention in previous studies (Hammer & Barbera, 1999; Ronen & Primps, 1980; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990).

Work-Family Conflict

Twelve items were used to measure work-family conflict. This 5-point Likert scale was originally published by Frone

and Yardley (1996). The scale is composed of six items measuring family's interference with work. Four of these items were originally developed by Gutek, Searle, and Klepa (1991) with an alpha reliability of .78. Two additional items were added from Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1992) with an alpha of .81. The reliability for the family→work measure in the present study was .89. Six more items of Frone and Yardley's (1996) scale measure work's interference with family. Four of these items came from Gutek et al. (1991) with an alpha of .84, and two of these items were developed by Frone et al. (1992) with an alpha of .86. The reliability for the work→family measure was found to be .78 in the current study.

Job Satisfaction

Based on popularity in past literature, items from Hackman and Oldham's 1974 "Job Diagnostic Survey" were used in this study to measure job satisfaction. Although the Job Diagnostic Survey contains items to measure multiple facets of job satisfaction, only those specific satisfactions thought to be affected by family-supportive benefits were included in the current survey. Internal consistency reliabilities of the measure in past research range from .88 to .56, and the median off-diagonal correlations range from .12 to .28. Hackman and Oldham conclude that the results

suggest satisfactory levels of both internal consistency reliability of the scales and discriminant validity of the items.

The personal outcomes measured in this study are general satisfaction ($\alpha = .73$), satisfaction with pay ($\alpha = .75$), and satisfaction with supervision ($\alpha = .89$). General satisfaction was measured on a 5-point Likert scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree), while satisfaction with pay and satisfaction with supervision were measured on a 7-point Likert scale (extremely dissatisfied to extremely satisfied).

Two items from Hackman and Oldham's (1975) job satisfaction scale have been tested together and shown to form a reliable measure of intention to leave. These two items were used to measure intention to leave in this study (on a 5-point Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree). Kulik, Oldham, and Langner (1988) reported an alpha reliability of this sub-scale at .71. In order to correlate the intention to quit scale with the job satisfaction factor, the individual intention to quit items were reverse scored. This created a measure of intention to stay with the organization. The reliability of this scale in the current study was found to be .77.

Primary Care Giving Responsibility

An original scale was written for this study to measure the degree of primary care giving that a participant is responsible for within his or her family. This scale was written based on the previous work of Fox and Dwyer (1999) and Yogev and Brett (1985).

Fox and Dwyer (1999) assessed family involvement by measuring the amount of time an individual spends doing family-related tasks (e.g., household chores, childcare, shopping/errands, yard/home maintenance). This transferred into the current scale through the selection of parent-related tasks that were then worded to find out which parent spends more time doing that activity.

Yogev and Brett (1985) developed a measure of family involvement which addressed the two family roles, those of parent and spouse. This scale, in its original form, was on a 5-point Likert scale and had an alpha reliability of .80. For the sake of the present study, all items related to the role of spouse were removed so that the focus of the scale is now on the role of parent. These parent-related questions were then analyzed according to their facet of parenting (e.g., transporting children, arranging childcare, caring for sick children) and incorporated into an 8-item scale yielding categorical responses to determine the degree

of primary care giving responsibilities an individual is responsible for within his/her family. One item of the scale specifically asks participants who they would consider to be the primary caregiver of their child(ren). This item was found to correlate strongly (.83) with the overall scale and was therefore used in later analysis as the sole indicator of primary care giving responsibility.

Demographics

In addition to the above listed measures, participants were asked to respond to demographic questions regarding their gender, their work hours (full-time or part-time), their spouse's work hours (full-time or part-time), and whether or not they would consider themselves to be single parents.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

Assumptions

Prior to beginning data analysis, SPSS was used to evaluate assumptions on all major variables. No cases were deleted due to missing data because the missing data followed no patterns and accounted for less than 5% of the total data. Two univariate outliers on family-work conflict were found (with z-scores above 3.3). The raw scores were 4.0 and 4.5 on a five-point scale and were retained because they were representative of the sample (numerous other cases were found to be between 3.0 and 4.0 although they were not considered outliers). Even though the two outliers had higher than normal scores on family-work conflict, their scores are still within a reasonable range given the population. Using Mahalanobis distance with $p < .001$, no multivariate outliers were found. One variable (family-work conflict) was found to be moderately skewed but not enough to warrant transformation (see Table 1). Homoscedasticity and linearity were examined through regressions and scatterplots of the major variables. No evidence of multicollinearity was found after running Mahalanobis distance and examining the collinearity diagnostics.

Table 1. Skewness, Standard Error of Skewness, and Z-Scores

Scales	Skewness	SE	Z-Score
Childcare	.51	.15	3.34
Flexible Scheduling	.04	.15	.27
Telecommuting	-.17	.15	-.11
Work-Family Conflict	.35	.15	2.30
Family-Work Conflict	.73	.15	4.78
Pay Satisfaction	-.06	.15	-.44
Supervision Satisfaction	-.53	.15	-3.44
General Satisfaction	-.60	.15	-3.89
Intention to Stay	-.35	.15	-2.92

Means and standard deviations for the major variables are given in Table 2. Family-work conflict was found to have a surprisingly low mean of 1.92 on a five point Likert scale. See Appendix E for the correlation covariance matrix.

Hypothesis 1

Model Estimation

The model conforms with multivariate distribution (Mardia's Normalized Estimate = 1.36). The Independence model that tests the hypothesis that the variables are uncorrelated with one another was easily rejected, $\chi^2(45, N = 256) = 610.64$, $p < .05$. The hypothesized model was tested next ($N = 256$). A chi-square difference test indicated a

Table 2. Means and Standard Deviations

Scales	M	SD
Childcare	-10.67	6.74
Flexible Scheduling	-4.82	4.00
Telecommuting	-2.18	1.68
Work-Family Conflict	2.77	.95
Family-Work Conflict	1.92	.63
Pay Satisfaction	4.05	1.51
Supervision Satisfaction	4.72	1.46
General Satisfaction	3.69	.85
Intention to Leave	3.49	1.14
Primary Caregiver Status	3.73	2.98

significant improvement in fit from the independence model. Support was found for the hypothesized model in terms of the χ^2 test statistic and comparative fit (CFI) index, $\chi^2(34, N = 256) = 85.06, p < .05, CFI = .91$. The hypothesized model was originally estimated with gender having a direct effect on Work-Family Conflict. This link was hypothesized to be not significant. Wald's test recommended that this link be removed from the model which supported the original prediction. See Appendix F for the final SEM model.

Measurement Model

All of the indicators of the measurement model loaded on their respective latent variable. Childcare, flexible scheduling, and telecommuting were indicators of the latent

variable Family-Supportive Benefits (unstandardized coefficients = 3.39, 3.22, 1.03, $p < .05$). Work→family conflict and family→work conflict were indicators of the latent variable Work-Family Conflict (unstandardized coefficients = 1.00, .83, $p < .05$). Finally, general satisfaction, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with supervision, and intention to stay were indicators of the latent variable Job Satisfaction (unstandardized coefficients = -.48, -.44, .51, -.57, $p < .05$).

Direct Effects

Family-Supportive Benefits was predictive of Work-Family Conflict (unstandardized coefficient = -.18, $p < .05$). As the difference between what benefits are attained and what benefits are desired decreased, Work-Family Conflict decreased. To a greater extent, Work-Family Conflict was predictive of Job Satisfaction (unstandardized coefficient = -.48, $p < .05$). As experienced work-family conflict increased, job satisfaction decreased.

Indirect Effects

There was an indirect effect between Family-Supportive Benefits and Job Satisfaction (unstandardized coefficient = .08, $p < .05$).

Hypothesis 2

Analysis of Variance

Hypothesis 2 was first tested with a two-way between subjects ANOVA with two independent variables, caregiver status (primary and secondary) and gender (male and female), and experienced Work-Family Conflict as the dependent variable. The analysis resulted in no significant main effect for caregiver status or gender, and no significant interaction between caregiver status and gender, $F(1, 254) = .098, p > .05$; $F(1, 254) = 1.042, p > .05$; $F(1, 254) = .887, p > .05$.

Multiple Groups Models

Prior to beginning multiple groups analysis, SPSS was used to evaluate assumptions on all major variables again for the two groups (primary and secondary caregivers) independently. No cases were deleted due to missing data from either group. The univariate outliers identified when assumptions were run for the whole group remained as outliers and were once again retained as they seem to be within a reasonable range for the given population. Using Mahalanobis distance with $p < .001$, again no multivariate outliers were found. For the secondary caregiver group, one variable (family-work conflict) was found to be moderately skewed but not enough to warrant transformation.

Homoscedasticity and linearity were examined for each group through regressions and scatterplots of the major variables. No evidence of multicollinearity was found in either group after running Mahalanobis distance and examining the collinearity diagnostics. The models for both the primary and secondary caregivers conform with multivariate distribution (Mardia's Normalized Estimate = 2.10, -.44)

The SEM model was then run separately for primary and secondary caregivers in order to compare the two groups. Primary and secondary caregiver status was determined by each participant's response to the question, "Who do you consider to be the primary caregiver of your child(ren)?" See Appendices G and H respectively for the correlation covariance matrices for primary and secondary caregivers.

For the primary caregiver group, the Independence model that tests the hypothesis that the variables are uncorrelated with one another was rejected, $\chi^2(45, N = 111) = 294.09, p < .05$. Of the 111 participants who identified themselves as primary caregivers, 12 were men and 99 were women. The hypothesized model was tested next. A chi-square difference test indicated a significant improvement in fit between the independence model and support was found for the hypothesized model in terms of the χ^2 test statistic and comparative fit (CFI) index, $\chi^2(34, N = 111) = 57.85, p$

< .05, CFI = .90. Post hoc model modifications were performed in an attempt to develop a better fitting and possibly more parsimonious model. On the basis of the Lagrange multiplier test, a path predicting intention to leave from the Family-Supportive Benefits factor was added leading to a better fit between the model and the data, $\chi^2(33, N = 111) = 49.80, p < .05, CFI = .93$. For primary caregivers, over and above the indirect effect of Family-Supportive Benefits on Job Satisfaction, a direct effect was found between Family-Supportive Benefits and intent to stay. See Appendix I for the baseline model for primary caregivers.

For the secondary caregiver group, the Independence model that tests the hypothesis that the variables are uncorrelated with one another was rejected, $\chi^2(45, N = 142) = 368.98, p < .05$. The hypothesized model was tested next. Of those 142 individuals, 61 were men and 81 were women. A chi-square difference test indicated a significant improvement in fit between the independence model and support was found for the hypothesized model in terms of the χ^2 test statistic and comparative fit (CFI) index, $\chi^2(34, N = 142) = 67.63, p < .05, CFI = .90, \chi^2$ difference test(1) = 8.053, $p < .05$. See Appendix J for the baseline model for secondary caregivers.

The models for primary and secondary caregivers were tested simultaneously in one run with none of the parameters across models constrained to be equal to serve as a baseline, $\chi^2(67, N = 254) = 117.43, p < .05, CFI = .92$. The indicators of Job Satisfaction were then constrained and the model was compared to the baseline with a chi-square difference test which was found to be not significant, $\chi^2(70, N = 254) = 117.88, p < .05, CFI = .92$, χ^2 difference test(3) = .455, $p > .05$. The indicators of Family-Supportive Benefits were then constrained and the model was compared to the previous model with a chi-square difference test which was also found to be not significant, $\chi^2(73, N = 254) = 118.86, p < .05, CFI = .92$, χ^2 difference test(3) = .982, $p > .05$. When family-work conflict was constrained next and compared the previous model, the chi-square difference test was significant, $\chi^2(74, N = 254) = 171.39, p < .05, CFI = .83$, χ^2 difference test(1) = 52.53, $p < .05$.

Next, family-work conflict was released and Job Satisfaction driven by Work-Family Conflict was constrained and compared to the last model with non-significance. The chi-square difference test was not significant, $\chi^2(74, N = 254) = 118.87, p < .05, CFI = .92$, χ^2 difference test(1) = .006, $p > .05$. Last, Work-Family Conflict driven by Family-Supportive Benefits was constrained and compared to the

previous model and found to be not significant, $\chi^2(75, N = 254) = 120.20$, $p < .05$, CFI = .92, χ^2 difference test(1) = 1.33, $p > .05$. Table 3 presents the models tested, chi-square value, CFI, and chi-square difference tests. The multiple groups analysis identified a difference between the primary and secondary caregivers of this sample on family-work conflict, meaning that this path was significantly stronger for secondary caregivers than for primary caregivers. The multiple groups analysis determined that the groups were equal in all other analyzed areas. See Appendix K for the final multiple groups model.

Table 3. Comparison of Multiple Groups Models

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	χ^2 difference test
Model 1 Hypothesized Model	117.43	67	.92	
Model 2 Constrain Indicators of Job Satisfaction	117.88	70	.92	M1 - M2 = .455
Model 3 Constrain Indicators of Family-Supportive Benefits	118.86	73	.92	M2 - M3 = .982
Model 4 Constrain Indicators of Work-Family Conflict	171.39	74	.83	M3 - M4 = 52.53*
Model 5 Constrain Job Satisfaction driven by Work-Family Conflict	118.87	74	.92	M3 - M5 = .006
Model 6 Constrain Work-Family Conflict driven by Family-Supportive Benefits	120.20	75	.92	M5 - M6 = 1.33

* $p < .05$

Of the 255 participants who responded to survey questions about the benefits offered by their current employer, 51 responded that their employer offers a company sponsored childcare facility either on or off-site. Forty-seven participants receive information from their employers about childcare options in their area, and 47 receive referrals to childcare facilities. Twenty-nine participants receive monetary subsidies from their employer to help offset the cost of childcare.

In terms of flexible scheduling options, 116 participants answered that they have the option of flextime at their current job, 187 said that they have the option of working part-time, and 81 participants have the ability to job share with another employee. Finally, 54 participants reported having an option to telecommute.

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

Summary

As increasing numbers of women continue to join and remain a part of America's workforce, America's employers need to re-evaluate the ways in which they do business. Not only is it difficult for women to balance the responsibilities that come with being a working mother; but men are beginning to take on more responsibilities at home, thus increasing the balancing act required of them as working fathers. It can no longer be assumed with certainty that women are the primary caregivers of their child(ren). As women's role in the workforce increases, fathers are often beginning to take a more dominant role in taking care of their child(ren). It is time that America's employers begin to adapt to meet the changing needs of this new diverse workforce.

A major change that is past due to occur involves the composition of benefits packages offered to employees. This study set out to provide a link between the family-supportive benefits offered by an employer, and the work-family conflict experienced by that organization's employees. In order for employee outcomes such as job satisfaction to remain high, the work-family conflict

experienced by the employee needs to remain low. One way to possibly lower the amount of work-family conflict experienced is to offer family-supportive benefits. In order to study these complex relationships, the proposed structural equation model was established.

The structural equation model proposed in Hypothesis 1 was found to fit the data from this particular sample. Significant relationships were found between the latent variables of family-supportive benefits and work-family conflict, and between work-family conflict and job satisfaction. As the difference between what benefits are attained and what benefits are desired decreased, Work-Family Conflict decreased. In the past, studies focusing on the relationship between family-supportive benefits and experienced work-family conflict have been relatively inconclusive (Goff et al., 1990). The current study found a relationship between family-supportive benefits and work-family conflict which provides a significant addition to the research in this area. However, the small effect sizes found would indicate that there are likely other variables influencing this relationship that should be considered in future research. This study has also shown that, as experienced work-family conflict increases, job satisfaction decreases.

Hypothesis 1a, 1b, and 1c also resulted in significant findings. Work-family conflict is a latent variable indicated by work→family conflict and family→work conflict. Job satisfaction is a latent variable indicated by general satisfaction, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with supervision, and intention to stay. Finally, family-supportive benefits is a latent variable and was found to be indicated by the difference between desired and attained benefits in the areas of childcare, flexible scheduling, and telecommuting. All of the above listed indicators for the three latent variables were found to be significant indicators.

The family-supportive benefits included in this study were the same benefits found by Zedeck and Mosier in their 1990 review of the work and family literature. It should be noted that this study found the most often offered family-supportive benefits to be those related to flexible scheduling. Over half of the participants in this study receive some sort of flexible scheduling option. Childcare benefits and the option to telecommute are offered to a much smaller portion of the participants in this study.

Although Hypothesis 2 was not supported in its entirety, noteworthy results were obtained. The analysis of variance looking at caregiver status, gender, and work-

family conflict produced no main effect for gender and no interaction between gender and caregiver status. These two findings support Hypothesis 2. However, there was also no main effect for caregiver status meaning that there was no difference in experienced work-family conflict between primary and secondary caregivers. This is in contrast to prior predictions. It is possible, however, that a difference in experienced work-family conflict between primary and secondary caregivers was not found because of participant's self-selection either into or out of the study. It should be considered that working parents, especially primary caregivers, have a number of stressors affecting them which may have kept them from completing a lengthy survey. Still, both the analysis of variance and structural equation model supported predictions in that they did not find a relationship between caregiver status and gender. This would indicate that the traditional gender roles are beginning to blur. It cannot necessarily be assumed that the primary care giving responsibilities will fall to mothers instead of fathers.

The most interesting findings from this study were revealed by the multiple groups analysis of the structural equation model. By assessing the fit of the model independently for primary and secondary caregivers,

differences between these two groups could be examined. The proposed model fit the data of the secondary caregivers well without adjustments. For the group of participants who identified themselves to be the primary caregivers to their child(ren), however, the model did not initially fit well. In order for the model to yield a good fit with the data for this group, a link was added between family-supportive benefits and intention to stay. This would indicate that, for primary caregivers, the availability of family-supportive benefits such as childcare options, flexible scheduling options, and the option to telecommute is directly related to whether or not an individual plans on remaining with an organization in the future. These benefits enable employees to keep their family issues from interfering with work which keeps withdrawal behaviors in check (MacEwen & Barling, 1994). This finding has great implications for business organizations.

Also resulting from the multiple groups analysis, it was found that primary and secondary caregivers interpreted and responded differently to questions about family-work conflict. It is difficult to say for sure exactly what caused this difference between the two groups.

It is possible that there are other constructs driving individual's work-family conflict responses, and that these

constructs affect primary and secondary caregivers differently. Some examples of possible extraneous constructs affecting work-family conflict are financial stability, social support, family or cultural background, and elder care responsibilities. Financial stability within a family unit could play a role in work-family conflict. Secondary caregivers could tend to play more of a role in the financial affairs of a family. The secondary caregiver, for example, may be the primary breadwinner in a family. With the added stress of providing for a family, perceived work-family conflict could be affected.

Social support could influence the way work-family conflict impacts other parts of an individual's life. There may be a difference between primary and secondary caregivers in the degree to which social support is available and acceptable. Primary caregivers may have a higher need for social support and comradery. Likewise, it may be more socially acceptable for primary caregivers to seek out help from others.

Family and cultural backgrounds could also influence individual's feelings and responses toward work-family conflict. For example, a working parent who grew up in a family where one parent stayed home may feel or respond differently to work-family conflict than an individual who

was raised by two working parents. Likewise, children of single parents or blended families may have different views of or responses to work-family conflict. Cultural background may also influence familial expectations of working parents and could contribute to reported work-family conflict. Both familial and cultural expectations could also impact work-family conflict differently for men and women.

Eldercare responsibilities, if present, would probably fall to the primary caregiver. The presence of family responsibilities in addition to that of caregiver to children could alter feelings of or tolerance to work-family conflict.

Although this study separated the affects of gender and care giver status, the large number of women represented in the primary caregiver category may have affected work-family conflict ratings for the over all group. Regardless of what the specific constructs are that are affecting work-family conflict responses in this study, this difference in interpretation by the two groups should be seen as a limitation of the present study.

Limitations

The most noticeable limitation of this study is the lack of power for the multiple groups analysis. In order to

establish enough power to fully trust the results, the N size would have had to nearly double. With just over 250 participants, adequate power was available to run the original structural equation model through EQS. However, the multiple groups analysis required at least 200 primary caregiver participants and at least 200 secondary caregiver participants.

It is possible that this lack of power affected the results of the multiple groups analysis. With enough power, a difference may have been found in the relationship between Family-Supportive Benefits and Work-Family Conflict for primary and secondary caregivers. Looking at the difference between standardized coefficients for this relationship for both the primary and secondary caregivers leads one to believe that these groups differ. An increase in power for this analysis may have allowed significant differences to be found. Similarly, the differences in standardized coefficients between primary and secondary caregivers on the indicators of Family-Supportive Benefits would seem to indicate another difference between the two groups. Again, with increased power, these differences may have been significant thus leading to the conclusion that the difference between desired and attained benefits affects primary and secondary caregivers differently.

Another limitation of the study involves the length of the survey. Requiring participants to complete such a lengthy survey resulted in a large percentage of participants self-selecting themselves out of the study. Due to this trend, the sample studied may not have been representative of the larger population of working parents. Future surveys should be condensed where possible to help reduce this effect.

The low levels of family→work conflict reported by participants could constitute one final limitation of the present study. It is possible that the low levels reported could have been caused by the social desirability around family-work conflict. It is not as socially acceptable to say that your home life affects your work as it is to say that your work affects your home life. Possibly, individuals who volunteered to complete such a long survey as the one required for this study differed from the general population of working parents in terms of family-work conflict.

Future Research

Future research should focus on the individual family-supportive benefits. It would be advantageous for an organization to know which of the family-supportive benefits

will offer the greatest return on their investment. In looking at the return on investment, research should focus on the employee outcomes that cost organizations money. For example, intention to leave an organization may be seen as more costly to an organization than low job satisfaction due to the exorbitant cost associated with turnover.

Likewise, individual family-supportive benefits should be studied in terms of intention to leave versus intention to stay. In other words, what benefits specifically will make an employee decide to stay with an organization, and what benefits would an employee leave in order to find elsewhere? It would be interesting to study these relationships in terms of what it would take (benefits wise) for a similar organization with similar pay to recruit an employee away from his/her current employer.

Implications

From an organizational prospective, there are a number of implications for both employers and employees. Primarily, this study was the first to reveal a relationship between family-supportive benefits and work-family conflict. The relationship between work-family conflict and numerous employee outcomes has been well established in past literature. This study then offers organizations an indirect relationship between family-supportive benefits and

employee outcomes. In other words, if employers want to have a positive effect on employee outcomes, family-supportive benefits may be a way to do just that.

Specifically, the relationship established by this study for primary caregivers between family-supportive benefits and intention to stay could impact a company's bottom-line.

Turnover is expensive, and any factor that can be specifically linked to turnover should be of great interest to an employer. While offering family-supportive benefits may be a cost issue for some organizations, the cost of turnover would quite possibly be even more costly.

This study showed once again that the line between gender and caregiver status is blurred. Traditional gender roles seem to still be traditional roles, as can be seen by the much larger number of women than men identifying themselves as the primary caregivers in this study. Research in the past has studied gender differences but has not looked at caregiver status simultaneously (Greenhaus et al., 1989). The present study examined gender and caregiver status together and found that caregiver status was affecting other variables, but the study did not have the participation of enough male primary caregivers to say anything about these relationships with any sort of certainty.

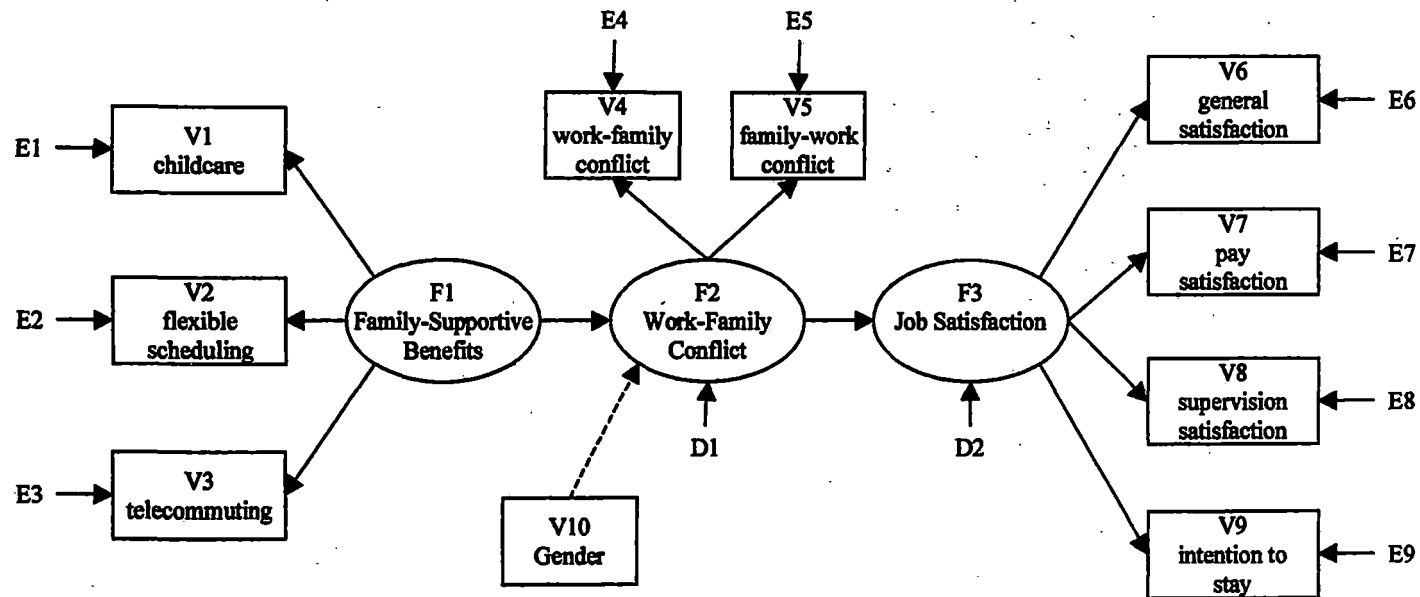
Family-supportive benefits have been met with some resistance in organizations due to impressions that they were "women-supportive" benefits and therefore were not desired by working men. As more women enter and remain in the workforce throughout their childbearing years, men will likely begin to play a more instrumental role in the care of their children. Future research should examine family-supportive benefits in a more global sense and not solely as benefits to be used by working mothers. Especially as America's workforce continues to be "sandwiched" and expected to provide care to both their offspring and their aging parents simultaneously, family-supportive benefits should begin to be seen as advantageous to the entire family unit.

For members of the workforce looking to become parents in the future, this study offers a unique glimpse into that future. By knowing that benefits impact job satisfaction and intention to leave or stay, future parents can begin to look for organizations offering their desired benefits early on. Knowing that an employer offers family-supportive benefits could be reason enough to stay with that employer if you think you may desire these benefits in the future. Likewise, if your present employer does not currently offer

these benefits, you can start pushing for them now or start looking for an organization that is more "family-friendly".

In summary, the major objective of the present study was to find evidence supporting a relationship between desired vs. attained family-supportive benefits and experienced work-family conflict, and to reaffirm the established relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction. Also, it was important to study caregiver status to see if it could be separated from gender. As this study demonstrated, these relationships exist and function similarly regardless of gender. Although a difference was not found for caregiver status on work-family conflict, the relationship for primary caregivers between family-supportive benefits and intention to stay establishes the same challenge for employers. A case has been made to organizations that investing in family-supportive benefits may end up being a worthy investment.

APPENDIX A:
PROPOSED STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL



Note: Dashed lines indicate proposed non-significant effects.

APPENDIX B:
INFORMED CONSENT

INFORMED CONSENT

The study in which you are about to participate is designed to investigate family-supportive benefits, which are sometimes offered by employers as a part of their benefits package. This study is being conducted by Alison Maitlen under the supervision of Dr. Janelle Gilbert, Associate Professor of Psychology. This study has been approved by the Psychology Department Human Participants Review Board, California State University, San Bernardino. The University requires that you give your consent before participating in a research study.

This study is in the form of a questionnaire. It should take you about 15 minutes to complete. There are a few demographic questions along with the questions pertaining to family-supportive benefits and their effects. Please be assured that any information you provide on this questionnaire will remain anonymous. At no time will your responses be identifiable. All data will be reported in group form only. At the study's conclusion (Spring 2001) you may receive a report of the results.

The risks to your participating in this study are minimal, and participants can terminate participation without penalty at any time. Please understand that your participation in this research is totally voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time during this study without penalty. You may also remove any personal data at any time during the study. If you have any concerns or questions about the study, or would like a report of the results, please contact Alison Maitlen or Dr. Janelle Gilbert at (909) 880-5587.

By placing a mark in the space provided below, I acknowledge that I have been informed of, and understand the nature and purpose of this study and that I freely consent to participate. By this mark I further acknowledge that I am at least 18 years of age.

Give your consent to participate by placing an "X" mark here: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX C:
QUESTIONNAIRE

SURVEY

How often is the statement a true statement about you? Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale:

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
never seldom sometimes often very often

- ____ After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.
- ____ On the job, I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.
- ____ My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home.
- ____ My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends.
- ____ My job or career interferes with my responsibilities at home, such as yard work, cooking, cleaning, repairs, shopping, paying the bills, or child care.
- ____ My job or career keeps me from spending the amount of time I would like to spend with my family.
- ____ I'm too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home.
- ____ My personal demands are so great that it takes away from my work.
- ____ My superiors and peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work.
- ____ My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.
- ____ My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work, such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, or working overtime.
- ____ My home life keeps me from spending the amount of time I would like to spend on job- or career-related activities.

How satisfied are you with this aspect of your job? Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale:

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
extremely dissatisfied slightly neutral slightly satisfied extremely
dissatisfied dissatisfied satisfied satisfied satisfied satisfied

- ____ The amount of job security I have.
- ____ The amount of pay and fringe benefits I receive.

- _____ The degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from my boss.
- _____ The amount of support and guidance I receive from my supervisor.
- _____ The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this organization.
- _____ How secure things look for me in the future in this organization.
- _____ The overall quality of the supervision I receive in my work.

How much do you agree with the statement? Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither agree nor disagree	agree	strongly agree

- _____ Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.
- _____ I frequently think of quitting this job.
- _____ I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.
- _____ I am not inclined to stay in my current job for very much longer.
- _____ I often think about quitting my current job.
- _____ I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
- _____ I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
- _____ I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
- _____ I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.
- _____ I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.
- _____ I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.
- _____ This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
- _____ I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.
- _____ I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.
- _____ It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.

I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore.

4) Does your company provide information about child-care options in your area?

___ yes ___ no (if no, skip to question #6)

5) To what extent does your company provide information about child-care options in your area?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
to a small extent to a great extent

6) To what extent do you desire that this benefit (provision of information about child-care options in your area) be offered by your employer?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
I have no desire for this benefit average desire I have great desire for this benefit

7) Does your company provide referrals to child-care facilities in your area?

___ yes ___ no (if no, skip to question #9)

8) To what extent does your company provide referrals to child-care facilities in your area?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
to a small extent to a great extent

9) To what extent do you desire that this benefit (referrals to child-care facilities in your area) be offered by your employer?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
I have no desire for this benefit average desire I have great desire for this benefit

10) Does your company provide subsidies for the child-care arrangement of your choice?

___ yes ___ no (if no, skip to question #12)

11) To what extent does your company provide subsidies?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
to a small extent to a great extent

12) To what extent do you desire that this benefit (child-care subsidies) be offered by your employer?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
I have no desire for this benefit average desire I have great desire for this benefit

13) Does your company provide the option of flextime?

___ yes ___ no (if no, skip to question #15)

14) To what extent does your company provide the option of flextime?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
to a small extent to a great extent

15) To what extent do you desire that this benefit (flextime) be offered by your employer?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5

I have no desire for this benefit average desire I have great desire for this benefit

16) Does your company provide the option of working part-time?

 yes no (if no, skip to question #18)

17) To what extent does your company provide the option of working part-time?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
to a small extent to a great extent

18) To what extent do you desire that this benefit (the option of working part-time) be offered by your employer?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
I have no desire average desire I have great desire
for this benefit

19) Does your company provide the option of job sharing?

 yes no (if no, skip to question #21)

20) To what extent does your company provide the option of job sharing?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
to a small extent to a great extent

21) To what extent do you desire that this benefit (job sharing) be offered by your employer?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5

I have no desire for this benefit average desire I have great desire for this benefit

22) Does your company provide the option of telecommuting?

 yes no (if no, skip to question #24)

23) To what extent does your company provide the option of telecommuting?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
to a small extent to a great extent

24) To what extent do you desire that this benefit (telecommuting) be offered by your employer?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
I have no desire for this benefit average desire I have great desire for this benefit

25) Are you a single parent? ___ yes ___ no

Please check (✓) the most appropriate response:

*****For the sake of this survey, the term "spouse" can be used to represent a husband/wife, life partner, boyfriend/girlfriend, or live-in partner. The term "other" can be used to represent any relative or other person other than a "spouse" who takes part in care-giving (e.g., mother, brother, grandfather).**

1) Are you employed full-time? ___yes ___no

2) Are you employed part-time? ___yes ___no

3) Is your spouse employed full-time? ___yes ___no

4) Is your spouse employed part-time? ___yes ___no

5) Who spends more time with your child(ren)?

___ I do
___ my spouse does
___ we spend equal amounts of time
___ other

6) Who is more likely to stay home from work when a child is sick?

___ I am
___ my spouse is
___ we take turns staying home
___ other

7) Who is more actively involved in the life of your child(ren)?

___ I am
___ my spouse is
___ we are both equally involved
___ other

8) Who is most often responsible for transporting your child(ren) to activities, doctor's appointments, play dates, etc.?

- ☐ I am
- ☐ my spouse is
- ☐ we share the transportation responsibilities equally
- ☐ other

9) Who do you consider to be the primary care-giver of your child(ren)?

- ☐ I am
- ☐ my spouse is
- ☐ we share the care-giver role equally
- ☐ other

10) Who is responsible for the majority of child-care concerns for your child(ren) (for example: locating child-care, making arrangements for child-care)?

- ☐ I am
- ☐ my spouse is
- ☐ we share the responsibility equally
- ☐ other

11) Who do you think gains more personal fulfillment from their role as a parent?

- ☐ I do
- ☐ my spouse does
- ☐ we both gain an equal amount of fulfillment from the role
- ☐ other

12) Who spends more time playing with your child(ren)?

- ☐ I do
- ☐ my spouse does
- ☐ we spend an equal amount of time
- ☐ other

13) Your gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female (please check one)

APPENDIX D:
DEBRIEFING STATEMENT

DEBRIEFING STATEMENT

PLEASE DETACH AND KEEP

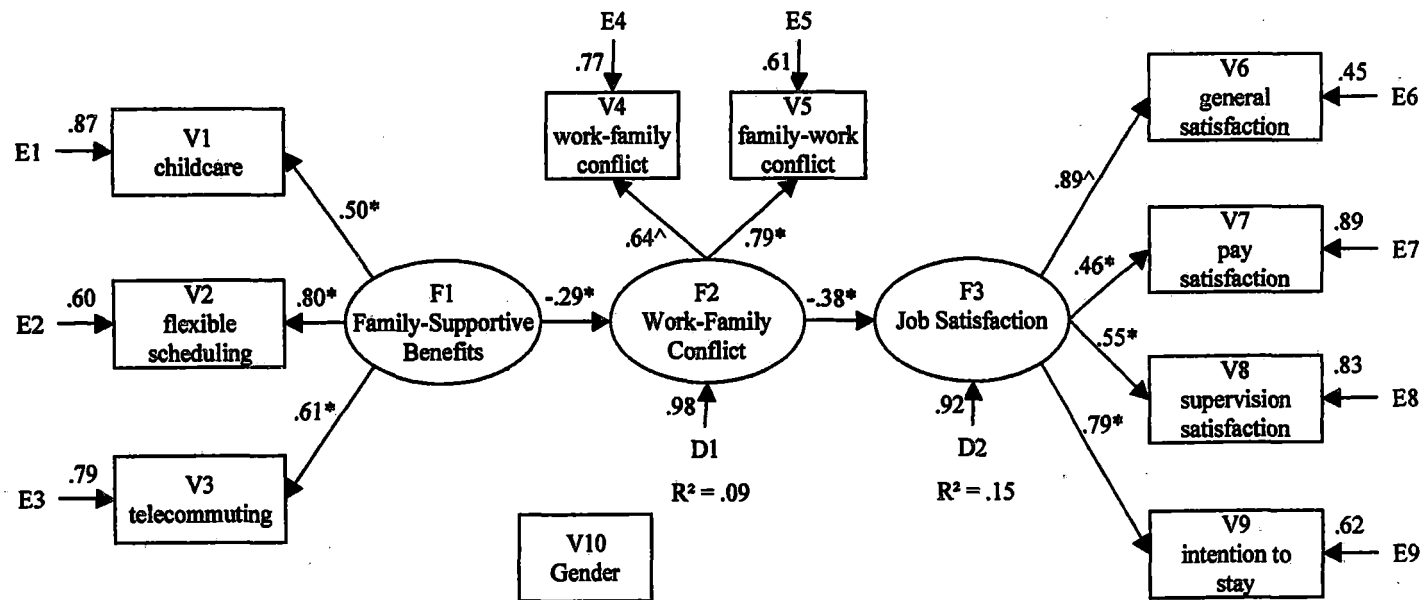
Thank you for your participation in this study. At this time we would like to explain the purpose of our research. Our research team is investigating the effect of family-supportive benefits on employee's experienced work-family conflict (the conflict working parents experience when the role of parent interferes with the role of employee and when the role of employee interferes with the role of parent). We are also looking at the effects of the work-family conflict itself. If your participation in this survey has raised any issues for you and you feel you need someone to talk to, please contact the CSUSB Counseling Center at (909) 880-5040. The Psychology Department Human Participant Review Board, California State University, San Bernardino has approved this research. Dr. Janelle Gilbert supervised this study. If you have any questions or would like a copy of the results reported in group form (available Summer 2001), you may contact Alison Maitlen or Dr. Janelle Gilbert at (909) 880-5587.

APPENDIX E:
CORRELATION COVARIANCE MATRIX FOR ENTIRE SAMPLE

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Childcare	1.0	.40*	.32*	-.13*	-.05	.03	-.08	-.12	-.02
2. Flexible Scheduling	.40*	1.0	.49*	-.15*	-.18*	.18*	.07	.03	.19*
3. Telecommuting	.32*	.49*	1.0	-.16*	-.12	.02	.02	-.10	.10
4. Work→Family Conflict	-.13*	-.15*	-.16*	1.0	.50*	-.20*	-.13*	-.09	-.14*
5. Family→Work Conflict	-.05	-.18*	-.12	.50*	1.0	-.27*	-.07	-.21*	-.26*
6. General Satisfaction	.03	.18*	.02	-.20*	-.27*	1.0	.37*	.48*	.71*
7. Pay Satisfaction	-.08	.07	.02	-.13*	-.07	.37*	1.0	.45*	.35*
8. Supervision Satisfaction	-.12	.03	-.10	-.09	-.21*	.48*	.45*	1.0	.39*
9. Intention to Stay	-.02	.19*	.10	-.14*	-.26*	.71*	.35*	.39*	1.0

* $p < .05$

APPENDIX F:
FINAL MODEL FOR ENTIRE SAMPLE



* $p < .05$

^ parameter's variance was set to 1.0

Notes: Standardized coefficients reported on model.

Significance tests were done on unstandardized coefficients.

APPENDIX G:
CORRELATION COVARIANCE MATRIX FOR PRIMARY CAREGIVERS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Childcare	1.0	.44*	.25*	-.17	-.10	.03	-.13	-.20	.04
2. Flexible Scheduling	.44*	1.0	.49*	-.21*	-.19*	.24*	.14	.12	.36*
3. Telecommuting	.25*	.49*	1.0	-.33*	-.22*	.16	.06	.04	-.29*
4. Work→Family Conflict	-.17	-.21*	-.33*	1.0	.47*	-.15	-.15	-.06	-.14
5. Family→Work Conflict	-.10	-.19*	-.22*	.47*	1.0	-.23*	-.13	-.29*	-.30*
6. General Satisfaction	.03	.24*	.16	-.15	-.25*	1.0	.36*	.53*	.71*
7. Pay Satisfaction	-.13	.14	.06	-.15	-.13	.36*	1.0	.35*	.43*
8. Supervision Satisfaction	-.20*	.12	.04	-.06	-.29*	.53*	.35*	1.0	.44*
9. Intention to Stay	.04	.36*	.29*	-.14	-.30*	.71*	.43*	.44*	1.0

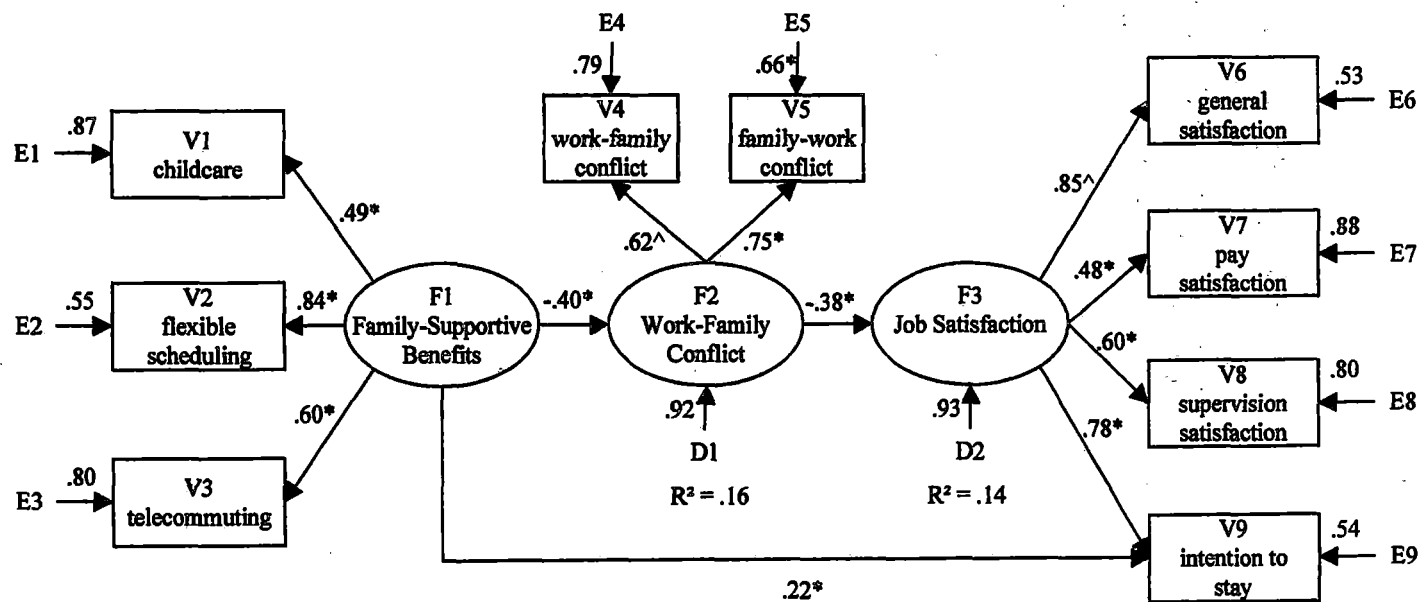
* $p < .05$

APPENDIX H:
CORRELATION COVARIANCE MATRIX FOR SECONDARY CAREGIVERS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Childcare	1.0	.34*	.40*	-.10	-.02	.04	-.03	-.05	-.07
2. Flexible Scheduling	.37*	1.0	.51*	-.12	-.17*	.15	.02	-.05	.06
3. Telecommuting	.40*	.51*	1.0	-.02	-.03	-.10	-.03	-.21*	-.05
4. Work→Family Conflict	-.10	-.12	-.02	1.0	.52*	-.24*	-.11	-.11	-.14
5. Family→Work Conflict	-.02	-.17*	-.03	.52*	1.0	-.30*	-.04	-.17*	-.24*
6. General Satisfaction	.04	.15	-.10	-.24*	-.30*	1.0	.41*	.47*	.73*
7. Pay Satisfaction	-.03	.02	-.03	-.11	-.04	.41*	1.0	.51*	.29*
8. Supervision Satisfaction	-.05	-.05	-.21*	-.11	-.17*	.47*	.51*	1.0	.36*
9. Intention to Stay	-.07	.06	-.05	-.14	-.24*	.73*	.29*	.36*	1.0

* $p < .05$

APPENDIX I:
BASELINE MODEL FOR PRIMARY CAREGIVERS



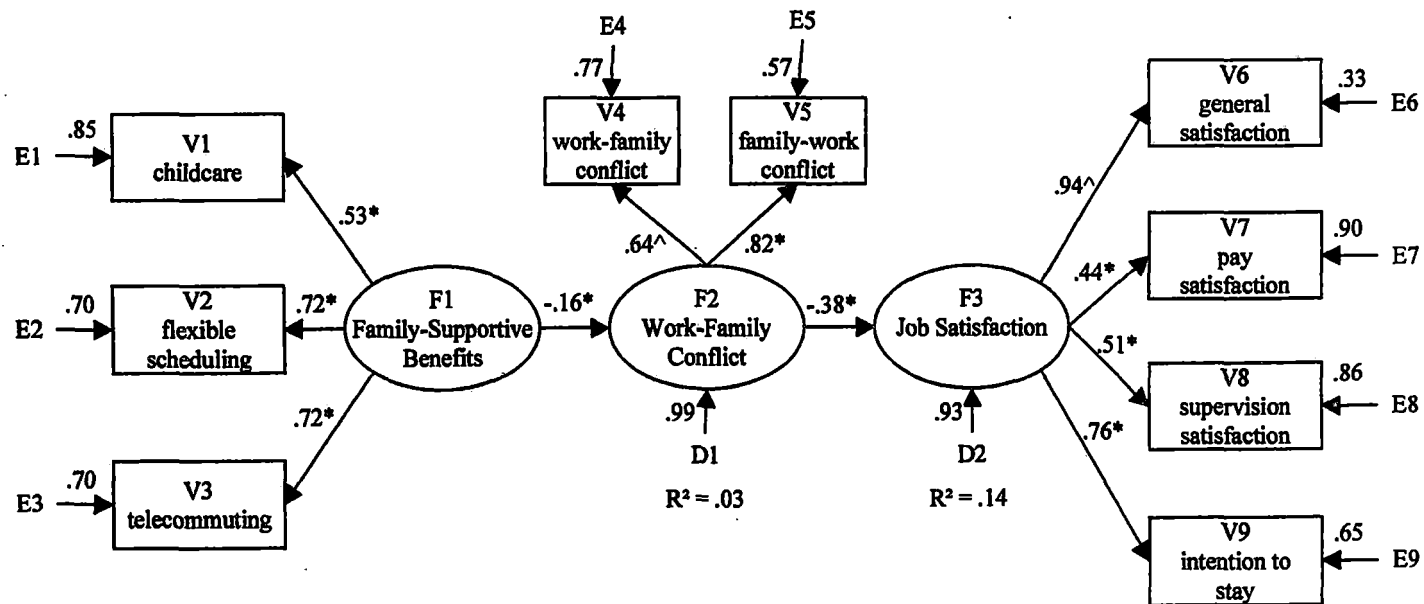
* $p < .05$

^ parameter's variance was set to 1.0

Note: Standardized coefficients reported on model.

Significance tests were done on unstandardized coefficients.

APPENDIX J:
BASELINE MODEL FOR SECONDARY CAREGIVERS



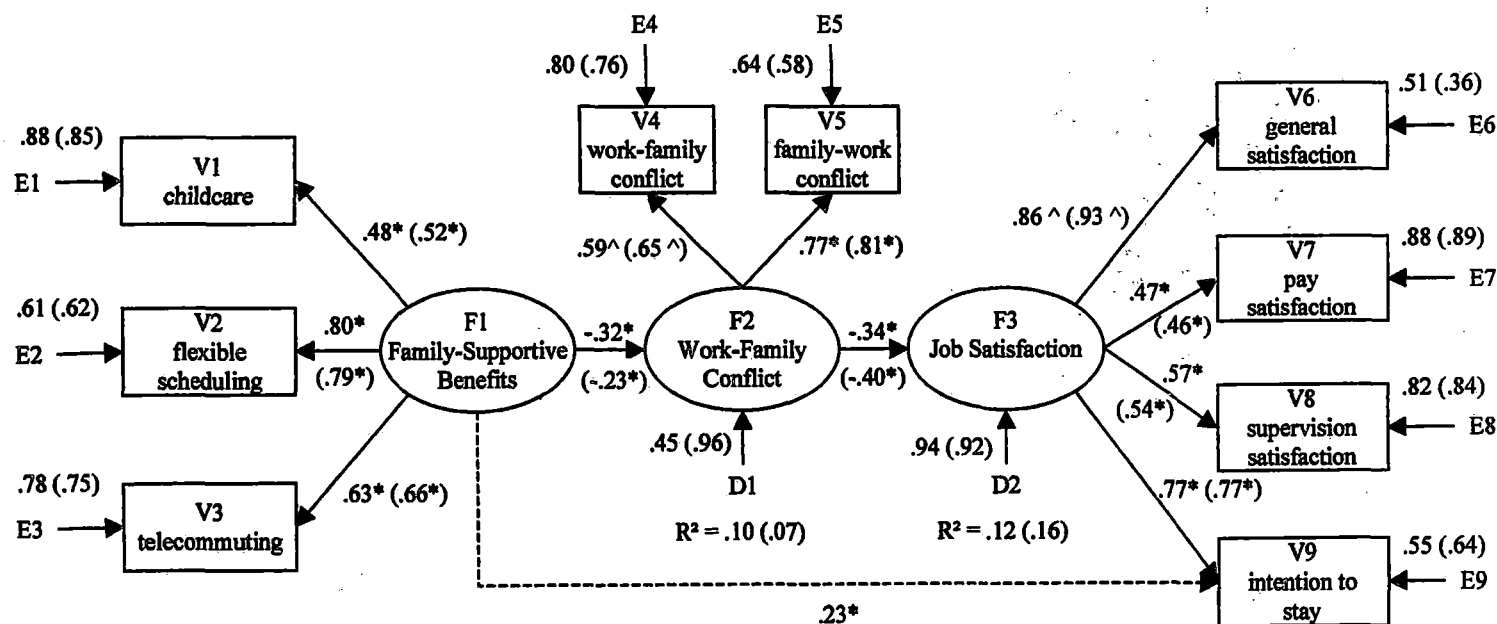
* $p < .05$

^ parameter's variance was set to 1.0

Note: Standardized coefficients reported on model.

Significance tests were done on unstandardized coefficients.

APPENDIX K:
FINAL MULTIPLE GROUPS MODEL



* $p < .05$

^ parameter's variance was set to 1.0

a = This path was different for the two groups and therefore remained unconstrained.

Notes: Standardized coefficients for primary and secondary caregivers are reported with those for secondary caregivers in parentheses. Significance tests were done on unstandardized coefficients. Dashed line indicates a path that applies only to primary caregivers.

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