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Exploring Managers' Attitudes Toward Work/Family Initiatives: A

Mixed-Methods Approach

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Exploring Managers' Attitudes Toward Work/Family Initiatives: A Mixed-Methods

Approach

by

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Bella Abzug once said, "The test for whether or not you can hold a job should not be the arrangement of your chromosomes." Equal opportunities for women in general and a desire for fairness in the workplace specifically originally attracted me to the topic of work/family programs, but as my research progressed, I was awakened to the plight of the American working father. Struggles of getting ahead at work, but still being a devoted parent do not solely belong to the realm of women. For equality to be achieved, working mothers' and fathers' voices must be heard.

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Exploring Managers' Attitudes Toward Work/Family Initiatives: A Mixed-Methods

Approach

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Multiple roles of worker and caregiver are a current reality for American men and

women. In response to the need to employ more women and reduce work/family

conflict, many companies have adopted work/family initiatives such as flextime and

telecommuting. Despite the benefits associated with the use of work/family programs,

many companies are hesitant to encourage employees' use of such initiatives. This study

focused on private sector managers' views of work/family programs and addressed how

much they encourage the use of and provide information to employees about flextime and

telecommuting. Using a snowball sampling method, 63 managers from private sector

companies offering flextime and/or telecommuting participated in an on-line study.

These participants answered questionnaires and gave open-ended responses regarding

attitudes toward women, men, work, and family, and employees' usage of work/family

programs. The results of the quantitative portion of this study showed a significant

correlation between managers' and employees' use of flextime or telecommuting

policies. Women under the age of 50 (younger) were less likely than their over 50 (older)

female, over 50 (older) male, and under 50 (younger) male counterparts to have employees who use flextime or telecommuting programs. Results also showed that women over 50 were more likely to have employees who use flextime or telecommute when compared with men both over and under 50 and women under 50. Measures utilized in these findings were single-item scales developed by the author. Findings from the qualitative portion of this study showed that much of how managers view work/family programs depends on how responsible they believe their employees to be. Further research is necessary to operationalize managers' view of responsible employees and to understand if this is code for workers who put the job before all else. This study examined private sector managers with a sample comprised of primarily young (Median age for men and women of 37 years), White Americans working as managers in the private sector and therefore caution should be taken when generalizing findings. It is hoped that these findings may be an entry point for interventions aimed at increasing the use and encouragement of work/family policies.

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Chapter One: Introduction

The faces of America's families and workforce are changing so that women and men are sharing roles and responsibilities. In Barnett and Hyde's (2001) article reviewing this phenomenon they propose a theory of gender, work, and family, which they call multiple role theory. They propose that multiple roles (worker, caretaker) are beneficial for both men and women as reflected in mental, relationship, and physical health.

The tenets of multiple role theory, namely that differences between men and women are small and both women and men benefit from multiple roles, have particular relevance for both men and women's participation in work/family programs. Multiple role theory states that individuals adding additional roles are beneficial (Scharlach, 1994; Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Grzywacs, Carlson, Kacmar, & Wayne, 2007). Barnett and Hyde (2001) specifically explain that multiple roles help by way of "buffering, added income, social support, opportunities to experience success, expanded frame of reference, increased self-complexity, similarity of experiences, and gender-role ideology" (p. 784). Similarity of experiences between partners leads to an increased understanding of one another and gender-role ideology can lead to embracing multiple roles with ease.

Multiple roles of worker and caregiver are not only a theory, they are a current reality. With employed women making up 46% of the American labor force and the dual-earner family being the modal family structure in this country (U.S. Department of Labor, 2005; Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Shockley & Allen, 2007; Grzywacs et al., 2007; Carr, Boyar, & Gregory, 2008), recruiting and retaining women are becoming large

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concerns for American businesses. As more women are working outside the home more men are becoming involved in family life (Gilbert, Dancer, Rossman, & Thorn, 1991). Because women are working and men have more care giving duties, childcare is no longer simply a working woman's issue, but a worker's issue.

In response to the need to employ more women as well as reduce work/family conflict, many companies have adopted work/family initiatives such as flextime and telecommuting. The 2008 National Study of Employers found that 79% of employers offer a form of flextime and 47% allow at least some employees to transition between full and part-time work (Families and Work Institute, 2008). Researchers have found that employees using flextime have higher job satisfaction, lower turnover intentions, lower burnout levels, and improved productivity (Almer & Kaplan, 2002; Eaton, 2003; Dunham, Pierce, & Castenada, 1987; Grover and Krocker, 1995; Shepard, Clifton, & Kruse, 1996). These studies show that not only are work/family initiatives useful for employees, but they are also beneficial to their employers.

Despite these positive findings, many companies are hesitant to encourage employees' use of work/family programs and many employees are in turn fearful to use them (Shepard, Clifton, & Kruse, 1996). It seems there is a disconnect between the empirical evidence showing positive impacts of work/family initiatives and company and employee beliefs about these initiatives, thus it remains challenging to implement and utilize these initiatives.

While research shows positive outcomes for both companies and employees using work/family programs and supports the premise of multiple role theory, gender norms

and stereotypes limit the acceptance of women and men taking up multiple roles and utilizing work/family initiatives. Correll, Benard, and Paik's (2007) research finds that mothers are often penalized in the work place in terms of perceived competence and recommended starting salary, while fathers often benefit in their careers from being a parent. They explain that socially, what it means to be a father is not incompatible with what it means to be a good worker and they found that fathers were given higher salaries than men without children. Stereotypes associated with being a father include working outside the home and being the primary breadwinner.

The presented study focused on managers' views of work/family programs and specifically addressed how their views related to how much they encourage the use of flextime and telecommuting as well as how much information they give their employees about these programs. In Kossek, Barber, and Winters' (1999) study the researchers focused on the idea of the manager as a role model; if managers use work/family initiatives then their employees will be more likely to as well. Therefore, it was predicted that managers who use these programs will have employees who do so as well. In the presented study, managers' attitudes toward egalitarian roles of men and women as workers and caregivers, managers' attitudes and usage of work/family programs, and employee's use of those programs were examined.

It was also hypothesized that managers' gender would be related to their behaviors and attitudes toward employees using work/family programs. Managers' relationships with their employees are often affected by leadership style. Transformational leadership is exemplified by leaders' focus on employees' individual

needs as well as serving as a role model. Eagly and Carli (2007) found that women managers were more likely than male managers to adopt a transformational leadership style. Thus, female managers would be more likely to focus on employees' individual needs by paying attention to their employee's work/family balance concerns and promoting and educating on existing work/family programs at their company. Zedeck's (1992) research focused on not only on managers' gender, but their as well as age. He discussed that older managers, in particular older male managers, are less likely to encourage work/family initiatives, as they began working in a time where women were relegated to the home and men were breadwinners. He also suggested that older male managers' children are grown therefore they have less need of flextime and telecommuting programs themselves.

To date, little research has been conducted on managers to examine attitudes at private sector companies toward work/family programs. Due to this fact, in the presented study data have been collected on managers at for-profit companies to understand why they do or do not endorse the use of work/family programs for their employees or themselves and what changes would need to be made for them to do so. This has been done in the hope that a better understanding of attitudes can aid in the increased use and encouragement of work/family programs in the private sector.

In this study, 63 managers who oversaw 2 or more employees from for-profit companies that offer flextime and/or telecommuting were asked by email to participate in an on-line study. These participants answered questionnaires regarding attitudes toward women, work, and family, and what would have to change for them to endorse the use of

work/family programs for their employees as a way of better understanding what

influences managers' attitudes toward work/family programs.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This review of the literature describes current ideas and trends in work/family initiatives and explores why a study encouraging their use is necessary. The review will be divided into four sections. The first section will begin with women, men, work, and family, explaining how both men and women are represented in the workforce and how their personal lives, mainly the role of their families, are negotiated at work. The focus of this section will be on multiple role theory (Scharlach, 1994; Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Shockley & Allen, 2007; Grzywacs et al., 2007; Carr et al., 2008). This section will also review the current research and debates on work/family policies including work/family balance for non-parents, men and care-giving, social systems, work/family conflict, and egalitarian attitudes toward women. The second section will explore work/family initiatives in the private sector. This section will focus on the background of work/family programs to provide a context for the current study (U.S. Department of Labor; Shepard, Clifton, & Kruse, 2001; Frank & Lowe, 2003). The second section will also address the drawbacks and benefits of work/family initiatives in the corporate world and gives attention to the drawbacks and benefits of work/family initiatives for employees. This section will explore the shifting standards model and why mothers have difficulty getting ahead in companies, thus making work/family initiatives necessary. The second section also concentrates on managers who will be the focus of the study as they are the gateways to change in large corporations. A subsection will deal with the leadership styles managers' display and how these can relate to their attitudes toward work/family programs. Corporate culture will be attended to as this is often considered a barrier to the

use of work/family programs (Haworth & IFMA, 1995; Schein, 2004; Hoang, Nickerson, Beckman, & Eng, 2008).   The third section will focus on ways of enacting change at for-profit companies as the presented study tries to understand managers' attitudes toward work/family initiatives in hopes of increasing their use in the private sector. Finally, the fourth section will present the hypotheses and research questions for this mixed methods exploratory study.

Women, Men, Work, and Family

Current Views

In 1950, women made up 29.6% of the labor force (U.S. Department of Labor, 2005). In the same time period the sociologist, Talcott Parsons (1959), discussed the historical view of the family. He reported that sons were emancipated from their families and required to find a suitable occupation, while daughters achieved their status and security by marrying the right man. Women were relegated to domestic duties while men worked outside the home.

American gender roles have changed. In 2005, women had become 46% of the work force (U.S. Department of Labor, 2005). Women are now represented in corporate America, as presidents of major universities, in both houses of congress, and on the Supreme Court (Marshall, 2001; Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Eagly & Carli, 2007).

Barnett and Hyde (2001) put forth that current research does not support Parsons' traditional views of women and men in work and family situations. An abundance of researchers claim that, in fact, many gender differences are formed by societal expectations (Barnett, Marshall, & Singer, 1992; Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Grzywacs,

Carlson, Kacmar, & Wayne, 2007). The researchers propose that there is no biological

basis for gender asymmetry and that differences can change, and they argue, have

changed. As women have shown that they are capable leaders in realms outside of the

domestic sphere men have also begun to embrace their role as caregivers (Pleck, 1997;

Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008). Thus, while the two sexes may be

focusing on differing areas of acceptance, women in the workforce and men on the home

front, both are striving for the common goal of work/family balance.

Multiple role theory.

Presently, researchers have found that the typical family household is a dual-

earner one and women and men both possess many roles such as worker, caregiver,

spouse, and friend (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). In light of this current reality, Barnett and

Hyde (2001) introduced multiple role theory, a new theory of men and women with

regard to work and family. They proposed an expansionist model, which endorses that

having multiple roles enhances the individual. Barnett and Hyde (2001) showed that men

and women are healthier physically, mentally, and in relationships when they hold

multiple roles. However, for multiple roles to be beneficial there must not be too many

roles that one adopts, and the time demands of each role must not be overwhelming.

Multiple role theory is supported by strong and extensive empirical findings

which will be addressed. To fully understand multiple role theory it must be broken

down into its components. The theory affirms that the processes that make multiple roles

healthy for men and women are, "buffering, added income, social support, opportunities

to experience success, expanded frame of reference, increased self-complexity, similarity

of experiences, and gender-role ideology" (Barnett & Hyde, 2001, p. 784). Buffering

refers to the idea that positive effects in one role can buffer negative effects of another.

Added income comes from both partners working and earning an outside income as

opposed to traditional views of men being sole earners. Increased social support was

another piece of multiple role theory. Barnett and Hyde (2001) refer to Polasky and

Holahan's (1998) research when they address that increased social support is found to be

correlated with lower rates of anxiety and depression. Working outside the home

provides individuals with increased social support through colleagues and co-workers.

Opportunities to experience success are increased when multiple roles are increased.

Barnett et al.'s (1992) research on working women found that women who had lives

where they were able to experience success outside of their worker role were less reactive

to changes at work. Individuals with more than one role can also have broader

experiences to draw from, which describes Barnett and Hyde's (2001) expanded frame of

reference. They go on to describe increased self-complexity as enhancing the number of

aspects of the self, which can serve to reduce depression. They refer to similarity of

experiences, which is beneficial due to partners more easily understanding each other

because they both balance issues of work and family. Finally, gender role ideology

describes men and women holding less traditional views about gender roles and this can

lead to embracing multiple roles with ease (Barnett & Hyde, 2001).

The final aspect of multiple role theory is that gender differences are not

inflexible or large (Grzywacs et al., 2007). Feingold's (1994) meta-analysis of gender

traits found few significant differences between men and women in areas of

gregariousness, aggression, impulsiveness, tender-mindedness, and under varying

conditions, emotional expressivity. This research is in direct contrast to many socially

and historically held views that the sexes are opposites instead of similar (Parsons, 1959).

With women and men being shown to be so similar, it is understandable that both would

have need of work/family programs to balance their shared priorities of home and career.

Work/family balance for non-parents.

While much of the work/family balance research focuses on parents' need for

flexible work schedules so they can attend to their children, non-parents have need of

work/family flexibility as well (Scharlach, 1994). Multiple role theory addresses the

benefit of the caregiver role and this role extends beyond care-giving for children.

Scharlach's (1994) research focused on care-giving for the elderly and she found that

positive aspects of balancing care-giving and worker roles outweighed the negative ones.

Specifically, participants noted better interpersonal relationships, feelings of

accomplishment, and, similar to Barnett and Hyde's (2001) findings for multiple role

theory, the ability to benefit from one role when other roles were being experienced

negatively. This applied to both males and females in the study. Since research shows

that men and women are very similar psychologically (Grzywacs et al., 2007; Feingold,

1994; Barnett & Hyde, 2001), it is sensible that they should both be invested in their

multiple roles as worker and caregiver within the family. Extrapolating from Scharlach's

(1994) research, employees utilizing work/family programs can use work/family

programs for reasons beyond childcare. Men, specifically, and their multiple roles will

be discussed in the next section.

Men and care-giving.

While historically women were seen as primary care-givers (Parsons, 1959),

things are changing. As more women are moving into the realm of paid work, men are

becoming more involved in childcare and household activities (Pleck, 1997; Barnett &

Hyde, 2001; Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008). Joseph Pleck (1997)

researched the importance of father roles for men and their families. He operationalized

the contributions of fathers by defining three aspects of paternal involvement: father's

interaction with the child, availability to the child, and responsibility for the child's well-

being. These three components are necessary for successful relationships between fathers

and offspring. Pleck (1997) also noted that if mothers are employed outside of the home,

fathers spend significantly more time with their children. This suggests that Barnett and

Hyde's expansionist model, multiple role theory, is accurate for today's working parent

families. As more women are working outside of the home, more men are becoming

involved with tasks surrounding childcare, housework, and family coordination and thus,

differences between men and women's roles have become extremely small (Barnett &

Hyde, 2001; Grzywacs et al, 2007). The next section goes beyond addressing individual

men and women's roles and instead taking a step back to concentrate on the bigger

picture of social systems.

Social systems.

Grzywacs et al. (2007) expanded on multiple role theory by introducing the idea

of work-family facilitation. Previous research, such as Barnett and Hyde's multiple role

theory, looked at individuals, while work-family facilitation takes a macro-view in

looking at systems. Work-family facilitation is derived from systems theory, which posits that any disruption in one system affects other systems (Luhmann, 1995). The theory states that the benefits an individual receives in one social system, such as work, adds to his or her growth in another social system, such as care-giving. Similar to multiple role theory, work-family facilitation promotes having many identities as beneficial. This theory also proposes that difficulties in balancing work and family are not merely individual problems, but something that affects the multitudes of people who work outside the home and have families. In 2005, 78.3% of children in the U.S. had at least one parent working full time outside of the home (Bock & Miller, 2007). By addressing work/family balance from a systems approach, companies can begin to look at work/family programs as necessary for an entire workforce and not just on a case by case basis.

Work/family conflict.

Instead of looking at how worker roles enhance family roles and family roles enhance worker roles as described by multiple role theory (Barnett & Hyde, 2001) and work/family facilitation (Grzywacs et al., 2007), Kossek and Ozeki (1998) explored the idea of work/family conflict. Work and family conflict comes from competing demands for time, energy, and resources between work and home (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Carr, Boyar, & Gregory, 2008). In Kossek and Ozeki's (1998) meta-analysis they found that people with high levels of conflict, whether work interfered with family or vice versa, were less satisfied with their jobs and had lower levels of life satisfaction.

In an attempt to isolate specific reasons as to why such struggles occur, Carr, Boyar, and Gregory (2008) explored moderating factors in work/family conflict. They argued that the moderating factor of value, or how central the role of worker or care-giver is to an individual, will determine the degree of conflict. They found that individuals who highly valued family over work had lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. For these individuals the effects of work interfering with family were large and significant. However, individuals who solidly valued work over family had insignificant levels of conflict. An understanding of the cause of work/family conflict are important so it can be properly addressed and combated.

Reducing work/family conflict is an important component of the present study and a reason for supporting the use of work/family programs. Dunham, Pierce, and Castenada (1987) as well as Kossek and Ozeki (1998) found that flextime reduced work/family conflict, while Shockley and Allen (2007) found that flextime helped reduce work/family conflict specifically for employed women who highly valued family over work. Also, employees who highly value their family role over their worker role are more likely to quit or change jobs when work/family conflict arises (Carr et al., 2008), but research shows that individuals who use work/family programs such as flextime and telecommuting have higher retention rates (Kossek, Barber, & Winters, 1999; Grover & Krocker, 1995; Almer & Kaplan, 2002). Thus, work/family programs may be extremely useful at reducing work/family conflict and increasing employee retention.

Egalitarian attitudes toward women.

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While work/family conflict affects both sexes, women have historically been associated with the home and have only participated in the workforce in large numbers in the past few decades (Parsons, 1959; Barnett & Hyde, 2001; U.S. Department of Labor, 2005). As the presented study focuses on the private sector of the workforce, it is necessary to understand attitudes toward women as they are relative newcomers and the minority group who have historically been deterred from entering and achieving in the working world (Hymowitz & Schellhardt, 1986). One of the underlying goals of this research is to improve equality between the sexes and it is therefore necessary to be familiar with current attitudes toward women as workers.

Gilbert, Dancer, Rossman, and Thorn (1991) observed adolescents' and college students' attitudes toward work/family integration. The purpose of their study was to investigate if women and men's attitudes toward women working had kept pace with trends of women working outside the home and men partaking in childcare duties. Their study also provided reliability and validity data for the Orientation to Occupational and Family Integration Scale (OOFI).

The (OOFI) measures attitudes and is comprised of three subscales: traditional male (conventional stereotypes of men as breadwinners), traditional female (conventional stereotypes of women as caregivers), and role sharing. Items on the role sharing scale reflect participation in both worker and care-giver roles for each partner. Consequently, individuals who positively endorsed items on the OOFI-Role Sharing (OOFI-RS) also demonstrated more egalitarian attitudes toward work/family integration for both partners. While an instrument normed on workers would have been ideal, the OOFI-RS was used

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in the presented study due to its evaluation of attitudes toward men and women both in the home and at work (see Appendix B).

While Gilbert et al's (1991) research provided an instrument to test attitudes toward women, men, and work/family integration, other research addressed changing attitudes toward women throughout the years. Janet Spence addressed a more recent state of society's gender beliefs in her 1997 report with Eugene Hahn; "Since the mid-l960s, there has been a notable softening in the traditional belief that women and men ought to play distinctly different roles within and outside the home and have different rights and privileges" (p. 19). They used the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS) to look at mind sets toward the rights of women across four cohorts of undergraduates in 1972, 1976, 1980, and 1992. They conducted a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with the 15 items of the AWS as dependent variables and found a significant main effect for the cohort. This and other research shows that current generations hold more egalitarian views toward women (Spence & Hahn, 1997; Grzywacs et al., 2007; Carr et al., 2008).

Despite these egalitarian beliefs espoused by the most recent cohort, further examination of the four groups found that men held more traditional views than women (Spence & Hahn, 1997). This suggests that despite the fact that people as a whole currently hold more egalitarian beliefs, men still lag behind women in adopting these progressive ideas.

Other studies which addressed changing attitudes toward women were conducted by Cherry and Deaux (1978) and Yoder and Schleicher (1996). Cherry and Deaux's

(1978) historical study examined undergraduates' reactions to women and men who were successful in occupations that were typically associated with the other sex. The Attitudes Toward Women Scale and evaluations of participants' written reactions to vignettes of women or men succeeding in male dominated or female dominated fields were the dependent variables in the study. They found that 50-70% of written reactions of women or men in nontraditional fields were negative. Yoder and Schleicher (1996) replicated this study and found that in more recent times only 26-39% of written reactions were negative. They discussed that the current concentration of women and men in gendered occupations shows that stereotypes are still prevalent, though lessening. Their results suggest that an overt negative bias toward women and men in nontraditional fields is disappearing.

These findings suggest that women are achieving equality or at least being perceived as achieving equality in today's society. They are relevant to the current study as multiple role theory advocates for men and women to balance both traditional and non-traditional gender roles. However, the previous research studies discussed used student participants and may not be as relevant to the presented study, which focuses on workers as participants, because students are in a different stage of life and may be less concerned with work and family issues than adults currently in the workforce. The following research studies focused on workers as participants.

While the previous studies were conducted using a student sample, other, more recent research has focused on workers as participants when looking at egalitarian attitudes. A few of the previous studies addressed attitudes toward women and equality

over time (Spence & Hahn, 1997; Yoder &Schleicher, 1996), but Inglehart and Norris (2003) explored attitudes over time and across the globe. They analyzed the World Values Survey which addressed public opinions from 1981-2001. They found that equality among the sexes occurred during two stages of the modernization process. The first was the shift from agrarian to industrialist societies which increased literacy, reduced birth rates, increased education, and increased the number of women in the workforce. The next shift was the more recent shift from industrialist to post-industrialist societies, which created even more opportunities for women in the workforce. Inglehart and Norris (2003) argued that egalitarian attitudes cannot flourish in a country unless said country has undergone this modernization process. They also pointed out that countries with strong religious ties, most notably to the Islamic religion, are associated with more traditional attitudes toward women regardless of their stage in the modernization process. Inglehart and Norris (2003) addressed that due to the United States' position as a post-industrialist society and the relative religious freedom of its citizens, it has been able to see large gains in the egalitarian treatment of its women. Due to this fact, and to reduce variability, only individuals who reside in the United States will be included in the presented study. While compared to the vast majority of the 70 countries included in the World Values Survey, American women enjoy immense freedom and equality, Inglehart and Norris (2003) found that they lag behind their Scandinavian counterparts regarding cultural beliefs about women's equality regarding pay, education, and sexual freedom.

Inglehart and Norris (2003) were not the only researchers to find that American women are making gains, but have a way to go in their goal of equality. Judge and

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Livingston's (2008) data came from the National Longitudinal Study, a survey of 12,686 people who were interviewed four times between 1979 and 2005. They examined individuals' gender role orientation, or "beliefs that individuals hold about the proper roles for men and women at work and at home," and how this related to their gender and wage earnings (p. 998). Their research showed that as a whole, people's views are becoming more egalitarian, but there were significant differences in pay depending on one's gender role orientation. They found that while occupational segregation, or women being concentrated in lower wage earning industries, partly explained differences, men who held traditional gender role orientations earned significantly more than men who held egalitarian role orientations and women regardless of their gender role orientation. They also found that women who held more egalitarian attitudes earned higher wages than women who held traditional gender role orientations. They suggested that for individuals who held traditional gender role orientations, the belief that work is more important for men, and thus they should be paid more, brought about behaviors that evoked such an outcome. They concluded that although as a whole, individuals' attitudes toward gender are becoming more egalitarian, traditional gender role orientation continues to exacerbate the wage gap for men and women.

While the previous studies have shown that attitudes toward women have become consistently more egalitarian (Gilbert, Dancer, Rossman, & Thorn, 1991; Yoder & Schleicher, 1996; Grzywacs et al., 2007; Carr et al., 2008, Judge & Livingston, 2008), there are limitations. Spence and Hahn (1997) showed that women adopt egalitarian views to a greater extent than men suggesting that men may not want to give up their

position of power. Inglehart and Norris' (2003) research found that while American women enjoy relative equality, they still lag behind Scandinavian countries regarding gender egalitarianism. Judge and Livingston (2008) showed that while many people today hold progressive views toward women in the workplace, those who financially get ahead and are therefore highly rewarded are men who hold traditional views of men working outside of the home and women holding care-giving responsibilities.

These studies have significant implications for our current views of a work/family balance for both men and women. Namely, today work is not just the responsibility of men. Women are a large portion of the workforce and a conventional family today is a dual-earner one (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). Multiple role theory advocates that men and women are psychologically very similar and that both sexes flourish when they embrace several roles including employee and care-giver. However, it is necessary that one does not adopt too many roles and the time demands of each role are not overwhelming. Because of the contemporary state of work/family integration, the reality of women being paid less than men, men holding more traditional views than women, and Americans holding more traditional beliefs than others regarding cultural beliefs about women's equality regarding pay, education, and sexual freedom, it is necessary for women to have equal access to every type of job especially the traditionally male-dominated highly competitive careers in the business sector. Also, as more men are participating in family life, it is important that attitudes in these male-dominated fields support both sexes' need for work/family balance. These ideas lead to the first hypotheses of the current study which is addressed at the end of the literature review.

Work/Family Initiatives in the Private Sector

Background of Work/Family Initiatives

The purpose of this study is to examine managers' attitudes toward work/family programs. To understand why this research is necessary, it is essential to appreciate the history and relevance of these initiatives. Currently, the only federal policy involving work/family balance is the 1993 Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA). It requires companies with over 50 employees to offer 12 weeks of unpaid leave to full-time workers (U.S. department of labor). As this is not a very attractive offer to many employees who need to keep a steady income or who do not have enough sick or vacation time for non-work commitments, many companies offer work/family initiatives that go above and beyond the benefits of the FMLA (Bond, Galinsky, Kim, & Brownfield, 2005).

Companies began using work/family initiatives such as flextime, telecommuting, and on-site childcare in response to the increase in women workers (Shepard, Clifton, & Kruse, 1996). There are many types of work/family initiatives that companies use such as flextime, telecommuting, job sharing, compressed work weeks, and on-site daycare. However the most heavily utilized initiatives, and the ones addressed in this study, are flextime and telecommuting (Families & Work Institute, 2008). It is necessary to note, however, that addressing only flextime and telecommuting policies in this study will limit generalizability of the results as there may be characteristics of employees who utilize flextime and telecommuting policies that are not shared by employees using other work/family initiatives. Shepard, Clifton, and Kruse (2001) defined flextime as arrangements between employers and employees where the worker is on the premises for

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core hours of the work day, but the employee has discretion over when the rest of the work is done. Telecommuting is defined as working an agreed amount of time from the employee's home and is typically arranged through use of home computers, phones, and the internet (Frank & Lowe, 2003).

In their examination of alternative work arrangements in private accounting firms, Frank and Lowe (2003) found that corporations and employees have a symbiotic relationship; one cannot succeed without commitment and support from the other. Like Carr et al. (2008) and Shockley and Allen (2007), Frank and Lowe explained that in response to work/family conflict employers have implemented and utilized work/family programs in American business. These programs aim to help employees, regardless of their sex, manage both a career and a personal/family life.

Work/Family Initiatives in the Corporate World

As mentioned previously, the 2008 National Study of Employers showed that 47% of American employers allow at least some employees to transition between full and part-time work and 79% of employers offer a form of flextime (Families and Work Institute, 2008). Despite the fact that companies have made these initiatives official workplace policies, many individuals, managers and workers alike, are reluctant to encourage, enforce, or use them (Grosswald, Ragland, & Fisher, 2001). The perceived benefits and drawbacks from both the company/manager and employee view will be discussed to give a complete understanding of why these seemingly positive initiatives are not used and thus what the obstacles are to increasing their use.

Multiple roles are becoming a reality. As more women are working outside of the home and more men are taking an active role in parenting, work/family balance is becoming many workers' issue (Grosswald et al., 2001). In response to this many employees are interested in work/family initiatives. Frank and Lowe (2003) found that while much of the interest surrounding work/family programs may have been initiated by women, currently men and women both benefit from these programs. They reported that there was no significant difference in men and women's use of work/family programs, which suggests that these programs are not gender specific. In their specific study, 41% of respondents who utilized alternative work arrangements were male.

Because these work/family initiatives are so important to all workers with families, it is important to assess their effectiveness. In their review of private accounting firms, Frank and Lowe (2003) found that work/family initiatives are put in place in order to retain employees and thus reduce costs associated with turnover. These programs are intended to improve worker morale and make the workplace a more positive place to be. Happier employees should stay longer and be more productive (Dunham, Pierce, & Castenada, 1987; Grover & Krocker, 1995; Frank & Lowe, 2003; Bond, Galinsky, Kim, & Brownfield, 2005). They also noted that telecommuting reduces costs by eliminating the need for extensive office space. Companies can spend less money on buildings while at the same time helping to reduce commuter congestion.

In further showing the benefits work/family initiatives hold for companies, Kossek, Barber, and Winters (1999) explained that by offering work/family initiatives employers can recruit and retain employees without offering expensive salary increases,

bonuses, or job security. Thus, much like how health care is used as a benefit to lure and retain employees, so are work/family programs because of the flexibility they offer. These initiatives can be offered as a benefit to employees without adding financial costs to employers.

The effects of absenteeism and reduced workplace commitment translate into high costs for businesses and a benefit of work/family programs is that they can ameliorate these large scale problems for American businesses (Kossek, Barber & Winters, 1999; Frank & Lowe, 2003; Grosswald, Ragland, & Fisher, 2001). Baase, Berger, Billotti, Nicholson, and Ozminkowski's (2005) study at the University of Pennsylvania's Wharton Business School found that absenteeism costs upward of $74 billion annually for U.S. companies. This figure was devised by looking at overtime and overstaffing that must take place when other employees must take on work responsibilities for absent employees. In a 2003 newsletter for human resources professionals it was reported that the average annual per-employee cost of absenteeism was $645. It was also reported that nearly two-thirds (64 percent) of unscheduled absences are due to family issues, which could be potentially alleviated with work/family programs such as flextime and telecommuting (Braun Consulting News, 2003).

Employee turnover is another expensive cost for employers. In 2007, the total non-farm industry rate of employee turnover was 39% (U.S. Department of Labor, 2008). The financial aspects of turnover include four cost areas: separation, vacancy, replacement, and training (Karson, 2007). Separation costs include exit interviews, separation and accrued vacation time pay, administration costs, and possible legal fees.

Vacancy costs include the extra work other employees must take on to cover for the absent employee, lost productivity on other accounts, and the cost of any possible temporarily hired help. Replacement costs refer to advertising for the newly vacant position, screening applicants, testing applicants, interviewing applicants, and any background checks that may be necessary.

Employee turnover is a large expense for employers. Karson (2007) discussed the idea of organizations having a "bench" of people needed to cover any possible employee turnover. He estimated that it takes approximately three months for a new employee to be completely functional, or deployed, within a corporation. He described that for an organization with sales of $100 million per year and an average time for employee deployment of three months, the cost of keeping a functioning workforce with a 15% turnover rate is approximately $2.1 million. Keeping a functioning workforce with a 50% turnover rate rises to approximately $7 million. Thus, employers greatly benefit financially by having low turnover rates which are associated with the use of work/family initiatives.

Despite the fact that research is primarily associated with positive outcomes of work/family initiative use, there are perceived drawbacks for both employers and employees. It is important to review the perceived drawbacks for companies in using work/family initiatives to fully understand why they are underutilized or discouraged. In discussing management innovation, Birkinshaw, Hamel, and Mol (2008) report that "ambiguity arises because of a lack of understanding of the intended value of the

innovation and uncertainty arises because of a fear that the innovation will have negative consequences for the individual and/or the organization" (p. 830).

A commonly perceived problem that employers have with work/family benefits is reduced employee productivity. Dunham et al.'s (1987) research, however, did not support this claim. They found that flextime increased performance and client service. They also found that flextime significantly increased employees' general job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement, and intrinsic motivation while significantly reducing employees' intentions to quit, fatigue, physiological stress, and psychological stress.

Grover and Krocker (1995) conducted a similar study, which investigated employee's perceived commitment to their employer and turnover intentions. They found that when work/family programs were offered by one's employer workers were more committed and had lower turnover intentions than employees at companies where flexible schedules were not offered. Eaton's (2003) research on workers in biotech companies found that employees who felt they had control over their schedules (flexibility) had increased organizational commitment and increased productivity over control groups. In their research on CPAs at large accounting firms, Almer and Kaplan (2002) found that employees using flextime had higher job satisfaction, lower turnover intentions, lower burnout levels and lower levels of stressors than those on standard work arrangements. Shepard, Clifton, and Kruse (1996) had similar findings in their research examining pharmaceutical companies. They found that flexible work schedules were a

factor in improvements of roughly 10% in productivity. Thus, research does not support

claims that work/family initiatives have a negative impact on employee productivity.

It is important to see how managers are affected as they were the focus of this

study and are often seen as holding the key to whether companies continue with the status

quo or encourage change.   Kossek, Barber, and Winters (1999) argued that managers

may fear a loss of productivity from employees who use these initiatives. Thus, if

managers negatively view the use of work/family programs they will be less likely to

encourage their employees to use them or to use these initiatives themselves.

In their research Kossek, Barber, and Winters (1999) also found that managers

may react negatively to work/family initiatives due to the view that employees who use

these programs have increased their relative power in the employer/employee

relationship. Their research shows that managers may have the view that employees are

allowed to put their personal lives ahead of their work lives and still receive full pay.

One final drawback of work/family initiatives for managers discussed by Kossek,

Barber, and Winters (1999) and Friedman, Christensen, and DeGroot (2005) is that they

may cause managers to spend more time understanding each employee's schedule and

increase difficulties. The researchers discussed that flextime may cause more

administrative difficulties for managers. Managers may find it frustrating and time

consuming if schedules must be individually fit for each employee instead of having a

blanket schedule for all employees. Despite many of the heavily researched positive

aspects of work/family initiatives, there may theoretically be drawbacks for managers

who implement them as well.

Employees

After addressing research on employers' views of the benefits and drawbacks of work/family programs, a natural next step is to attend to employee's views. It is fairly straightforward to see how work/family initiatives benefit employees. Hoang, Nickerson, Beckman, and Eng's (2008) research on managers and working professionals found that respondents wanted the option of telecommuting. In their study, 74% of participants described that if a new job was being considered, offering the option to telecommute would be an "important, very important, or absolutely important" determinant in their decision to take the job (p. 90).

Dreher (2003) discussed that 72 large U.S. companies which utilized work/family programs had increased the proportion of women in senior management after five years. This suggests that family-friendly policies can help female employees break the glass ceiling.

Another benefit of work/family initiatives is their role in reducing work/family conflict. These initiatives have been introduced as a way for companies to be sensitive to their employees' needs outside of work. The idea of work/family programs reducing work/family conflict has been heavily supported (Dunham et al., 1987; Shockley & Allen, 2007; Carr et al., 2008). This may aid in employees being more satisfied both in and out of work (Dunham et al., 1987). Along the same lines, Kossek and Ozeki (1998) did a meta-analysis of the current work/family research and found that employees with high levels of work/family conflict are less satisfied with their jobs.

There are perceived disadvantages for employees in using work/family initiatives as well. Researchers have argued the fact that the culture of many organizations holds the belief that face time equals productivity (Frank & Lowe, 2003; Friedman, Christensen, & DeGroot, 2005). This suggests that employees who use flextime or telecommuting will not be in the office as much as employees who work traditional hours and thus will be viewed as less productive. Lim and Teo's (2000) research addressed this fact. Their research showed that telecommuters worried that because they were not physically at the office they would be forgotten when promotions, networking, and opportunities for professional development and advancement were considered.

Frank and Lowe (2003) had accountants review the case studies of below average performance level employees with the dependent variable being use of work/family initiatives. Workers held traditional hours, used flextime, or were telecommuters. They then examined long-term career impact. Employees using alternative schedules had negative long-term impacts on their careers; they were passed over for promotions, assigned less challenging job responsibilities, and not selected for special projects (Frank & Lowe, 2003).

Another difficulty that employees may encounter when using work/family initiatives is being negatively compared to other employees who do not use these initiatives. Kossek, Barber, and Winters (1999) discussed that employees may see others who use work/family initiatives as less dedicated to their work. Finally, employees who use work/family initiatives may feel vulnerable in the workplace as they are showing that they have a life away from the job and this may be risky (Kossek et al., 1999).

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Many of the concerns these employees have are justified. Again, in looking at Frank and Lowe's (2003) study, they found that participation in work/family initiatives did not create negative perceptions of employees in the short-term, but they were less likely to be selected for special projects, were given less challenging tasks, and were delayed in receiving promotions. While this study looked at managers' review of fictional case studies and not at actual relationships with real employees, it suggests that employees' long term promotions and reputations may be at stake when using work/family initiatives.

Shifting Standards Model

The previous research shows that there are drawbacks for employees using work/family programs and this is especially true when examining views of women in the workplace. One explanation is the shifting standards model. Biernat (2003) coined the term "shifting standards model" when discussing comparisons of individuals along stereotyped dimensions. She explained that men are stereotyped as being better leaders than women, therefore, when women are judged on leadership ability they are considered by lesser standards. A woman may be evaluated as a good leader compared to other women, but if she is to be compared to men she will be held to a higher standard (Biernat, 2003).

This suggests that there are different standards by which employees are judged. If a woman is a good worker, she may be considered a good worker for a woman, but when compared to a man she will be more strictly judged. This shifting standards model supports the idea of women being compared to the "ideal worker," which is most

commonly linked with men (Eagly & Carli, 2007). The concept of work/family

initiatives often goes against the traditional values a worker is expected to have. Eagly

and Carli (2007) discuss the view of an "ideal worker" in the occupational realm as

someone who puts duties in the sphere of work first and has no responsibilities in the

domestic sphere. This concept is often thought to be in direct contrast with the view of

the ideal parent in the domestic sphere who has no responsibilities in the occupational

realm.

In further examining employees' standards, Fuegen, Beirnat, Haines, and Deaux's

(2004) study had college students examine fictitious job applicants, which were actually

one of four experimental conditions (parent x gender) or one control condition (ideal

worker). There was then an analysis of a six-item index assessing the performance

standards of the job applicants. In looking at performance standards, applicants who

were fathers were held to the lowest standards, while applicants who were mothers were

held to the highest standards. Thus, it is suggested that a considerable reason as to why

women who have children are held to such high standards in the workplace is because

they are traditionally stereotyped as being in the domestic sphere, which puts them in

contrast with the ideal worker in the occupational sphere (Fuegen et al., 2004).

Interestingly, as men have traditionally been stereotyped as being ideal workers in the

occupational realm, they are held to even lower standards when they have children.

Motherhood Penalty

Similar to the idea of the shifting standards model placing women at a

disadvantage, researchers have found that mothers are often penalized in the workplace

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as well. The term "glass ceiling" was originally introduced by Carol Hymowitz and Timothy Schellhardt in a 1986 article in the Wall Street Journal (Hymowitz & Schellhardt, 1986). This term was a metaphor for how far women could advance in the corporate world. The "ceiling" was glass suggesting that women were given the wrong impression as to how likely they were to succeed, but ultimately it was a solid barrier to that success becoming a reality. Eagly and Corli (2007) suggest that the glass ceiling was put in place out of fear that, unlike men, women were likely to quit their jobs and raise a family.

Eagly and Corli (2007) argued that the glass ceiling has been replaced with the idea of a labyrinth. While there are no laws or explicit rules excluding women from getting ahead, there are still many barriers in place. These may be subtle or more obvious, such as the expectations of women as primary caregivers. While men's care-giving roles have increased, women still take on the bulk of the domestic work. In 1965, married women reported completing 34 hours of housework per week while married men completed five hours. By 2005, the amount of housework done by married women dropped to 19 hours per week and the number of hours of housework completed by married men jumped to 11. While these figures are closer than ever, women still complete 1.7 hours of domestic work for every hour done by men (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

In addition to domestic work, married women spend more hours directly caring for children than married men. In 1965, married women devoted nearly 11 hours per week caring for children while married men only spent about three hours. Similar to current trends in domestic work, married men increased their rates of childcare to nearly

seven hours per week in 2000, however; unlike current trends in domestic work, married women have also increased their rates of childcare. In 2000, on average, married women completed nearly 13 hours of direct childcare per week (Bianchi, Robinson, & Milkie, 2006).

Despite men's increases in time spent care-giving, women are still traditionally expected to be primary caregivers. All employees may be interested in having flexible schedules, but work/family initiatives may impact some employees more than others. Kossek, Barber, and Winters' (1999) article discussed the role of women managers as users of work/family initiatives. They suggested that managers who are women may identify more with a caregiver role than their male counterparts. While both sexes use these initiatives, it may be true that women are socialized to identify more with the caretaker role and thus be perceived as having a greater need for the initiatives.   Kossek et al. (1999) discussed that until attitudes in the workplace change and begin to value care-giving, women managers will still be marginalized in American business. This research may lead to the conclusion that women could currently be more affected than men by work/family initiatives in the corporate world. Women may be penalized for using these programs as they remind others that they are not "ideal workers" and have domestic responsibilities as well.

Another problem is the very fact that women are identified as primary caregivers. Frank and Lowe (2003) showed that both men and women are nearly equal users of work/family initiatives. Therefore, attitudes need to change to allow men to identify as caretakers as well.

Correll, Benard, and Paik's (2007) research addressed the idea of a "motherhood penalty." This is a concept where the stereotypes associated with motherhood come in conflict with those of the ideal worker and so mothers are penalized in terms of wages and performance evaluations. Similar to Eagly and Carli (2007) and Fuegen et al.'s (2004) research, they proposed that our cultural ideas of mother and worker are in conflict and that conflict is at the heart of people's reluctance to use or enforce work/family initiatives and have mothers climb the corporate ladder.

Correll et al's (2007) research had participants review case studies of workers and they found that working mothers were evaluated as being less competent and committed than working women without children. Mothers were also held to higher performance standards and incorrectly believed to be less punctual than other workers. Other negative findings towards mothers were a reduced ($11,000 or 7.4%) recommended starting salary as well as a rating of "less promotable." Finally, mothers were rated by participants as being less likely to be recommended for management positions. These findings support the idea that there is a negative bias against mothers in the workplace.

Interestingly, similar to Fuegen et al.'s (2004) research, Correll et al (2007) did not find that fathers experienced workplace disadvantages. They described that stereotypes of being a good father in our culture are in line with stereotypes of being a good worker. Part of being a good father is having a job and being a committed worker. Correll et al (2007) went onto describe that their research found no fatherhood penalty and in fact participants rated fathers as being more committed to their job than other employees. They also found that fathers were not viewed negatively when they were late

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to work and they were offered significantly higher salaries than mothers, women without

children, and men without children. While work/family programs may reduce

work/family conflict for working mothers, it may also draw attention to the fact that these

women have care-giving responsibilities and are not "ideal workers." Thus, it is this

researchers belief that work/family programs need to be encouraged so that care-giving is

not seen in opposition to being a good employee only for mothers. All workers, not

solely mothers, can have the opportunity to balance both work and family.

Managers

While work/family initiatives are of concern in reducing the disadvantages faced

by women and mothers in the workplace, much of the influence as to whether or not

those employees make use of initiatives comes from corporate culture and specifically,

managers. Kossek et al.'s (1999) research assessed managers' attitudes and usage of

flexible work schedules in a large telecommunications company. They described that

managers using work/family programs served as change agents within their companies.

They are decision makers and role models and can help employees to view work/family

program use as acceptable. If managers demonstrate that life outside of work is

important to them, then employees will follow suit. They went on to describe the large

influence that managers have within companies and over their employees by explaining

that if managers do not use work/family initiatives then the message is sent to their

employees that they are not to be used. They also may send the message that good

workers should not let non-work commitments interfere with their work life. The

importance of managers' influence on corporate culture and whether companies actually

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promote work/family initiatives is thought to be very high, and thus, was a focus of the presented study.

Friedman, Christensen, and DeGroot's (2005) research supported Kossek, Barber, and Winters' (1999) findings. They described that employees will not willingly share their personal priorities, as this often goes against a company's culture. If managers openly discuss their own demands outside of work then they set the stage for their employees to do the same and can serve as role models. Friedman et al. (2005) proposed that if managers can openly talk with their employees about their work/family struggles then they will be able to collaborate to achieve both work and outside goals benefiting managers and employees alike. Managers who know their employees each as a whole person can understand their strengths and use them accordingly.

To make this a reality, Friedman et al. (2005) recommended that managers measure productivity over face time so that employees are able to have more flexibility in their work. This goes against traditional ways of managing which often values employees' presence on the job site over their productivity (Lim & Teo, 2000; Frank & Lowe, 2003). Leaders who view their employees as whole people and evaluate their performances based on productivity are a new breed of managers in a changing work force.

Birkinshaw, Hamel, and Mol (2008) discussed the idea of managers as change agents when addressing management innovation. They defined management innovation as "a difference in the form, quality, or state over time of the management activities in an organization, where the change is a novel or unprecedented departure from the past" (p.

826). This includes implementing new practices and processes in the work place. While

Birkinshaw et al. (2008) focused on state of the art changes enforced by managers, they

also described the necessity of highlighting instances of successful changes made at other

companies when implementing organizational change at their own companies.

Therefore, managers can innovate or they can look to other business entities to see how to

successfully implement work/family programs into their own corporate culture.

In addition to the importance that managers can have on influencing corporate

culture, peers, and employees, using flexible work schedules can also impact managers

directly. Kossek et al. (1999) explained that managers' use of work/family programs is

important because of their impact on managers' own lives. Graves, Ohlott, and

Ruderman (2007) found similar results. In their research of how managers' family lives

interfere with their work performance, they found that parental role commitment of

managers was not correlated with work interference. Interestingly, marital role

commitment was negatively related to work interference. This shows that not only are

managers change agents, but at the end of the day they are employees as well who can

benefit from work/family initiatives.

Some managers may be more affected by work/family initiatives than others.

Zedeck's (1992) research focused on the differences between older managers and

younger managers. He discussed that older managers, in particular older male managers,

are less likely to encourage work/life programs, as they began working in a time where

there was less work/family conflict. Workers were expected to focus on the job because

traditionally there was someone at home to tend to care-giving functions (Zedeck, 1992;

Friedman, Christensen, & DeGroot, 2005).   Also, older managers are more likely to have

grown children and therefore have less need of work/family initiatives themselves.

      Leadership styles.

      Along with age and sex, leadership style may also contribute to managers'

attitudes toward work/family programs. Burns (1978) described leadership as a "stream

of evolving interrelationships in which leaders are continuously evoking motivational

responses from followers and modifying their behaviour as they meet responsiveness or

resistance, in a ceaseless process of flow and counter flow" (p. 440)

      In their examination of how women and men lead, Eagly and Carli (2007) found

that women leaders have to balance the expectations of being a woman, such as being

collaborative and flexible, with those of being a leader. Despite many similarities in

leadership styles between the two sexes, women in their research incorporated

transformational leadership styles more often, while men were more likely to use

transactional leadership (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Transformational leadership requires the

manager to be a role model for employees. It involves giving individualized attention to

employees who have confidence and trust in their leader. Transactional leadership

involves a give and take between the manager and subordinates. This is a more

traditional form of leadership where goals and responsibilities are clearly laid out for

employees and rewards are given when those objectives are met.

      There are some downsides to women managers being transformational leaders.

Eagly and Carli (2007) discussed that supportive behaviors typified of transformational

leaders are seen as less essential when considering promotions to senior levels of

management. While these pitfalls are real, being a transformational leader suggests that women managers will pay more attention to the specific needs of their employees, especially when considering issues of work/family balance. This idea is the basis for the fourth hypothesis in the presented study.

Rosener (2005) spoke to the fact that women were not always able to lead from a transformational perspective. She explained that many early female executives worked from a transactional approach because that was what was traditionally expected in most companies. A new wave of women in top levels of management, thanks to inroads made by their predecessors, use transformational leadership styles.

Rosener (2005) conducted a study sponsored by the International Women's Forum which looked at men and women leaders. Interestingly, she found that men and women experience work/family conflict at equal rates, except when there are children at home. In these cases women experienced slightly more conflict. However, the main finding of her study was that the women studied stated that collaborating with subordinates helps to empower employees and make them feel part of the organization. Rosener's (2005) study's findings supported earlier research noting that men take a transactional approach to leadership while women are more likely to use transformational leadership styles.

Despite the benefits of women using transformational leadership approaches, many of the women in Rosener's (2005) study admitted that being inclusive and collaborative has its downfalls. It requires relinquishing total control over a project, takes extra time, opens the door to criticism, and can be interpreted as not having answers or

authority. Female leaders who used enthusiasm as a motivational tool in traditional fields

such as investment banking were likely to be misinterpreted simply as cheerleaders. The

only way their credibility was kept intact was by achieving measurable results. This

relates to Friedman, Christensen and DeGroot's (2005) emphasis on the need for

productivity to be the benchmark of success so that different forms of management, and

ultimately leadership, can be accepted.

Masood, Dani, and Burns (2006) went onto describe transformational leadership

as a way that managers can appeal to employees' values, morals, and ideals. Their

research discussed Cameron and Quinn's (1999) four types of organizational structure:

hierarchy, market culture, clan culture, and adhocracy culture. The hierarchy culture is

described as a formal, structured, rule-bound workplace. Large organizations and

government agencies are typified by the hierarchy culture. The market culture focuses on

productivity, being financially profitable, and competition. The clan culture is a

metaphor for the family unit. The focus in clan culture is on teamwork, employee

satisfaction and is considered a friendly place to work. Finally, the adhocracy culture fits

with an independent, autonomous, and entrepreneurial spirit. Much of the attention is

given to creating new ideas.

Masood, Dani, and Burns' (2006) study gave participants (76 leaders from five

Pakistani manufacturing companies) the organizational culture assessment indicator

(OCAI) questionnaire to discover in which type of organizational culture they preferred

to work. They uncovered that transformational leaders preferred (94.5%) to work in

adhocratic or clan organizational cultures. This is understandable considering that

transformational leadership involves individualized attention for employees and both of these organizational cultures focus less on structured chains of command. This begins the discussion of how managers do not act alone, but often in conjunction with the corporate culture in which they work.

Corporate Culture

There are many variables such as age, sex, and leadership style which may influence managers' views of flextime and telecommuting and will be addressed in the presented study, however, one external variable that may have a large impact on their attitudes is the culture of their company. Corporate culture has been defined as,

> a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its
> problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well
> enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the
> corrective way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (Schein,
> 2004, p. 17).

Every organization has its own culture and historically, the culture of business has been that leaders were men. Traditionally, these leaders had wives at home to raise their children, which allowed for a culture of extreme time commitment to the company to develop. Employees who spent more time on the job were able to build social capital through both informal interactions and creating relationships with other members of the organization (Putnam, 2000). Eagly and Carli (2007) described that these time demands have created a culture that does not fit with both parents sharing work and family responsibilities.

Corporate culture has been perceived to be a major barrier to work/family programs (Haworth & IFMA, 1995; Schein, 2004; Hoang, Nickerson, Beckman, & Eng, 2008). Friedman, Christensen, and DeGroot (2005) illustrated that work/family programs are not effective if they are merely Human Resource driven piecemeal projects. Instead, they must be permeated in the corporation's culture and essentially change managers' behavior. In Hoang, Nickerson, Beckman, and Eng's (2008) research of working professionals and managers, they found that respondents perceived that corporate culture had a negative view of telecommuting. Respondents favored face-to-face contact from employees and were therefore unenthusiastic toward the idea of telecommuting. Interestingly, the 17% of respondents who were considered to be primarily telecommuters (as opposed to occasional or never users) perceived that corporate culture supported them and their decision. Hoang et al. (2008) suggested that this may be a result of those telecommuting employees having already accepted the ramifications that accompany being a telecommuter. However, when asked the importance of visibility in attaining a management position, a significant proportion of the respondents still found it to be very important. It seems that despite some acceptance of telecommuting, visibility is still seen as necessary for advancement.

Since research shows the benefits for employees and employers alike (Dunham et al., 1987; Grover & Krocker, 1995; Shepard et al., 1996; Kossek et al., 1999; Grosswald et al., 2001; Frank & Lowe, 2001; Eaton, 2003; Shockley & Allen, 2007; Carr et al., 2008; Bond et al., 2008) why are they not supported by an organization's corporate culture? Cutcher-Gershenfeld, Kossek, and Sandling (1997) discussed that while quality

improvement is often viewed as a highly important goal within corporations and is often promoted by top level executives, work/family programs are typically seen as less essential. They define quality as "organizational change strategies that involve a systems approach for building quality directly into products and services through a process of continuous improvement" (p. 22). Improving quality within a company is frequently touted as more important to the bottom line and thus given more priority in a company's culture. They did note, however, that there are different stages of development that big corporations undergo in trying to incorporate either quality and/or work/family programs. Cutcher-Gershenfeld et al. (1997) described Stage I as programs that are specific and not fully incorporated into the company's culture and Stage III as, "Widespread, coordinated mix of programs—fully integrated into organizational culture and systems" (p. 26). Some companies, such as Xerox, have reached Stage III in terms of quality, but are at Stage I regarding work/family programs, while other companies, such as Corning, are at Stage III in both areas. This suggests that while some large, for-profit companies have a culture that foregoes focusing on work/family programs, this is not a universal phenomenon.

Some research suggests that corporate culture has to be changed from the top down. In his article exploring the changing corporate culture of Deloitte & Touche, McCracken (2005) discussed how the firm's CEO effectively worked to erase the glass ceiling. He described the top-down agenda of working to keep women in upper-level managerial positions at the accounting firm. While women were recruited and hired at similar rates to men, they were leaving at significantly higher rates and McCracken

explained that much of this was due to the "male-dominated culture" of Deloitte & Touche (2005, p.51). The firm realized that they were losing a large portion of talent since women were leaving at such high rates. Therefore, they created workshops, enforced new policies giving equal access for women to top clients, and encouraged work/family programs for all employees to remedy this. The CEO, Mike Cook, regularly communicated with partners and managers to enforce these changes and effectively changed the culture of the company.

In 1991, 5% of Deloitte & Touche's directors and partners were women. By 2005, this rose to 14%. McCracken (2005) also reported that in the early 1990s, the annual employee turnover rate was 25% and this fell to 18% in 1999. McCracken (2005) attributed these changes to the firm's cultural changes toward women in the industry. He noted that these changes have made managing more difficult as the status quo shifted and a former female employee noted that "Deloitte had a lot of talk about being women friendly, but that wasn't always the case" (personal correspondence, 2009). This suggests that while corporate culture can be changed, it may need to come from a higher source than managers and start at the executive level. While it would be ideal to use executive level management, this could be a difficulty in recruitment and thus a wider net will be cast to include all managers.

Enacting Change

Theory has been established as to why companies hold the duality of wanting to retain employees through offering work/family initiatives, but at the same time wanting "ideal workers" whose focus is the job (Kossek et al, 1999; McCracken, 2005; Eagly &

Carli, 2007). The next step after understanding these seemingly opposite positions is to understand how change works so companies can witness the realization of friendly work/family policies while still encouraging a serious work culture.

Researchers have examined how private sector companies have used interventions to increase the racial diversity of their workforce (Ely & Thomas, 2001) and researchers have studied how to use interventions to increase the usage of work/family programs in academic settings (Sullivan, Hollenshead, & Smith, 2004), but to date no research has been done looking at the path to effective interventions increasing work/family program usage in for-profit companies.

Birkinshaw et al. (2008) found that there are two groups responsible for organizational change: internal change agents (employees of the company who create interest in, experiment with, and validate management innovations) and external change agents (academics, independent business consultants, etc.). Internal change agents evaluate a problem through dialogues with external change agents. Birkinshaw et al. (2008) noted that a problem becomes an opportunity for a change if it can be framed as novel and the organization is supportive. External change agents can interact directly (through meetings and agenda setting dialogues) or indirectly (through publications and media outlets) with internal change agents. Birkinshaw et al. (2008) also observed that external change agents influence managers when they have previously successfully worked with prior cases of management innovations.

For this reason a qualitative portion of the study will be conducted by asking open-ended questions to participants regarding external change agents. An example of

one of the questions is, "If your company was to hire a workforce expert to address increasing the promotion of work/family programs amongst employees, what recommendations do you think he or she would make?" These questions will be put forth to managers to understand why they do not encourage work/family programs for their employees or use such programs themselves. They will also be helpful in understanding how to successfully implement new interventions for future studies.

Hypotheses

As managers are the gateways to change, they will be targeted as participants for this study. Following Gilbert et al.'s (1991) study, it is believed that managers who score higher on the Orientation to Occupation and Family Involvement-Role Sharing Scale (OOFI-RS) will have more egalitarian views of women and men and more positive views of women working and men care-giving. Thus, it is proposed that managers who score highly on the OOF-RS will also report giving employees more information on work/family programs, encourage employees to use flextime and telecommuting, and have a higher number of employees who use work/family initiatives.

H1(A): Managers with higher scores on the Orientation to Occupation and Family Integration-Role Sharing (OOFI-RS) subscale will report having provided employees with more information on work/family programs (telecommuting and flextime) at their company than those with lower scores on the OOFI.

H1(B): Managers with higher scores on the Orientation to Occupation and Family Integration-Role Sharing (OOFI-RS) subscale will encourage employees to

use work/family programs (telecommuting and flextime) at their company to a greater extent than those with lower scores on the OOFI.

H2: Managers with higher scores on the Orientation to Occupation and Family Integration-Role Sharing (OOFI-RS) subscale will have higher rates of employees using work/family programs than managers with lower scores on the OOFI.

Kossek et al. (1999) reported that managers using work/family programs served as change agents within their companies. These decision makers and role models can help employees to view work/family program use as acceptable. If managers demonstrate that life outside of work is important to them, then employees may do so as well. They explained that if managers do not use work/family initiatives then the message is sent to their employees that they are not to be used and that good workers should not let non-work commitments interfere with their work life.

In accordance with Zedeck's (1992) research, it is hypothesized that older male managers will have less experience with women working outside of the home and will have less understanding of issues of work/family conflict for both male and female employees. He discussed that older managers, in particular men, are less likely to encourage work/life programs, as they began working in a time where there was less work/family conflict. Zedeck (1992) addressed that older managers are more likely to have grown children and therefore have less need of work/family initiatives themselves.

H3(A): Managers who use work/family policies will be more likely to have employees who use work/family policies.

H3(B): Older male managers (50 years and older) are less likely to have employees who use flextime or telecommute.

Eagly and Carly's (2007) examination of leadership styles show that women are more likely to be transformational leaders who focus on the individualized needs of their employees. In taking into account Zedeck's (1992) research on older male managers along with Eagly and Carli's (2007) research of female managers, it is hypothesized that younger, female managers would provide more information to employees about work/family programs as well as encourage their employees to use flextime and telecommuting.

H4(A): Younger, female managers will provide more information on telecommuting and flextime for their employees than older, male managers.

H4(B): Younger, female managers will encourage the use of telecommuting and flextime for their employees at greater rates than older, male managers.

In addition to the hypotheses, broad research questions will be addressed. Much of this research will be exploratory in nature, and open-ended questions have the unique ability to bring about themes and ideas that may not be known to the researcher.

Research Question 1: What are managers' perceived challenges and barriers to employees using work/family programs?

Research Question 2: What are managers' perceptions of employees who use work/family programs?

Research Question 3: What do managers perceive as the benefits of having employees who use work/family programs?

Research Question 4: What recommendations would a workforce expert address to increase the promotion of work/family programs amongst employees?

Chapter Three: Method

Participants

Participants were 36 men and 27 women employed as managers in private sector companies in the U.S. The criterion for inclusion in the sample was participants' companies having flextime or telecommuting opportunities. All data was collected between May 18, 2009 and January 5, 2010. Participants were a national sample of 63 managers in for-profit companies that offered flextime and/or telecommuting and who supervised two or more employees. They were recruited through a snowball sampling method beginning with an invitation email sent by the primary investigator to 25 zero-stage nominees (see Appendix A). Snowball sampling has been used in studies of hard to reach populations by employing individuals' social networks to access non-college student samples (Browne, 2005). Zero-stage nominees included current and previous colleagues, other professional contacts, family members, and friends. Of the original 116 participants who initially consented to participate in the online survey, information from the 63 usable surveys was analyzed to determine the characteristics of the sample. The remaining 53 participants were discarded because they did not complete the survey. Demographics of the sample are reported in Table 1.

The recruitment email (Appendix A) provided a link to the study through a data collection site: SurveyMonkey.com. All participants provided electronic consent to participate. Once managers accessed the study and provided consent, they were then directed to complete the Orientation to Occupation and Integration Scale-Revised (OOFI-

Revised), demographic questions, and open-ended questions. Demographics questions captured information such as: years working as a manager, number of employees managed, number of employees with children, number of employees using flextime/telecommuting, sex, age, and parental status. An example of an open-ended question is, "What are your perceptions of employees who telecommute?" After initially completing surveys on egalitarian attitudes of women and men and answering questions related to their views on the use of work/family programs at their specific companies, they were then asked to give their email address to include them in a random drawing for one of five chances to win $100.

Instruments

Orientation to Occupation and Integration Scale-Revised (OOFI-Revised) (Appendix B)

Gilbert, Dancer, Rossman, and Thorn (1991) developed the OOFI using a college student population to evaluate attitudes regarding work and family roles. The scale was revised for an older, working population by eliminating two questions: "I see myself working part time after I finish my formal education," and "I see myself working full time after I finish my formal education." Only the Role-Sharing subscale was used in analysis (Appendix C).

The OOFI has three subscales: (1) The male-traditional/conventional (OOFI-MTR); (2) The female-traditional/conventional (OOFI-FTR); and (3) The male and female Role-Sharing (OOFI-RS). Endorsement on the OOFI-RS subscale represents views that women and men are equally responsible for work and domestic responsibilities.

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Participants are asked to respond to 5-point Likert scales which range from (1) not at all to (5) very much. Participants are asked both how much they have thought about the situation being presented in each item and how committed they are to each situation. In scoring the OOFI, only "commitment" responses are used. A sample item from the OOFI-RS subscale is, "I see myself and my spouse both employed full-time and to a great extent sharing the day to day responsibilities for raising the children, like feeding and dressing them, talking and spending time with them, meeting with their teachers." The Cronbach's Alpha for the OOFI-RS Scale for this study was 0.84, which shows strong internal consistency. Other researchers have shown Cronbach's Alpha for the entire OOFI to be around 0.76 (Hallett & Gilbert, 1997; Battle & Wigfield, 2001).

The work and family questionnaire (Appendix D) has the purpose of gathering further specific information from participants. Specific quantitative items from the work and family questionnaire include: "To what extent do you give your employees information about the work/family policies offered by your company?" and, "Do you currently use work/family policies such as flextime or telecommuting?" Sample qualitative items from the work and family questionnaire include: "What barriers and challenges would have to change for you to encourage your employees to use flextime policies at your company?" and, "What are your perceptions of employees who telecommute?"

Procedure

The questionnaires were presented to participants online using internet-based data collection. Using internet-based data collection allowed the researcher to look at a

sample situated across the nation. Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava, and John (2004) discussed that internet methods provide access to individuals beyond the scope of traditional research methods. Internet-based data collection also provided anonymity to participants when disclosing personal attitudes, which is important to the nature of this study as it focused on controversial material.

<div align="center">*Analysis*</div>

Quantitative Analysis

Quantitative data for this study was analyzed using three statistical methods. Correlations were used to examine relationships among the variables, a Chi Square distribution was employed to explore frequency of employees' use of flextime or telecommuting based on managers' age and sex, and an ANOVA was utilized to compare means between male and female managers over and under 50 and how much they provide information or encourage their employees to use work/family policies.

Qualitative Analysis

As this study uses mixed methods, a modified grounded theory approach was used to analyze the exploratory, qualitative portion of the research. Grounded theory was first introduced by Glaser and Strauss and described in detail in their notable book, The Discovery of Grounded Theory (1967). In a grounded theory approach, the information provided by interviews of participants is coded for common themes. These themes are then grouped into similar concepts for theory formation. Finally, those theories are used to enhance the qualitative data gathered and help answer questions relating to the subject of the research. Similar to other studies that did not lend themselves to a pure grounded

theory approach (Cutcliffe, Stevenson, Jackson, & Smith, 2007; Noonan, Gallor, Hensler-

McGinnis, Fassinger, Wang, & Goodman, 2004; Wisdom, Saedi, & Green, 2009), this

study used a modified grounded theory approach. It can be considered a modified

grounded theory approach because the sample was collected using a snowball sampling

method instead of having participants randomly selected, specific questions were used to

gather responses as opposed to an open-ended interview, and the same questions were

given to all participants instead of continuously revising the interview while collecting

data.

Chapter Four: Results

This chapter is divided into the following sections: Power Analysis, Quantitative

Analyses, and Qualitative Analysis. Hypotheses and research questions will be restated

in each section prior to providing the results. All statistical procedures were conducted

using Excel 2007 for Windows and Statistical Analysis Software (SAS).

Power Analysis

In consideration of the quantitative analyses that would be done, an a priori power

analysis using the GPOWER program (Faul & Erdfelder, 1992) was conducted and

revealed a necessary sample size of 68 participants in order to have an 65% chance of

detecting a significant finding (p < .05) with a small effect size (define as 0.25 for the

purposes of the power analysis). Due to recruitment difficulties, a sample size of 63

participants was reached. A post hoc power analysis was conducted for a Pearson's

correlation to determine power using the GPOWER program for the significant finding

on hypothesis 3 using a small effect size (0.25) with the existing sample of 63

participants. Power was calculated to be 0.51.

Correlations Among Study Variables

Correlations among the study variables are displayed in Table 2. Although the

following correlations were not predicted in the hypotheses, interesting relationships

among these variables emerged. Understandably, encouraging employees to use

work/family programs was correlated with managers giving employees more information

about those programs. However, contrary to what might be expected, managers' sex was

correlated with how much their employees used work/family programs such that male

managers' employees used flextime and/or telecommuting at higher rates than female

managers' employees. Results also showed that managers' age was correlated with

giving employees information on work/family programs in a surprising direction, such

that older workers reported that they gave more information to their employees about

work/family programs offered at their company as compared with younger managers.

Finally, managers' age was negatively correlated with how much influence they feel they

are able to have over decisions made within their company such that older managers feel

they have less influence.

Testing of Hypotheses

**H1(A): Managers with higher scores on the Orientation to Occupation and
Family Integration-Role Sharing (OOFI-RS) subscale will report having provided
employees with more information on work/family programs (telecommuting and
flextime) at their company than those with lower scores on the OOFI-RS.**

A Pearson Correlation was used to analyze the relationship between participants'

OOF-RS scores and participants' scores on a scale of how much information on

work/family programs they provided to employees (See Table 2). With alpha set at .05,

no significant correlation was found, $r(61) = -0.17$, $p = 0.18$. Therefore, no relationship

was found between managers' egalitarian attitudes and information about work and

family programs that they may have provided to their employees.

**H1(B): Managers with higher scores on the Orientation to Occupation and
Family Integration-Role Sharing (OOFI-RS) subscale will report encouraging**

employees to use work/family programs (telecommuting and flextime) at their company to a greater extent than those with lower scores on the OOFI-RS.

A Pearson Correlation was used to analyze the relationship between participants' OOFI-RS scores and participants' scores on a scale of how encouraging they are of employees' use of work/family programs (See Table 2). While significance was approached for this correlation, it was not achieved $r(61) = -0.23$, $p = 0.07$. Although not significant, these findings suggest that there may be a weak inverse relationship between managers' egalitarian attitudes and how much they encourage flextime and telecommuting policies for their employees. These findings were counterintuitive and specifically showed that managers who are higher in egalitarian attitudes appear to be less likely to encourage flextime and telecommuting policies for their employees.

H2: Managers with higher scores on the Orientation to Occupation and Family Integration-Role Sharing (OOFI-RS) subscale will have higher rates of employees using work/family programs than managers with lower scores on the OOFI-RS.

This hypothesis was not supported. A Pearson Correlation was used to analyze the association of participants' OOFI-RS scores and their rates of employees using work/family programs (See Table 2). Using a p-value of .05, no significant correlation was found, $r(61) = -0.03$, $p = 0.97$. No relationship was found between managers' egalitarian attitudes and their employees' rates of using flextime and telecommuting programs.

H3(A): Managers who use work/family policies will be more likely to have employees who use work/family policies.

A Pearson correlation was used to test hypothesis 3(A) (See Table 2). A significant relationship was found, $r(61) = 0.45$, $p<.001$. A medium effect size of 0.40 was found. These findings demonstrated that there was a significant relationship between managers' use of flextime or telecommuting policies and their employees' use of those policies. Specifically, managers who used flextime and telecommuting policies were more likely to have employees who used these policies as well.

H3(B): Older (50 years and older) male managers are less likely to have employees who use flextime or telecommute.

A Chi-Square test of independence was used to test hypothesis 3(B) (see Table 3). Employees' use of flextime or telecommuting policies did differ based on managers' age and sex, $\chi^2(2, N = 63) = 15.75$, $p = 0.001$. A medium effect size of 0.50 was found. However, this hypothesis was not supported in the expected direction as women under the age of 50 were less likely than their over 50 female, over 50 male, and under 50 male counterparts to have employees who use flextime or telecommuting programs. Additionally, results also showed that women over 50 were more likely to have employees who use flextime or telecommute when compared with men both over and under 50 and women under 50.

H4(A): Younger, female managers will provide more information on telecommuting and flextime for their employees than older, male managers.

A 2 x 2 ANOVA with factors of age (under 50, over 50) and sex (male, female) showed no significant main effect for the sex factor, $F(1,62) = 0.27$, $p = 0.61$; no significant main effect for the age factor, $F(1,62) = 0.73$, $p = 0.40$; and no significant interaction between sex and age, $F(1,62) = 0.10$, $p = 0.76$.

H4(B): Younger, female managers will encourage the use of telecommuting and flextime for their employees at greater rates than older, male managers.

A 2 x 2 ANOVA with factors of age (under 50, over 50) and sex (male, female) showed no significant main effect for the sex factor, $F(1,62) = 1.87$, $p = 0.78$; no significant main effect for the age factor, $F(1,62) = 0.21$, $p = 0.64$; and no significant interaction between sex and age, $F(1,62) = 0.18$, $p = 0.67$.

Qualitative Analysis

In addition to the hypotheses that were quantitative in nature, broad research questions were asked to build a more in depth understanding of managers' views toward flextime and telecommuting. This research was exploratory using open-ended questions. A modified grounded theory approach was used to analyze the data. Grounded theory uses codes to group data responses and then combines common codes into themes which are used to create new theories (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Codes, themes, and a new model have been proposed based on the in-depth responses of participants.

A "microanalytic" version of open coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p.58) led to greater understanding of the interview data, as 102 codes appeared through initial analysis by hand. For each research question, similar responses were grouped into either in-vivo (participant-created) or author-created codes. Two psychology graduate students

served as co-raters who coded and agreed upon the final codes. Table 4 highlights the most utilized of the 102 final codes.

Research Question 1: What are managers' perceived challenges and barriers to employees using work/family programs?

The first research question was used to address managers' views of flextime. When the sixteen codes derived from the open-ended questions regarding flextime were condensed, four themes emerged: performance, stigma, coverage, and bad for business. Examples of these themes were: performance (e.g., "Only employees that have shown to be effective in working with little to moderate supervision are allowed flextime."), stigma (e.g., "They may feel that they will fall behind in the "rat race" if they are not constantly seen in the office."), coverage (e.g., "In my department we use a "partner" structure, so if our partners are really slammed, the person in need of flextime won't take it so as not to burden their partner."), and bad for business (e.g., "Losing productivity.").

Addressing telecommuting, the fifteen codes were concentrated into five themes: accessibility and connection, responsibility, bad for business, more technology, and none. Examples of these themes were: accessibility and connection (e.g., "Need to be accessible."), responsibility (e.g., "Employees who are not well self-disciplined can eventually lose effectivity [sic] in telecommuting. For example, not getting routine tasks done, which then requires the manager to become more closely observant."), bad for business (e.g., "I would not allow any of my employees to telecommute full-time because I don't trust that they'd get as much done!"), more technology (e.g., "We don't have a telecommuting policy at our company, however, some of us do have [a] laptop to be able

to work from home. The biggest barrier is not having the laptop or blackberry to be able to work from home."), and none (e.g., "None-our employees currently employ some telecommuting.").

Research Question 2: What are managers' perceptions of employees who use work/family programs?

The next research question addressed managers' views of employees who use flextime policies. The thirteen codes created from managers' responses were broken down into four themes of positive, negative, same as others, and responsibility. Examples of these themes were: positive (e.g. "Positive, it's something that our company provides and should be used."), negative (e.g., "Frequent use of the benefit seems uncommitted to career/work."), same as others (e.g., "I don't see any difference between those who use flextime and those who report on our official 9-5 schedule."), and responsibility (e.g., "Must be consistent with sticking to their committed times.").

When the second research question addressed telecommuting specifically, the fifteen codes from this research question were reduced to five themes: responsibility, bad for business, bad for employees, good for business, and good for employees. Examples of these themes were: responsibility (e.g., "I totally encourage it, unless the situation is abused (work is not done, deadlines are not met, etc."), bad for business (e.g., "That they don't work as hard."), bad for employees (e.g., "The other employee who currently telecommutes is not doing well. My perception is that he feels left out of the group."), good for business (e.g., "Positive, but I have been fortunate that they are all conscientious and have respected the freedom and worked to make the system effective for all."), and

good for employees (e.g., "Can be more effective in managing a better work-life balance. Less stressed.").

Research Question 3: What do managers perceive as the benefits of having employees who use work/family programs?

For the third research question, with respect to flextime, three themes materialized from the twelve codes: benefit for business, benefit for employees, and no perceptions. Examples of these themes were: benefit for business (e.g., "I believe that flextime has contributed to the long term retention of employees. I have been at the bank 29 years, and I have many employees that have been there between 20 and 30 years."), benefits for employees (e.g., "Better adjusted to all their commitments in life."), and no perceptions (e.g., "No perceptions.").

In terms of telecommuting, twelve codes were produced for the third research question. Those codes revealed four themes: benefit for business, benefit for employees, same as flextime, and no perceptions. Examples of these themes were: benefit for business (e.g., "I think managers benefit because employees are more motivated to work hard if they are able to telecommute. They have the opportunity to be more focused and get more work done without the distractions of the workplace."), benefit for employees (e.g., "Employee is happier."), same as for flextime (e.g., "Same as those who use flextime."), and no perceptions (e.g., "I'm not sure there are any."). One major difference in looking at the specific codes for telecommuting compared to flextime is that managers appear to view the initial cost of telecommuting as a burden, but find the savings due to reduced office space needed as a benefit. One manager noted,

One barrier that would have to change before I would encourage more of my

employees to use telecommuting is my company's financial support policies for

those who choose to work from home. I currently have five employees who work

from home via internet, cell phones, etc. Their work output is excellent but it is

currently very difficult to get an approval from our finance team to have an

employee reimbursed for home office expenses (computer, internet, supplies,

printers, fax, etc.).

This would be the case for employers who pay for employees' travel to work (e.g. train

passes, corporate vehicles) as well. Another manager stated, "The obvious one is that

budgets for travel expenses are significantly reduced freeing up more corporate resources

for other needs."

Research Question 4: What recommendations would a workforce expert

address to increase the promotion of work/family programs amongst employees?

The final research question did not differentiate between flextime and

telecommuting. This question elicited nineteen codes. Those codes were pared down to

five themes: reduce accessibility, address difficulties, promote policies, limit/end

programs, and better manage programs. Example of these themes were: reduce

accessibility (e.g., "Limit time on e-mail and accessibility."), address difficulties (e.g.,

"Employees working from home tend to not disconnect after a long day of work;

providing suggestions on setting up a work environment that allows them to separate

work and home would be useful."), promote policies (e.g., "The first recommendation

would be to document and discuss successful scenarios to help demystify the

programs."), limit/end programs (e.g., "I would recommend setting limits on how many days per week to a maximum of 50% as I feel the effectiveness drops off significantly after that."), and better manage programs (e.g., "The second recommendation would be to ensure the administrative processes to manage the programs are working like a well oiled machine.").

Despite the fact that this research question did not distinguish between flextime and telecommuting, it was able to produce rich codes and themes. When the research questions were broken down to analyze the different perceptions between telecommuting and flextime, the code 'no difference' was found sixteen times. Such responses included: "same as for telecommuting," "same as those who use flextime, happy, healthier, and less stressed out," and "same as flextime as long as the telecommute is managed and limited." This suggests that managers may not view telecommuting and flextime as separate ideas that require separate considerations. Managers may lump flextime and telecommuting into the single theme of work/family programs.

Model of Views of Work/Family Programs

Notes taken during coding and the overlap of themes produced in each of the separate research questions helped the author to see a commonality in managers' responses. As the data analysis progressed, a model evolved that loosely represented the trends highlighted by the managers' open-ended responses. The model uses the research questions to address a big picture idea of managers' attitudes toward employees' use of flextime and telecommuting policies. Figure 1 illustrates these concepts. The diagram

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starts with the initial concept at the top of the page and subsequently flows downward towards the boxes at the bottom.

The model works from the top down with the arrows showing directionality of influence. The box containing the in-vivo (participant created) code of corporate culture/upper management on board begins the model on the first level. Participants expressed that work/family programs would not be possible if management did not allow them to be utilized.

The next level of the model addresses the concept of work/family programs. While many participants expressed that there was no difference between flextime and telecommuting, there were two codes expressing that telecommuting differed from flextime in that it required an increase in initial costs and that in the long-term it reduced costs. No such codes were found for flextime. Therefore, in order to create a model that illustrated both the overlap and the distinctiveness of flextime and telecommuting, the next level has overlapping boxes for telecommuting, flextime and work/family programs. The middle box contains the in-vivo code of work/family programs a benefit for employees. The work/family program box overlaps both the telecommuting and flextime boxes. In addition, the telecommuting box includes its unique codes.

The third level of the model addresses the author-created theme of work/family programs okay for responsible employees and the in-vivo theme of work/family programs okay if not abused by employees. The boxes were split into two scenarios: irresponsible employees/abuse benefit and responsible employees. While the arrow from the work/family programs box is unidirectional to the irresponsible

employees/abuse benefit box, it is bidirectional with the responsible employees' box, showing that some managers feel employees who use work/family programs responsibly lead to better views of these programs and lead to them being offered more. Managers who feel that employees are abusing the practice lead to worse views of these programs which leads to them being offered less. Participants indicated that responsible employees increased productivity and retention, provided continual coverage, and offered better customer service encourage managers to promote work/family programs.

The fourth and final level of the model shows the results of employees' use of work/family programs. If employees are viewed as irresponsible and abusing the benefit, then the work/family programs are viewed as bad for employees, stigma creating, and bad for business. However, if employees are viewed as responsible by managers, then the work/family programs are viewed as good for both employees and businesses. Bidirectional arrows connecting the third and fourth levels of the model suggest these concepts influence each other. The boxes in the fourth level contain the author-created themes of bad for employees, stigma, bad for business, good for employees, and good for business. Underneath each of these themes are codes that were used to help create such themes.

In following the flow of this model, managers' attitudes toward work/family programs appear to hinge on how responsible they perceive an employee to be. This key finding and future areas to be pursued based on this research will be addressed in the final chapter.

Chapter Five: Discussion

The present study explored managers' attitudes toward flextime and telecommuting in for-profit companies. This chapter provides a discussion of the findings and is organized into four sections. The first section provides a summary and discussion of the quantitative and qualitative results; the second section addresses limitations of the research design; the third section outlines recommendations for future research; and the final section focuses on conclusions and implications for the field of gender and work.

Summary of Results

Quantitative Analysis

Gilbert et al.'s (1991) study demonstrated that individuals who scored higher on the Orientation to Occupation and Family Integration-Role Sharing (OOFI-RS) scale showed more egalitarian attitudes toward work/family integration for both men and women. These individuals promoted ideas of women working outside of the home and men being involved in care-giving. Due to their egalitarian attitudes, it was hypothesized that these individuals would also encourage, provide information about, and have more employees use work/family programs.

The first hypothesis predicted that managers who had higher scores on the OOFI-RS subscale would also report having provided their employees with more information about telecommuting and flextime at their company than managers with lower scores on the OOFI-RS. No statistically significant correlation was found for this hypothesis suggesting that there is not a direct relationship between managers' egalitarian attitudes

and how much information they provide employees on the subject of work/family

programs. This suggested that perhaps managers' attitudes were not directly related to

their behaviors. Azjen and Fishbein's (2005) theory of reasoned action explains that

attitudes alone can be poor predictors of behaviors and often social contexts, prior

experience, confidence, attention, exposure to information and norms have larger

influences on individuals' actions. Expanding on this, an explanation for lack of

statistical significance may be that highly egalitarian managers work in corporate cultures

where the social context focuses on face time and is disapproving of work/family

programs. In such cases managers' behaviors, or how likely they are to provide

employees with information on work/family programs, may be more strongly influenced

by factors other than their own attitudes and beliefs.

Another suggestion for this finding is one that explains a lack of significant

results throughout this study. The largest and possibly most robust reason as to why some

of the hypotheses were not supported lies in the findings of the qualitative portion of this

study. The qualitative findings show that if the corporate culture and upper management

allow work/family programs to exist, then the greatest reason managers will promote

them is if they deem their employee as responsible. According to the qualitative data,

managers are more likely to encourage, provide information about, and have positive

attitudes toward flextime and telecommuting if the employee is considered responsible.

As this issue of responsibility was not understood prior to the research design, study

questions were constructed without differentiating between responsible and irresponsible

employees and responsibility was not operationalized. This is likely the largest

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moderator as to whether egalitarian or traditional, young or old, male or female managers encourage, provide information about, or have employees who utilize work/family programs.

The second part of the first hypothesis predicted that managers with higher scores on the Orientation to Occupation and Family Integration-Role Sharing (OOFI-RS) subscale would encourage employees to a greater extent in their use of work/family programs (telecommuting and flextime) at their company than those with lower scores on the OOFI-RS. While significance was approached, no statistically significant correlation was found for this hypothesis. The findings suggest that a possible weak inverse relationship between the level of managers' egalitarian attitudes and how much they encourage employees to use flextime and telecommuting may exist. Specifically, the trend suggests the more egalitarian a manager is, the less likely they are to encourage employees to use flextime and telecommuting policies.

While at first glance this finding is counterintuitive, similar to women workers experiencing the motherhood penalty (Correll et al., 2007), managers with egalitarian attitudes may not want to draw attention to their views. They may fear that they will be perceived as being less promotable and receive lower salaries and signaling to co-workers that they do not put work first and support both men and women sharing care-giving and worker responsibilities. Another explanation for this finding may be that, similar to managers with a transformational leadership style, managers who hold egalitarian attitudes my find that these views are misinterpreted as not having answers or authority (Rosener, 2005). Therefore, to counteract these negative perceptions, managers with

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egalitarian views may hold back their beliefs and encourage employees less than other managers in regard to using flextime and/or telecommuting policies. Again, these explanations draw from Azjen and Fishbein's (2005) research which shows that others' perceptions of an individual may have a stronger influence on the individual's behavior than their own attitudes. Also, as mentioned above, in drawing from the qualitative portion of the study one explanation for these results may be that managers may be worried about low productivity of and losing touch with employees whom they do not view as responsible. Thus, despite themselves holding egalitarian beliefs, managers may fear that having underperforming, irresponsible employees using work/family programs will reflect badly on them.

   The second hypothesis forecasted that managers with higher scores on the Orientation to Occupation and Family Integration-Role Sharing (OOFI-RS) subscale would have higher rates of employees using work/family programs than managers with lower scores on the OOFI-RS. Again, this hypothesis was not supported as no statistically significant correlation was found.

   Despite the fact that companies have begun to implement work/family programs in response to the increase in women workers (Shepard, Clifton, & Kruse, 1996), these findings suggest that managers with highly egalitarian views may be just as influenced by the perceived drawbacks of these programs as their less egalitarian counterparts.

   Another explanation as to why there were no statistically significant correlations with managers having high OOFI-RS scores and providing information about, encouraging the use of, or having more employees utilize work/family programs may be

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due to the fact that the OOFI-RS addresses the managers' own personal lives and perspectives and does not address the lives of their employees, per se. Managers taking the OOFI-RS may be focusing on their own situation and not think about the people whom they manage when taking this measure. The views of managers may be too distal a predictor of employee's behaviors, especially since the theory of reasoned action (Azjen & Fishbein, 2005) discussed above tells us that managers' views are not even a great predictor of their own behavior. Also, the OOFI-RS may not have been an accurate measure in addressing managers' views of work/family programs for their employees as the measure was designed for use by college students and not for a working adult population.

Another explanation for lack of significance lies in the fact that while current generations hold more egalitarian views toward women (Spence & Hahn, 1997; Grzywacs et al., 2007; Carr et al., 2008), many traditional behaviors still exist. Eagly and Carli's (2007) research showed that despite men's increased care-giving roles, women still do the majority of domestic work. Thus, men may perceive themselves as more egalitarian than their behaviors would suggest explaining why they may score highly on the OOFI-RS, but not encourage the use of, provide information about, or have more employees who use work/family programs.

The first portion of the third hypothesis proposed that managers who used work/family policies would be more likely to have employees who use work/family policies. This hypothesis was supported for this sample. This hypotheses was informed by Kossek et al. (1999) and Zedeck's (1992) research. Kossek et al. (1999) described

that managers who used work/family initiatives were change agents and role models within their companies who helped employees to view these programs as acceptable. When managers illustrated that life outside of work was of value to them, then employees did as well. When managers did not use work/family programs then the message was given to employees that they were not to have a life outside of work and not use these initiatives. This draws on social learning theory, which states that people learn by observing others, or by individuals modeling behavior. Bandura (1977) showed that learning occurs by way of remembering what one saw, having the ability to reproduce the behavior, and being motivated to adopt the behavior. These managers modeled the behavior of utilizing work/family programs. This suggests that these employees observed managers using telecommuting and flextime policies, were allowed to use them themselves, and were motivated to adopt the behaviors. This finding also suggests that managers' behaviors may be more responsible for employees' use of work/family programs than the attitudes managers hold. As a medium effect size of 0.40 was found for this hypothesis, companies wanting to increase the use of work/family programs may benefit from requiring managers to use them first.

Another issue to address is self-determination. Self-determination theory addresses intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Deci's (1971) landmark study on motivation explained that in intrinsic motivation one does something because it is internally satisfying and rewarding to the individual, but in extrinsic motivation one does something to obtain an external goal. While previous research suggests positive aspects of work/family programs that would appear to make using them intrinsically motivating to

employees, perhaps employees who have managers using flextime and telecommuting work in an environment where using work/family programs is extrinsically motivated or expected (Dunham, Pierce, & Castenada, 1987; Grover & Krocker, 1995; Frank & Lowe, 2003; Bond, Galinsky, Kim, & Brownfield, 2005). One thing that was not measured in the presented study was institutional context, or how family friendly participants' work places were. While managers using work/family programs were highly correlated with their employees using such programs, it may have been that this study was too narrowly focused. Perhaps those managers and their employees worked in corporate cultures that highly valued work/family balance and such a corporate culture was responsible for the correlation instead of anything the managers were modeling, per se. Future researchers would be wise to measure the level of egalitarianism of the corporate culture at participants' workplaces to get a broader understanding and explanation of why managers and employees alike use work/family programs.

The second part of the third hypothesis put forth that older male managers (50 years and older) would be less likely to have employees who use flextime or telecommute. This hypothesis was based on Zedeck's (1992) research which found that in the traditional workplace of older male managers, employees dedicated the majority of their time to work while their wives were at home taking care of children and the household. Because of these views, Zedeck (1992) explained that older male managers were less likely to encourage work/family programs.

This hypothesis was not supported, but it was found that younger (under 50) female managers were less likely to have employees who use flextime or telecommute.

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One reason for this may be that young women managers are very aware of the shifting standards model (Biernat, 2003) and feel they are judged on a tougher scale than their male and older colleagues. They may feel they need to be tougher than other, more established managers to be taken as seriously. Younger female managers may be the furthest from the "ideal worker" (Eagly & Carli, 2007) as they are not only female, but also closer to the childbearing age range. Others may see these younger female managers as having a greater propensity for putting family before work and it may be that younger female managers are less likely to have employees who use work/family policies in order to distance themselves from that unwanted attention.

It was also found that older (50 and over) female managers were more likely than their younger (under 50) male and female as well as older (over 50) male colleagues to have employees using flextime or telecommuting policies. It may be that these managers identify as transformational leaders and are less worried than their younger female counterparts about how they are perceived by others. Research shows that older female managers, when compared with older male managers, often view their work as means to an end rather than an end itself and do not define themselves solely by their status as a worker (Still & Timms, 1999). This may extend to their views of employees having multiple roles and therefore needing work/family programs. They may believe that work is not everything for their employees and encourage them to utilize programs which aid in work/family balance. Also still, older women did not have the luxury of flextime and telecommuting to help them balance work and family in their early career and this may make them more sympathetic to their employees' work/family struggle.

While further research would be necessary to find a more precise explanation as to why older male managers (50 years and older) were not found to have fewer employees using flextime and telecommuting policies, one such reason may be the constricted age range of the sample. Only 14 of the 63 participants were over the age of 50. Originally, participants 65 years and older were to be addressed in this hypothesis, however, the oldest participant in this study was only 62, thus, the age range had to be dramatically lowered which may have reduced variability.

The first part of the fourth hypothesis stated that younger, female managers would provide more information on telecommuting and flextime for their employees than older, male managers. This hypothesis was not supported. Eagly and Carli's (2007) examination of leadership styles demonstrated that men and women manage differently. Their research found that women are more likely to be transformational leaders who focus on the individualized needs of their employees. Therefore, female managers were hypothesized to be more supportive of employees' need for work/family programs.

Without further research, one can only speculate as to why this hypothesis was not supported. A possible explanation for younger, female managers not providing more information on telecommuting and flextime than their older, male counterparts comes from Eagly and Carli's (2007) own research. Their study demonstrated consequences to transformational leadership. Eagly and Carli (2007) argued that supportive behaviors typified of transformational leaders are seen as less essential when considering promotions to senior levels of management. Rosener's (2005) study also found that being inclusive and collaborative has its downfalls and in traditional fields, such as

banking, transformational leaders can be seen simply as cheerleaders. Female managers

wanting to get ahead may try to look more like their transactional leader counterparts and

provide less information on work/family programs to employees. This could explain why

no significant difference was found between male and female managers and the amount

of information they provided to employees regarding work/family programs.

Another problem was that participants were not directly asked about their

leadership styles. Eagly and Carli's (2007) research found that females were more likely

to use transformational styles of leadership while males were more likely to use

transactional leadership styles and because of this it was simply assumed in the presented

study that women were transformational leaders and men were transactional leaders.

Future research would benefit from directly measuring male and female managers'

leadership styles to understand which type of leader would be more likely to provide

information to employees on work/family programs.

The second part of the fourth hypothesis stated that younger, female managers

would encourage the use of telecommuting and flextime for their employees at greater

rates than older, male managers. No statistically significant relationship was found. A

larger representation of women in this study, and in particular women over 50, would

have increased variability and may have led to a stronger relationship. Another

possibility may be that in the question construction, managers were asked how much they

encouraged their employees' use of work/family programs, but it did not differentiate

between responsible and irresponsible employees. As mentioned previously, the

qualitative portion of this study found that managers have different attitudes toward

employees based on how responsible they are believed to be. Perhaps this hypothesis would have been supported if the research questions focused on managers' encouragement of work/family programs for responsible employees.

Finally, while gender and age were looked at in the fourth hypothesis, had the hypothesis been constructed to address other variables such as marital status, parental status, region of the country, education level, race, and socioeconomic status, the results may have come back differently. For example, Judge and Livingston (2008) discussed that African-Americans, unmarried individuals, people living in urban settings, people living in the Northeastern portion of the U.S., and the highly educated tend to hold more egalitarian views than Whites, married couples, individuals living in rural settings, individuals living in the Southern U.S., and people with less education, and thus they may have been more encouraging of work/family programs. However, the results of the first hypothesis suggest that more than simply holding egalitarian beliefs is necessary to encourage flextime and telecommuting by managers in the private sector.

Qualitative Analysis

Work/family programs, such as flextime and telecommuting, were created in response to the need to employ more women as well as reduce work/family conflict (Shepard, Clifton, & Kruse, 1996). Despite the positive empirical findings related to these programs, there is a disconnect between the research and employers' beliefs about flextime and telecommuting. Many companies are hesitant to encourage employees' use of work/family programs and many employees are in turn fearful to use them, thus it remains challenging to implement and utilize these initiatives (Shepard, Clifton, & Kruse,

1996). In order to better understand this disconnect, managers in the presented study were asked about their perceived challenges, barriers, and benefits of having employees who use work/family programs, their perceptions of employees who use work/family programs, and their ideas about what workforce expert would recommend to increase the promotion of work/family programs using open-ended questions. Further exploration of managers' attitudes toward work/family programs would fill a gap in the literature and aid in understanding the work/family debate in the for-profit arena.

The first research question asked what managers' perceived challenges and barriers to employees using work/family programs were. The four themes which emerged from the coded data regarding flextime were: performance, stigma, coverage, and bad for business. Regarding telecommuting, five themes appeared: accessibility and connection, responsibility, bad for business, more technology, and none. It is noteworthy that the theme of 'stigma' only appeared when discussing flextime. In Frank and Lowe's (2003) study, they found that both telecommuting and flextime negatively affected participants' views of employees' long-term career potential and in the next research question addressing managers' perceptions, telecommuting and not flextime was coded as 'bad for employees.' This will be discussed later. This research question suggests that only flextime is viewed as negatively impacting an individual's career. In addressing what would have to change for managers to encourage flextime, one participant noted, "Feeling that flexing will not impact a person's rating and career." Perhaps when responding to this question managers felt the idea of not being seen in the office was more relevant for flextime workers than telecommuters because of as assumption that

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telecommuters are always available via phone or internet, while that assumption of constant connection cannot be made for workers using flextime programs. 'Coverage' was also a specific theme for flextime policies. In reviewing Kossek, Barber, and Winters (1999) and Friedman, Christensen, and DeGroot's (2005) research, they suggested that a reason managers may dislike flextime is because it requires managers to spend more time understanding each employee's schedule and may cause more administrative difficulties for managers. It appears the managers in this study supported this idea as a drawback for employees using flextime programs.

The specific theme of 'more technology' regarding telecommuting policies is understandable. Given that telecommuting happens by way of email, phone calls, and faxes, it can be an added barrier for companies to use this program if they do not already have such technology at their disposal. While initially increasing costs by investing in computers, internet services, and smart phones, Frank and Lowe (2003) described that telecommuting eventually reduces costs for employers by eliminating the need for expensive office space.

The theme of 'none' regarding barriers to using telecommuting policies suggests that telecommuting is currently a popular option for managers. When asked what barriers and challenges would have to change for managers to encourage the use of telecommuting, one participant stated, "We do encourage telecommuting. Six of my 13 reports do not have offices and work from home exclusively." As the theme of 'none' only came about for issues of telecommuting and not flextime, this may suggest that telecommuting policies are more popular than flextime programs. A possible explanation

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for this phenomenon may be, as mentioned previously, that managers prefer

telecommuting because their employees are available and can be reached at all times,

while the same cannot be said for employees using flextime policies. However, a theme

of accessibility and connection only came about for telecommuting suggesting that

managers may find it frustrating when they cannot reach telecommuters while they are

out of the office.

In addressing barriers and challenges to both flextime and telecommuting, the

theme of 'bad for business' came forward. As research has already addressed drawbacks

of work/family programs (Kossek et al, 1999; Lim & Teo, 2000; Frank & Lowe, 2003;

Friedman et al, 2005), this theme was expected. Had research questions been worded to

differentiate between work/family programs for responsible versus irresponsible

employees, the results may have looked very different. The idea that there are not

barriers or challenges to encouraging work/family programs when employees are

perceived as responsible will be addressed later in this discussion. Finally, the similar

themes of 'performance' and 'responsibility' materialized from the coded data.

The second research question asked what managers' perceptions were of

employees who use work/family programs. Four themes emerged from the coded data

regarding flextime. They were: positive, negative, same as others, and responsibility.

When the second research question addressed telecommuting specifically, five themes

came forward: responsibility, bad for business, bad for employees, good for business, and

good for employees. The theme of 'same as others' was only found when the question

addressed flextime policies. One explanation for this theme may be due to the fact that

the option of flextime is so common in today's workplace. As mentioned previously, 79% of current employers offer a form of flextime to their employees (Families and Work Institute, 2008). Although, this is interesting in light of the previous research question which stigmatized flextime as being a bad long-term career move. As these research questions tapped into attitudes, it may have been that more egalitarian minded managers see all employees equally and less egalitarian managers see employees using flextime policies as stigmatized. The theme of 'positive' surfaced regarding flextime policies. While it contained the themes of 'good for business' and 'good for employees' as addressed in the question regarding telecommuting policies, this particular theme was more general. One participant simply stated, "I think this is a good thing." One possibility may be that these participants were thinking of particularly responsible employees under their supervision. It may also be that these managers have seen firsthand the benefits that researchers have found regarding flextime use such as increased productivity, increased job commitment, reduced turnover, and reduced absenteeism (Dunham et al., 1989; Grover & Krocker, 1995; Shepard, Clifton, & Kruse, 1996; Almer & Kaplan, 2002; Eaton, 2003; Frank & Lowe, 2003). Similar to the theme of 'positive,' the general theme of 'negative' emerged regarding flextime policies. Many participants may have called to mind employees who were less responsible when answering this question. They may also have experienced the difficulty of spending extra time managing each employee's individual flextime schedule, which research shows can be seen as an extra effort for managers (Kossek, Barber, & Winters, 1999; Friedman, Christensen, & DeGroot, 2005).

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Concerning telecommuting policies, the theme of 'bad for business' came about. These participants expressed similar beliefs as those in Birkinshaw, Hamel, and Mol's (2008) research study who feared negative consequences from innovative ideas put to use at their company. Interestingly, the theme of 'good for business' also came forth. This finding suggests disagreement among managers as to whether telecommuting policies help or hurt the company. Again, a clarification in the research question regarding responsible or irresponsible employees may have eliminated this disagreement. The next theme that came about for the question of telecommuting was 'bad for employees.' This theme may mirror the theme of 'stigma' for the first research question in that using telecommuting policies may make employees seem less promotable and less like ideal workers. It is interesting that this idea came about for telecommuters when asked this more general question about perceptions of work/family policies, but did not come forth when asked about barriers and challenges associated with flextime and telecommuting. It may have been because questions about barriers and challenges were asked first and therefore managers had more time to think about it by the time they came to the second, more general question of perceptions. The theme of 'good for employees' appeared when asked about telecommuting. This may reflect the vast literature discussing how telecommuting can reduce work/family conflict and increase job satisfaction (Dunham et al., 1987; Dreher, 2003; Shockley & Allen, 2007; Carr et al., 2008). The theme of 'responsibility' was identical concerning flextime and telecommuting. This theme shows the largest finding of the qualitative results, that work/family programs are considered positive if employees are responsible and negative if they are not.

While research questions did not directly ask managers why they believed their employees used flextime and telecommuting policies, exploring participants' responses shed light on their perceptions of their employees and work/family programs themselves. Individuals may utilize flextime and telecommuting for a variety of purposes. In reviewing participants' responses to the open-ended questions, it appeared that they felt that employees used work/family programs not only to help themselves, but at times it seemed that programs were instituted for the direct benefit of the company. Examples of codes created to aid employees included: to avoid traffic, for personal time, to recuperate and recharge, for work/family balance, taking care of sick children , and fewer distractions working at home ("I know from personal experience that I get a lot done at home because I don't have all of the other disruptions that an office atmosphere provides, i.e. people talking, phone calls, emails, etc."). Examples of codes created to benefit the company included: to accommodate company schedules, to reduce office space, and because employees have to be in remote locales ("I am an editor of technology magazines based in Boston and telecommuting lets us deploy full time reporters in cities like New York, San Jose, and Los Angeles, without having to maintain offices there."). While these variables were not addressed in the presented study, future research would benefit from examining whether managers' views not only of work/family programs, but also of employees' levels of responsibility are related to why their employees use these initiatives.

The third research question asked: What do managers perceive as the benefits of having employees who use work/family programs? For flextime, three themes

materialized. They included benefits for business, benefits for employees, and no

perceptions. In terms of telecommuting, four themes came forth: benefits for business,

benefits for employees, same as for flextime, and no perceptions. The only theme that

was specific to telecommuting was, 'same as for flextime.' One explanation for this

occurrence may be that managers were asked the third research question in terms of

flextime prior to being asked about telecommuting and so were simply saying that they

did not see a difference between the two policies. This idea was mentioned in the results

section. When the research questions were broken down to analyze the different

perceptions between telecommuting and flextime, the code 'no difference' was found

sixteen times indicating that managers may view flextime and telecommuting simply as

work/family programs and tend not to differentiate between the two.

The rest of the themes were essentially the same regarding flextime and

telecommuting policies. The theme of 'benefit for business' was created from managers

discussing work/family programs as recruiting tools, a way to have more coverage, an

way to increase retention, and more productive employees. All of these benefits were

addressed in the literature review (Dunham et al., 1987; Dreher, 2003; Shockley & Allen,

2007; Carr et al., 2008). The theme of 'benefit for employees' came about due to

managers putting forth that work/family programs make for employees who are happier,

more satisfied with their job, have better work/life balance, and less stressed. Previous

research found similar positive results for employees (Dunham et al., 1987; Shockley &

Allen, 2007; Carr et al., 2008). Finally, the identical theme of 'no perceptions' was

constructed from managers expressing similar views to those captured in the second

research question regarding negative perceptions of work/family programs.

The fourth research question asked managers what recommendations a workforce

expert would address to increase the promotion of work/family programs amongst

employees. This final research question did not differentiate between flextime and

telecommuting and generated five themes: reduce accessibility, address difficulties,

promote policies, limit/end programs, and better manage programs. The first theme of

'reduce accessibility' appeared to be in response to the current climate of employees

always being available. One manager noted, "Take time to be home for dinner- our team

is sometimes working until 8pm plus commute." It appears that while telecommuting

may be a popular program for employers because they can always be in contact with their

workforce, it may unpopular with employees who want time away from work. The next

theme of 'address difficulties' had managers giving suggestions on how to reduce

work/family conflict by having an on-site daycare, more family involvement with the

company, on-site yoga, discounts for health clubs, and education on how to separate work

stress and family stress. This theme illustrates the problems of work/family conflict that

managers face. The third theme was 'promote policies,' which suggested encouraging

and increasing the use of flextime and telecommuting programs. This theme

demonstrated the need for such programs by managers. The theme of 'limit/end

work/family programs' is in direct contrast to the previous theme. Many of these

managers discussed their beliefs that productivity and necessary face time dropped with

work/family program use. These differences in managers' values of work/family

programs reflect earlier themes from previous research questions regarding the perceived benefits and drawbacks of flextime and telecommuting in the private sector. They may also have revealed different results had the research question differentiated between responsible and irresponsible employees. The final theme of 'better manage programs' was produced from managers' suggestions that there needs to be more education about the explicit company policies regarding flextime and telecommuting and the administrative components of these policies need to be run more smoothly. Responses suggested that work/family policies can be confusing because they are often addressed on a case by case basis.

Based on these in-vivo (participant created) and author-created codes, notes written during the coding of the data, and the themes they produced, a model (Figure 1) was created to understand how these themes could create a new theory. The major finding from the qualitative analysis was that managers' attitudes toward flextime and telecommuting policies depend on whether an employee is viewed as responsible. If employees are believed to be responsible then work/family programs are seen as positive for employees and positive for business, and the programs are encouraged and promoted. However, if managers view their employees as irresponsible, then work/family programs are to blame and it is negative for employees and business and stigmas are created. In this case work/family policies are viewed badly. This idea ties in with Azjen and Fishbein's (2005) theory of reasoned action, suggesting that managers want to be viewed positively by colleagues and superiors and will therefore only promote work/family

benefits for employees whom they know will continue to perform well and make them look good. Managers' behaviors are influenced by more than simply their own attitudes.

While Pearce (1977) reviewed Responsibility Indexes for managers across the fields of banking and manufacturing to quantify "acceptable performance standards," no research to date has addressed the role of employees' responsibility in affecting managers' attitudes toward work/family programs (p. 21). Examples of the items on the Responsibility Indexes include, "To depart work no earlier than the established time," "To hold the goals of the organization above personal non-work goals which affect the job," and, "To work at home on my own time if necessary to finish a job." These items represent more traditional views equating the ideal worker who has no commitments outside of his or her job with what makes a responsible worker.

In examining participants' definitions regarding managers' views of employees' responsibility, most managers were quite vague in their responses. One manager stated, "We do encourage employees to use flextime and to telecommute as long as they can meet their work responsibilities." Some managers gave a bit more clear cut ideas of how they operationalized responsible employees. Many managers noted that working with minimal supervision was a sign of a responsible employee: "Only employees that have shown to be effective in working with little to moderate supervision are allowed flextime," "Employees who are not well self-disciplined can eventually lose effectivity [sic] in telecommuting. For example, not getting routine tasks done, which then requires the manager to become more closely observant," and "Supervision. I have had issues with a few employees in the past regarding the supervision." While stating that

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responsible employees are those who get their work done with minimal supervision gives an idea of what responsible means, it is far from specific. Future research would benefit from looking at what variables go into the current makings of a responsible employee. A replication of Pearce's (1977) study using the Responsibility Index would demonstrate if historical attitudes of ideal workers putting work above all else are still how employees are judged by managers. If they are, then there would be a disconnect between responsible employees who put work before home life and employees who have need of work/family programs but will not be encouraged to use them because they are not the definition of an ideal worker.

Also, needing employees to be 'responsible' in order to promote work/family programs may be code for other things. 'Responsible' may mean that the employee is an ideal worker and has no commitments outside of work. Managers may, consciously or not, define irresponsibility by employees having outside commitments such as spouses or families. This draws from Corell et al.'s (2007) research which showed that even when all other variables were held consistent, mothers, who are socialized to be care-givers in our culture, were held to higher performance standards, incorrectly believed to be less punctual than other workers, given a reduced ($11,000 or 7.4%) recommended starting salary, were rated by participants as "less promotable," and were rated as being less likely to be recommended for management positions. Biernat (2003) addressed this issue in her theory of the shifting standards model which explained that men are stereotyped as being better leaders than women, therefore, when women are judged on leadership ability they are considered by lesser standards. A woman may be evaluated as a good leader in

comparison with other women, but if she is to be compared to men she will be held to a higher standard (Biernat, 2003). Expanding on this, if a woman is a good worker, she may be considered a good worker for a woman, but when compared to a man she will be more strictly judged. This shifting standards model supports the idea of women being compared to the ideal worker, which is most commonly linked with men (Eagly & Carli, 2007). The concept of using work/family initiatives and highlighting commitments outside of work goes against the traditional values a worker may be expected to have to be considered responsible.

Limitations of the Research Design and Analyses

While some findings from the study add to our understanding of managers' attitudes toward work/family programs, many characteristics, for example, the methodology and design used, do limit generalizability to the broader population of managers. There is no way of knowing if selection bias resulted from the snowball sampling method used for recruitment. Results may reflect an unconscious bias of the primary investigator, zero-stage nominees and their referrals, and not represent a random sample of managers at for-profit companies who manage two or more people.

Initially, the online study included the OOFI, 16 demographic questions, 12 open-ended questions, and 11 questions regarding work/family attitudes. Many participants emailed the author to complain of the length of the study and after three months only 17 participants had completed the study. At this point the author shortened the survey to include the OOFI, 16 demographic questions, seven open-ended questions, and seven questions regarding work/family attitudes. This speaks to the need for a pilot study to

understand any difficulties or limitations in the study prior to collecting actual data. While running a pilot study would have been ideal, reaching a real world sample was difficult and time consuming and thus a pilot study was not a realistic approach considering the time constraints of collecting dissertation data. Using a snowball sampling method to gain access to a hard to reach population (Browne, 2005), it required nearly eight months of data collection to gather 63 participants valid responses.

Another difficulty encountered when conducting the current study was that originally, the entire OOFI was to be used, but after data collection it became apparent that only the role-sharing portion of the OOFI results could be utilized. Men and women respond to either the OOFI-Male Traditional or OOFI-Female Traditional subscales and in order to compare apples to apples, these subscale results had to be discarded. Thus, only the OOFI-Role Sharing subscale could be included in the analysis as all participants respond to this segment of the scale.

As this study examined managers in the private sector who were primarily young and White, this study cannot be generalized to include all workers. Caution should be taken when applying results from the presented study.

Finally, future researchers looking at similar topics will need to devise recruitment techniques that attract a larger amount of older workers and a more racially diverse sample in order to better represent the private sector population. One reason few significant results were found when age was a variable may have been because of the low number of participants over the age of 50, which also limited the types of analyses that were able to be performed.

Recommendations for Future Research

Considering that dual earner families are the norm in the U.S. today (Barnett & Hyde, 2001) and working professionals have expressed that they desire the option of work/family programs (Hoang et al., 2008), as well as the fact that there are many benefits for businesses who offer these policies (Eaton, 2003), it appears that employers and employees alike could benefit from increased understandings of why these policies are offered but not encouraged. While research has addressed attitudes toward and increasing work/family program use in academic settings (Sullivan, Hollenshead, & Smith, 2004), or attitudes toward and increasing racial diversity in for-profit settings (Ely & Thomas, 2001), little research has addressed understanding managers' attitudes toward and no research has addressed increasing work/family program use specifically in the private sector.

Many ideas for future research have already been addressed in the previous section of study limitations, but there are still more to be discussed. Based on the findings of this study that the moderator of viewing work/family policies as positive depends on whether or not an employee is seen as responsible, a possible direction for future research would be to better understand and operationalize what makes someone a responsible employee today. To the best of this author's knowledge, no current research has addressed employees' roles and responsibilities in promoting work/family policies. When asked what barriers and challenges would have to change for a manager to encourage employees to use flextime policies, one manager in this study noted, "They (employees) need to understand that this requires flexibility on their part, not just the

firms', in order to make this work for all parties involved and to ensure that we are still meeting client commitments."

As mentioned previously, many of the questions in the study asked about attitudes toward employees in general. Future research may find more robust findings if questions are constructed in a way that looks specifically at attitudes of managers toward responsible and irresponsible employees, such as is done in Pearce's (1977) Responsibility Index. This would also shed light on whether a responsible employee still equates with an ideal worker whose commitment to work overshadows all other areas of his or her life.

A possible area for future research would be to look specifically at managers' leadership styles. Using Eagly and Carli's (2007) research which found women leaders to be somewhat more transformational than male leaders, especially when it came to giving support and encouragement to subordinates, this study assumed women to apply a transformational style and men to utilize a transactional approach in their leadership styles. This study was not able to specifically determine if managers' leadership styles were correlated to their employees' use of work/family programs as they were not directly measured.

Future research would benefit from examining a more diverse sample in terms of race and age as well as addressing variables of parental status, marital status, socio-economic status, urbanicity, and region of the country. As the sample of this research study was predominantly White (90%), there was not enough variability to examine any possible relationships between race and attitudes toward work/family programs. An

interesting direction for future research may be in examining managers of color and what type of leadership styles they hold and how their experience of being a person of color in corporate America relates to their attitudes toward work/family programs and their employees' use of such programs. Judge and Livingston (2008) noted that African-American's hold more egalitarian views than their White counterparts, but as the first hypothesis demonstrated, holding egalitarian attitudes may not be correlated with promoting work/family programs.

Another area for future research would be to examine senior managements' views of work/family policies and how those views influence corporate culture. Many participants in the current study noted that corporate culture and upper management's stance on the benefit or detriment of flextime and/or telecommuting had a top-down influence on their (and other managers') beliefs and actions.

A related area for future research would be to specifically measure how family friendly participants' workplaces are. Deci's (1971) research addressed extrinisic motivation, or external sources influencing individuals' desires. This, along with Azjen and Fishbein's (2005) research on the importance of context influencing behaviors suggests that corporate culture may have a strong influence on whether work/family programs are promoted and utilized within a company.

Future researchers interested in this topic would benefit from using a scale which directly asks participants about their views toward employees as opposed to their own egalitarian views. A scale normed on a sample of workers, as opposed to undergraduate students, may yield more valuable results in future studies.

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Finally, it would be useful for future studies to specifically address managers' views as to why their employees use work/family programs. It would be helpful to understand if beliefs about reasons why employees use work/family programs are related to beliefs about how responsible employees are. It would also be beneficial to understand if beliefs about reasons why employees use work/family programs are related to how much managers encourage and promote the use of such programs.

Conclusions and Implications

Despite efforts to increase women's representation in the workforce and men's participation in the family through such programs as flextime and telecommuting (Frank & Lowe, 2003; Shepard, Clifton, & Kruse, 1996), more can be done to help these unique populations. This study investigated managers' attitudes toward flextime and telecommuting in private sector companies. It attempted to understand if managers' egalitarian attitudes, age, or sex would be related to supporting employees use flextime and/or telecommuting. It also investigated if managers' egalitarian attitudes, own use of work/family programs, age, or sex would be related to having more employees use flextime and/or telecommuting.

The present study employed an exploratory approach to investigate attitudes toward work/family programs at for-profit companies. The results showed that there was a significant relationship between managers' use of work/family programs and having employees who use these programs. Results also showed that female managers under 50 were the least likely to have employees who use work/family programs and female managers over 50 were the most likely. At the same time there was no significant

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relationship between managers' egalitarian attitudes and their employees' use of work/family programs suggesting that actions speak louder than words in corporate America.   While more can certainly be done by managers to encourage the use of these policies, one of the most important findings from this study indicates that much of how they view work/family programs depends on how responsible they believe their employees to be. At first glance this suggests that employees themselves hold the key to determining their use of work/family programs, but further research must be done to understand what constitutes a responsible employee in the mind of a manager. Responsible employee may be another way of stating ideal worker who puts work commitments above all else.

While this study addressed managers' general attitudes toward employee's use of flextime and/or telecommuting, it did not speak to attitudes of male versus female workers use of these programs. An understanding of how the different sexes are viewed regarding their use of work/family policies could lead to ways to reduce stigmas surrounding women as workers and men as caregivers. This could potentially greatly advance the field of work/family research as well as reduce work/family conflict for individuals.

An important note about this research study is that it speaks to a very specific group of people, namely, White, young, managers employed in the private sector. Findings from this study should not be generalized to all workers as the results may have looked very different if it had included a more racially and age diverse sample of all types of workers such as those in the public sector and shift-workers.

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In conclusion, this research was important because it furthered understanding of how private sector managers view work/family programs which may eventually lead to an understanding of what can be done to increase their use in for-profit companies. This research showed that managers view employees as having a role in the promotion of these programs by way of how responsible they are believed to be. This study contributed to the research area of work and family in for-profit companies, which is greatly needed as today the federal government outpaces the private sector in their use of work/family programs by a three-to-one margin (Communications News, 2007).

Figures and Tables

Demographics

Variables	Participants	Participants' Employees
Age	25-61 Years (M= 40.02, SD= 10.50) Over 50 (Male=7; Female=7) Under 50 (Male=29; Female=20)	
Sex	Male 57% (n=36) Female 43% (n=27)	
Race/Pan-Ethnic Group	White 90% (n=57) Black 3% (n=2) Latino 2% (n=1) Asian/Pacific Islander 5% (n=3)	
Marital Status	Currently Married 73% (n=46) Single 16% (n=10) Partnered 3% (n=2)	
Children at Home	Yes 52% (n=33) No 48% (30)	55
Number of Children	1 Child 48% (n=16) 2 Children 36% (n=12) 3 Children 15% (n=5)	
Elderly Family Members at Home	Yes 3% (n=2) No 97% (n=61)	13
Years as Manager	1-5 Years 30% (n=19) 6-10 Years 32% (n=20) 11-15 Years 6% (n=4) 16-20 Years 13% (n=8) 21-25 Years 8% (n=5) 26 or More Years 11% (n=7)	
Participant Use of Work/Family Programs	Flextime 48% (n=30) Telecommuting 52% (n=33)	

Number of Workers at Company	*M*=30,399, *SD*=43,470 Obtained Range= 3-150,000
Number of Employees Directly Supervised	*M*=16, *SD*=29

Table 2

Correlations Among Study Variables

	O-RS	EmpInfo	EmpEnc	Use	FamUse	ManUse	Age	Sex	Compet	Influ
O-RS	1									
EmpInfo	-0.17	1								
EmpEnc	-0.23	0.77***	1							
Use	-0.03	0.01	0.07	1						
FamUse	0.01	0.11	0.07	0.25	1					
ManUse	-0.01	0.05	0.10	0.45***	0.11	1				
Age	-0.01	0.45***	0.27	0.24	0.04	0.07	1			
Sex	-0.01	0.06	-0.01	-0.27*	-0.09	-0.17	0.08	1		
Compet	0.12	0.17	0.16	-0.08	-0.15	0.12	0.18	0.02	1	
Influ	-0.14	-0.08	0.01	-0.07	0.13	-0.14	-0.30*	-0.20	-0.07	1

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

O-RS= Orientation to Occupation and Family Involvement Scale score, EmpInfo= Extent managers give employees info on work/family programs, EmpEnc= Extent managers encourage employees to use work/family programs, Use= Employees' use of flextime/telecommuting, FamUse= Number of employees using flextime/telecommuting, ManUse= Managers' (participants') use of work/family policies, Age= Managers' age, Sex= Manager's sex (Male=0, Female=1), Compet=Competitiveness of company in market, Influ=Influence managers have over decisions

Table 3

Hypothesis 3(B) Chi Square

Employees Using Flextime/ Telecommuting	Female (Over 50)	Female (Under 50)	Male (Over 50)	Male (Under 50)	Total
Observed					
Yes	7	9	6	24	46
No	0	11	1	5	17
Total	7	20	7	29	63
Expected					
Yes	5.11	14.60	5.11	21.17	
No	5.11	5.40	1.89	7.83	

Table 4

Most Commonly Occurring Codes (7+)

Research Questions	Codes
Question 1(A) What barriers and challenges would have to change for you to encourage your employees to use flextime policies at your company?	No changes-already used Management's perception/Corporate culture Continuity of workflow coverage
Question 1(B) What barriers and challenges would have to change for you to encourage your employees to use telecommuting policies at your company?	No change Employees need to be physically present Manager's perceptions Trusting employees Case by case basis
Question 2(A) What are your perceptions of employees who telecommute?	More productive Okay if self-motivated/Depends on person Less productive
Question 2(B) What are your perceptions of employees who use flextime?	Positive Necessary to balance work/family Only for responsible workers Less committed employees
Question 3(A) What are the benefits for a manager who has employees who use flextime?	Happier employees More productive employees Increased employee retention Better employee work/life satisfaction
Question 3(B) What are the benefits for a manager who has employees who telecommute?	Happier employees More motivated/productive employees Reduced costs/resources Employee retention None-not a benefit

Question 4

If your company was to hire a workforce expert to address increasing the promotion of work/family programs amongst employees, what recommendations do you think he or she would make?	Increase telecommuting use None-already does a lot

```
                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │   Corporate     │
                    │ Culture/Upper   │
                    │ Management on   │
                    │     Board       │
                    └─────────────────┘

   Telecommuting          Work/Family Programs          Flextime
                          a Benefit for Employees
   -Increases initial
   costs
   -Long-term reduces
   costs
```

┌──────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────┐
│   Irresponsible   │   │   │
│ Employees/Abuse   │   │ Responsible Employees│
│   Benefit   │   │   │
└──────────────────────┘   └──────────────────────┘

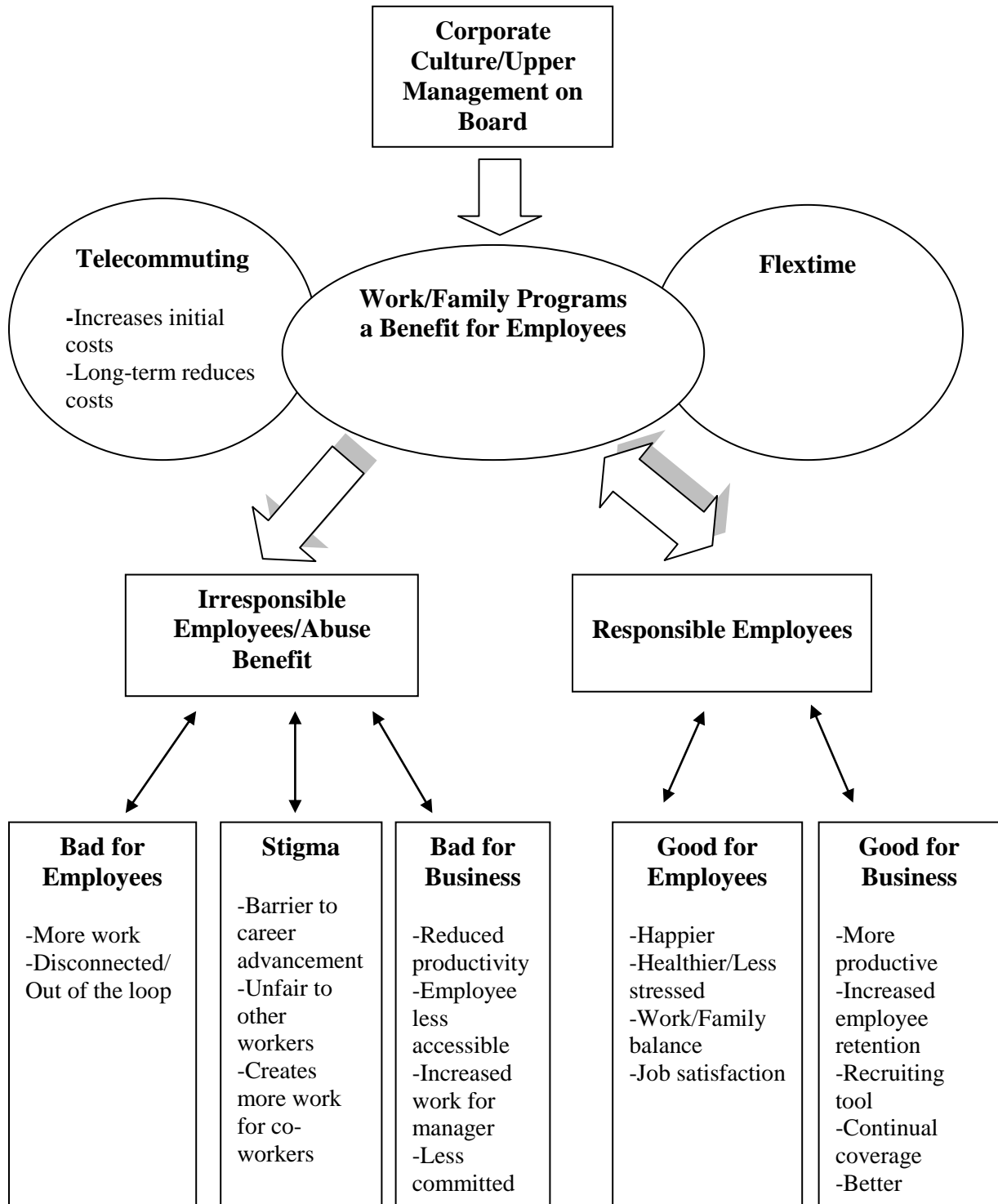| Bad for Employees	Stigma	Bad for Business	Good for Employees	Good for Business
-More work -Disconnected/ Out of the loop	-Barrier to career advancement -Unfair to other workers -Creates more work for co-workers	-Reduced productivity -Employee less accessible -Increased work for manager -Less committed	-Happier -Healthier/Less stressed -Work/Family balance -Job satisfaction	-More productive -Increased employee retention -Recruiting tool -Continual coverage -Better

Figure 1. Model Represented from Open-Ended Data

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(Appendix A)

Dear XXXX,

I'm writing to ask you a small favor to help with data collection for my dissertation. If you have the time, could you take the survey yourself at and/or pass it on to a few contacts who manage 2 or more employees and work at a for-profit company that offers flextime and/or telecommuting? It can be work people, family, friends, etc.—the more, the merrier. I'm going to shut down the survey mid-September.

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=fRR_2b7sX83Obc7MjzuyGarQ_3d_3d

I included a sample email below that you can use (feel free to customize the subject line or text based on your audience or your style). I'm just trying to stress the short time commitment and cash drawing. I can get my target sample if everyone I know gets 2-3 people they are *confident* will go online and take the survey.

Take care,

Marianne

Subject line: Help an old colleague complete her dissertation

Email text:

Dear XX,

An old colleague of mine is finishing up her PhD in psychology at the University of Texas at Austin and needs participants for her online dissertation study on attitudes toward work/family programs. She's looking for working adult men and women (21+) who work at for-profit companies with flextime or telecommuting programs and manage two or more employees to take a survey at

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=fRR_2b7sX83Obc7MjzuyGarQ_3d_3d

 by September 15. It takes roughly an hour to complete. There is also a random drawing for five $100 cash prizes. I'd appreciate it if you would be willing to take the survey and pass it on to a couple of friends, family members, or coworkers.

Thanks,

Orientation to Occupational and Family Integration Scale-Revised

A look to the future.

Currently our society is experiencing change in its assumptions concerning the appropriate roles for adult men and women. For example, many men today are becoming more actively involved with family life and parenting. A large number of women, on the other hand, are becoming committed to establishing and maintaining careers. As a result of these changes there are many different possibilities for handling work and family roles as an adult. We're interested in your ideas about how you would like to manage these roles as an adult.

Listed below are a series of statements about occupational and family roles. We'd like to know how much you've <u>thought</u> about each possibility, <u>at this time in your life</u>, and how much you see yourself <u>committed to choosing</u> that possibility for yourself as an adult.

Please use the following definitions in responding to the items.

Work: Occupational activities for which remuneration (money) is expected and which usually occur outside the home.

Full Time Work: The equivalent of 30 or more hours per week.

Part Time Work: The equivalent of less than 30 hours per week.

Maintaining the Household: Domestic activities required for the regular or daily upkeep of a household such as cooking, grocery shopping, laundry, cleaning, paying of bills, etc.

Raising Children: Regular or daily aspects of childrearing such as bathing, dressing, and feeding the children, listening to them, spending time with them, helping with homework, talking with teachers, carpooling, doctor appointments, etc.

Marriage: A relationship between two people entered with the assumption that it is an intimate, enduring commitment.

For example, take item # 1. *I see myself married someday*.

--If you have thought a lot about whether to marry someday, but don't feel very committed to this possibility, you would write a 5 under "Thought" and a 1 or 2 under "Committed."

--If you have thought some about whether to marry some day and you're fairly committed to the possibility, you would write a 3 under "Thought" and a 3 or 4 under "Committed."

--If you have not thought much at all about whether to marry someday but feel certain that you will want to, you would write a 1 or 2 under "Thought" and a 4 or 5 under "Committed."

Now, using this example as a guide, write down how much you've thought about each of the following situations and how much you believe you will choose that option. Use the following scale from 1 to 5. (Do not skip any item and be sure to enter a number in both columns for each item.)

1 (Not at all)   2   3   4   5 (Very much)

	How Much You've Thought	How Much You're Committed
1. I see myself combining work and marriage and not having children.	____	____
2. I see myself being a parent someday.	____	____

After marriage (before children):

3. I see myself working full time.	____	____
4. I see myself working part time.	____	____
5. I see myself not employed.	____	____

After marriage (with children):

6. I see myself employed full time except during our children's pre-school years.	____	____
7. I see myself discontinuing my work from the time our children are born until they are grown.	____	____
8. I see myself continuing to be employed full time with no disruption in this employment.	____	____
9. I see my spouse pretty much taking primary responsibility for raising the children.	____	____

10. I see myself and my spouse both employed full time and to a great extent sharing the day to day responsibilities for raising the children, like feeding and dressing them, talking and spending time with them, meeting with their teachers. ____   ____

1 (Not at all)   2   3   4   5 (Very much)

	How Much You've Thought	How Much You're Committed

After marriage (before or with children):

11. I see my spouse and I both working full time and sharing the financial responsibility continuously throughout our marriage. ____   ____

12. I see myself and my spouse both employed full time and to a great extent sharing the day to day responsibilities for maintaining the household, like food shopping, cooking, laundry, and routine money management. ____   ____

13. I see myself and my spouse both employed full time and to a great extent sharing the day day responsibilities for both maintaining the household and raising the children. ____   ____

14. I see myself working full time and being the major financial provider. ____   ____

15. I see myself preferring not to work and will work only for additional income. ____   ____

16. I see myself wanting to continue my work and to develop in my chosen career. ____   ____

17. I see my spouse as working full time and being the major financial provider. ____   ____

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18. I see my spouse working only for additional
    income.   ____   ____

19. I see my work to be of primary importance
    (e.g., it may possibly require a change for my
    spouse, such as relocation).   ____   ____

20. I see myself working part time and taking
    primary responsibility for maintaining the
    household.   ____   ____

21. I see myself working part time and taking
    primary responsibility for raising the children.   ____   ____

22. I see myself working part time and taking
    primary responsibility for both maintaining
    the household and raising the children.   ____   ____

23. I see my spouse as working part time and taking
    primary responsibility for both maintaining the
    household and raising the children.   ____   ____

24. I see myself and my spouse both employed part
    time and to a great extent sharing the day to day
    responsibilities for both maintaining the
    household and raising the children.   ____   ____

25. I see myself working full time and taking
    primary day to day responsibility for
    maintaining the household.   ____   ____

26. I see myself working full time and taking primary
    responsibility for raising the children.   ____   ____

27. I see myself working full time and pretty much
    taking primary responsibility for both maintaining
    the household and raising the children.   ____   ____

28. I see myself working full time and not taking the
    primary responsibility but helping with household
    tasks and child care.   ____   ____

Orientation and Occupational Involvement Scale-Role Sharing Subscale

A look to the future.

Currently our society is experiencing change in its assumptions concerning the appropriate roles for adult men and women. For example, many men today are becoming more actively involved with family life and parenting. A large number of women, on the other hand, are becoming committed to establishing and maintaining careers. As a result of these changes there are many different possibilities for handling work and family roles as an adult. We're interested in your ideas about how you would like to manage these roles as an adult.

Listed below are a series of statements about occupational and family roles. We'd like to know how much you've <u>thought</u> about each possibility, <u>at this time in your life</u>, and how much you see yourself <u>committed to choosing</u> that possibility for yourself.

Please use the following definitions in responding to the items.

Work: Occupational activities for which remuneration (money) is expected and which usually occur outside the home.

Full Time Work: The equivalent of 30 or more hours per week.

Part Time Work: The equivalent of less than 30 hours per week.

Maintaining the Household: Domestic activities required for the regular or daily upkeep of a household such as cooking, grocery shopping, laundry, cleaning, paying of bills, etc.

Raising Children: Regular or daily aspects of childrearing such as bathing, dressing, and feeding the children, listening to them, spending time with them, helping with homework, talking with teachers, carpooling, doctor appointments, etc.

Marriage: A relationship between two people entered with the assumption that it is an intimate, enduring commitment.

1 (Not at all)   2   3   4   5 (Very much)

	How Much You've Thought	How Much You're Committed
1. I see myself and my spouse both employed full time and to a great extent sharing the day to day responsibilities for raising the children, like feeding and dressing them, talking and spending time with them, meeting with their teachers.	____	____
2. I see my spouse and I both working full time and sharing the financial responsibility continuously throughout our marriage.	____	____
3. I see myself and my spouse both employed full time and to a great extent sharing the day to day responsibilities for maintaining the household, like food shopping, cooking, laundry, and routine money management.	____	____
4. I see myself and my spouse both employed full time and to a great extent sharing the day day responsibilities for both maintaining the household and raising the children.	____	____
5. I see myself and my spouse both employed part time and to a great extent sharing the day to day responsibilities for both maintaining the household and raising the children.	____	____

Work and Family Questionnaire
Please fill out the entire form as accurately as possible.

1. What is your

    a. Age _____
    b. Race/Pan-Ethnic Group (Black/Latino/a/White-Non-Hispanic/Asian/Pacific Islander)
    c. Sex (Male/Female/Intersex/Other)

2. What is your marital status?

        Single   Partnered   Married   Divorced   Separated   Widowed

3. Do you have children that live with you? (Yes/No)

    a. If yes, how many? (1/2/3/4/5/6/7/8/9/10 or more)

4. Do you have elderly family members living at home? (Yes/No)

    a. If yes, how many? (1/2/3/4/5/6/7/8/9/10 or more)

5. Do you currently use work/family policies such as

    a. Flextime? (Yes/No)

    b. Telecommuting? (Yes/No)

6. How many years have you been working in a managerial position?

    (1-5)   (6-10)   (11-15)   (16-20)   (21-25)   (26 or more)

7. How many workers are employed by your company? _____

8. How many employees do you directly oversee? _____

9. How many of the employees you directly oversee have

    a. Children? _____

b. Elderly family members living at home? _____

10. Of those employees with children or elderly family members living at home, how many use work/family policies such as:

   a. Telecommuting? _____

   b. Flextime? _____

11. Are work/family policies at your company based on

   a. Written, formal guidelines? _____

   b. Informal practices? _____

12. What are the eligibility and criteria for these policies?
   _____
   _____
   _____

13. What barriers and challenges would have to change for you to encourage your employees to use flextime policies at your company?
   _____
   _____
   _____

14. What barriers and challenges would have to change for you to encourage your employees to use telecommuting policies at your company?
   _____
   _____
   _____

15. If your company was to hire a workforce expert to address increasing the promotion of work/family programs amongst employees, what recommendations do you think he or she would make?
   _____
   _____
   _____

16. What are your perceptions of employees who telecommute?

    _____
    _____
    _____

17. What are your perceptions of employees who use flextime?

    _____
    _____
    _____

18. What are the benefits for a manager who has employees who use flextime?

    _____
    _____
    _____

19. What are the benefits for a manager who has employees who telecommute?

    _____
    _____
    _____

20. What would have to change at your company to remove the challenges and barriers to promoting flextime?

    _____
    _____
    _____

21. What would have to change at your company to remove the challenges and barriers to promoting telecommuting?

    _____
    _____
    _____

22. When thinking of other industries, how would you rate the competitiveness of the market of which your company is a part?

    a. 1(very stable) 2(stable) 3(neutral) 4(competitive) 5(very competitive)

23. How much influence are you able to have over decisions made within your company?

    a. 1(very little)   2(little)   3(moderate)   4(significant)   5(very significant)

24. To what extent do you give your employees information about the work/family policies offered by your company?

    a. 1(never)   2(rarely)   3(sometimes)   4(often)   5(very often)

25. To what extent do you encourage your employees to use work/family programs offered by your company?

    a. 1(never)   2(rarely)   3(sometimes)   4(often)   5(very often)

28. To what extent does the culture of your company allow you to inform your employees about its work/family policies?

    a. 1(very small)   2(small)   3(moderate)   4(large)   5(very large)

29. To what extent does the culture of your company allow you to encourage your employees to use its work/family policies?

    a. 1(very small)   2(small)   3(moderate)   4(large)   5(very large)

30. Is there anything that hasn't been addressed in this survey that you would like to include?

    _____
    _____
    _____

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