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請就本試題所附之論文，回答以下問題：

1. 請在 100 字以內，書寫本論文之摘要。(本題佔 10 分)
2. 請評論本論文所使用的研究方法(含研究設計)。(本題佔 20 分)
3. 請就本論文之假說(hypothesis)，逐項說明其所牽涉到的構念(construct)、操作性定義(operational definition)及變數(variables)為何。(本題佔 30 分)
4. 請提出本論文之主要論點？及其邏輯推理的基本脈絡。同時根據你所提出之主要論點，基於你的學術專長，建構一個研究問題，然後提出應該如何針對此一問題進行研究，以達到符合學術論文之要求。(本題佔 40 分)

所附論文如下：

Anderson, Stella E., Coffey, Betty S. and Byerly, Robin T. (2002), Formal Organizational Initiatives and Informal Workplace Practices: Links to Work-Family Conflict and Job-Related Outcomes, *Journal of Management*, 28(6) 787-810.

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Formal Organizational Initiatives and Informal Workplace Practices: Links to Work-Family Conflict and Job-Related Outcomes

Stella E. Anderson*

Department of Management, Appalachian State University, P.O. Box 32089, Boone, NC 28608-2089, USA

Betty S. Coffey

Department of Management, Appalachian State University, P.O. Box 32089, Boone, NC 28608-2089, USA

Robin T. Byerly

Department of Management, Appalachian State University, P.O. Box 32089, Boone, NC 28608-2089, USA

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Many organizations have implemented a variety of initiatives to address work-family conflict issues. This study investigates the impact of formal and informal work-family practices on both work-to-family and family-to-work conflict (WFC, FWC) and a broad set of job-related outcomes. We utilized structural equation modeling to analyze data from the 1997 National Study of the Changing Workforce (NSCW). Results showed that negative career consequences and lack of managerial support were significantly related to work-to-family conflict. These were significant predictors of conflict even when accounting for the effects of work schedule flexibility. Work-to-family conflict was linked to job dissatisfaction, turnover intentions and stress, while family-to-work conflict was linked to stress and absenteeism. There were no apparent differences between women and men in terms of the observed relationships.

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本試題兩面印刷

As organizations attempt to help employees manage the balance between work and family demands, we have seen a growing body of research on the topic of work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). The interest in the topic has in large measure been fueled by substantial changes in the demographic composition of the United States workforce and recognition that work-family concerns are highly salient for the majority of women and men (Galinsky & Bond, 1998).

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One of the earliest comprehensive and ongoing studies examining the interrelationships among work and family life has been conducted by the Families and Work Institute in its National Study of the Changing Workforce (NSCW). The Institute recently reported findings from its 1997 national survey of the US labor force (Bond, Galinsky & Swanberg, 1998). Furthermore, recent studies on work-family conflict have demonstrated that work-family conflict is related to several job-related outcomes such as job dissatisfaction (summarized by Kossek & Ozeki, 1998) and turnover intentions (Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrian, 1996), as well as psychological and physiological indicators of stress/strain (Frone, 2000; Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992; Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

Earlier studies on work-family conflict sought to identify the type and extent of work-family policies adopted by organizations and to demonstrate the benefits associated with such policies. Of course, federal legislation, the Family and Medical Leave Act, adopted in 1993 provided many employees with a formal policy providing job security in the event of a need for leave to care for dependents. Many organizations had already begun to provide such formal initiatives prior to the enactment of federal legislation, recognizing the need to help employees to better balance work and family demands and responsibilities.

More recent work suggests that the success and effectiveness of such policies most likely depends on a supportive context that truly allows employees to make meaningful and useful choices (Kossek, Noe & DeMarr, 1999). Organizations apparently are beginning to realize that no policy or program can really help employees who work in an unsupportive culture (Friedman & Johnson, 1997). Indeed, reports from organizations that have enacted family-friendly workplace policies and practices indicate that these policies and practices are likely useless without managerial support (Galinsky, Bond & Friedman, 1993; Rodgers, 1992).

Building upon and extending previous research, we believe our study contributes to the work-family literature in several ways. First, we examine a model that links organizational policies and benefits to the experience of work-family conflict and ultimately to various job-related outcomes. Similar to Thomas and Ganster (1995), we are interested in systematically testing claims that organizational policies and benefits can alleviate work-family conflict and ultimately improve various organizational and individual outcomes. While many such claims exist, there is little systematic research demonstrating these links. Or, as Kossek and Ozeki (1998) point out, the question remains as to whether the relationship between work-family policies and outcomes like job satisfaction are mediated by work-family conflict. Second, our study addresses the impact of both formal initiatives and informal practices on work-family conflict and subsequent work-related outcomes. Current research (Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness, 1999) indicates that both formal initiatives and so-called informal practices constitute important components of a supportive work environment that should be studied concurrently. Accordingly, in addition to two formal family-supportive policies and benefits (flexible work schedules and dependent care benefits), we incorporate two aspects of informal workplace practices (managerial support for and career consequences of work-family balance). Third, extending previous research, we propose that different antecedents and outcomes are associated with the two forms of work-family conflict (i.e., work interfering with family (work-to-family conflict (WFC)) and family interfering with work (family-to-work conflict (FWC)). Although early research in this area treated work-family conflict as a global, bidirectional

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construct, more recent work has specified the direction of interference between work and family roles (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Frone et al., 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 1996). This view acknowledges that as one's work responsibilities interfere with one's family/home responsibilities, unfulfilled family obligations may then begin to interfere with one's functioning at work. Consequently, we conceptualize work-to-family and family-to-work conflict as related but distinct forms of role conflict. Thus, the antecedents and consequences of each form of conflict and the proposed reciprocal relationship between the two types of conflict are examined. Finally, our study is unique in that we utilize data from a large, nationally representative sample of employed adults from different occupations, ranks and organizations. The large, heterogeneous sample utilized in this study enhances the generalizability of our findings, and, due to the relatively equal numbers of women and men, provides an opportunity to examine potential gender differences. In this way, our study addresses concerns noted by Kossek and Ozeki (1998) in that much of the past research has been conducted using relatively homogeneous populations and organizational settings.

An Integrative Model of Work-Family Conflict

The purpose of our study is to develop and empirically test an integrative model linking work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict with several formal and informal workplace antecedents and several job-related outcomes. As shown in Figure 1, we predict that formal initiatives, such as schedule flexibility and dependent care benefits, will promote work-family balance in that they are negatively associated with work-family conflict. We also expect informal workplace practices to have an impact on work-family conflict. Informal practices include managerial support for and the career consequences of work-family balance. Further, the model depicts two forms of work-family conflict (work-to-family and family-to-work conflict) that are linked with different outcomes: work-to-family conflict is predicted to be associated with job dissatisfaction, turnover intentions and stress, while family-to-work conflict is expected to be associated with the outcomes of stress and absenteeism. Additionally, we will test for possible differences between men and women in the hypothesized relationships. The following discussion presents our theoretical rationale for these predicted relationships.

Formal Organizational Initiatives

Schedule flexibility. While organizations have adopted a variety of so-called family-friendly benefits and policies, work schedule flexibility options and dependent care benefits represent the most prevalent work-family programs (Friedman & Johnson, 1997). Apparently, flexible work hours and the ability to work on an individually set schedule are consistently rated as the most valuable options provided by employers (Rodgers, 1992). The findings from the 1997 NSCW (Bond et al., 1998) indicate that 45% of employees report that they are able to choose, within a range, the hours of their workday. However, only 25% report that they can change their daily work schedule as needed. These findings indicate that the degree of work schedule flexibility provided to employees can vary greatly.

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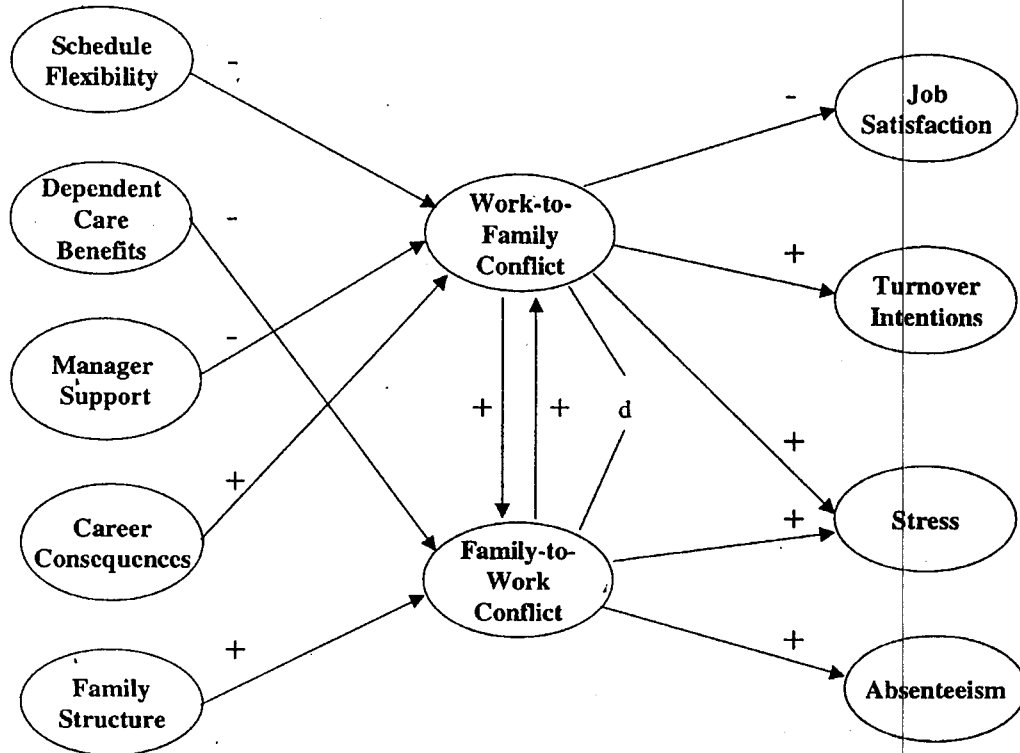


Figure 1. Proposed model of work-family conflict.

Studies have demonstrated that flexible scheduling is linked to important organizational outcomes. Flexible scheduling has been shown to reduce absenteeism (Dalton & Mesch, 1990). Also, in a review of the research on the organizational benefits associated with flexible work schedules, such flexibility has positive effects on productivity, job satisfaction and absenteeism (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright & Neuman, 1999). Studies have also shown that organizational initiatives that provide employees with alternatives to the traditional full-time, fixed-hour and fixed-place work arrangements give employees greater control over work and family matters, thereby helping employees manage the often conflicting demands of work and family (Friedman & Galinsky, 1992; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Similarly, high levels of job autonomy have been found to be associated with low levels of work-family conflict (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, Rabinowitz & Beutell, 1989; Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk & Beutell, 1996). It is quite likely that schedule flexibility in part explains the link between job autonomy and work-family conflict. To the extent that autonomy enables a person to control the timing and possibly the location of one's work, a person would be expected to be able to better balance work and family demands. Even if greater demands accompany job autonomy, the ability to structure and control one's schedule or the ways in which the job is performed would seemingly prove beneficial in terms of preventing work from interfering with family responsibilities.

It should be noted that previous research on the benefits of work schedule flexibility generally has not distinguished between the two forms of work-family conflict. Thus, we

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do not know whether work schedule flexibility helps individuals alleviate both forms of conflict. Following the lead of previous research (e.g., Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Frone et al., 1992; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999), generally speaking, we would conclude that workplace factors would predict work-to-family conflict while family/home factors would predict family-to-work conflict. In the case of work schedule flexibility, it seems as though the intent of these benefits is to prevent (as much as possible) work from interfering with family. Therefore, we predict that schedule flexibility directly affects the experience of work-to-family conflict and indirectly affects family-to-work conflict through recognition of the reciprocal relationship between the two forms of conflict. More specifically, we predict that work-to-family conflict is highest when employees have no flexibility or control over their work schedules.

Dependent care benefits. In addition to schedule flexibility, dependent care benefits are often provided in the hope that conflicts between family and work would be reduced. These benefits may consist of a variety of provisions, ranging from help for employees to secure child care and/or elder care to paid time off or leave to care for dependents. Whether or not these dependent care benefits actually prevent or lessen the conflict between family and work remains somewhat an open question. In fact, previous research indicates that policies initiated to help employees meet family responsibilities have not necessarily had the desired impact on work-family conflict (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). While legislation and increased awareness have recently moved many employers to offer more in the way of benefits aimed at helping employees with family responsibilities, empirical studies are needed to demonstrate the link between these benefits and important outcomes, including reduced family-to-work conflict. Given the distinction between the two types of conflict in the present study, our thinking was that organizations provide dependent care benefits to help employees prevent (as much as possible) family responsibilities from interfering with work responsibilities. Essentially, these benefits are designed to help employees better manage the demands resulting from their family circumstances. Thus, we predict that dependent care benefits directly affect the experience of family-to-work conflict and indirectly affect work-to-family conflict through the effect on family-to-work conflict. More specifically, we predict lower levels of family-to-work conflict for employees of organizations that provide some form of dependent care benefits.

Informal Workplace Practices

Manager support. As a number of organizations have formally adopted family-friendly programs and initiatives, these organizations report that actual practice is determined on a case-by-case basis, giving managers discretion in these matters (Friedman & Johnson, 1997). In fact, many alternative work arrangements may result from individuals negotiating with their managers to make such arrangements on an as-needed basis (Scandura & Lankau, 1997). Thus, while an organization may not have specific programs or policies, individual managers can give people flexibility by informally supporting such options. The findings of Powell and Mainiero (1999) indicate that the response that an employee receives to a request for an alternative work arrangement may very well depend on the manager's personal beliefs and past experiences with balancing work and family. Even when organizations formally

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adopt such programs and benefits, some managers may not be supportive of employee requests for flexible or alternative work arrangements. In fact, manager support appears to influence both employee decisions to utilize family-friendly benefits and to remain in the organization (Thompson et al., 1999).

Whereas the need for manager support for alternative work arrangements is frequently noted, we found few empirical studies that explicitly examined the effect of manager support on the work-family conflict that individuals' experience. The data from the 1997 NSCW indicate that most employees report that their immediate supervisors are supportive in terms of support related to the performance of the job as well as meeting personal and family needs (Bond et al., 1998). We do not know from these findings, however, whether manager support helps employees alleviate work-family conflict. Markel (2000), in a paper based on an analysis of the 1997 NSCW data, concluded that family-related supervisor support was related to lower levels of job-to-home (work-to-family) conflict. These results indicated that supervisor support was a significant factor related to the one form of conflict even when accounting for the effects of job and family satisfaction and the existence of several dependent care and flexibility practices. Our interest in analyzing the NSCW data was in the role of manager support as well as organizational culture (assessed in terms of career consequences associated with attempts to balance work and family) and their relation to work-to-family conflict and several other subsequent job-related outcomes.

Research on stress has long since identified social support as an important resource or coping mechanism that helps individuals reduce the effects of stressors. Work-related social support, especially from supervisors, may make one's work situation less stressful by providing emotional support, instrumental aid or perhaps providing greater flexibility or control over one's situation. For example, Thomas and Ganster (1995) found that perceptions of supervisor supportiveness were positively associated with perceptions of control over work and family matters, with such control in turn being linked with lower levels of work-family conflict and other psychological and physiological indicators of strain. Similarly, as part of an overall assessment of social support in the workplace, Carlson and Perrewé (1999) linked the quality of the relationships one has with his or her supervisor, coworkers and subordinates to reduced perceived role stressors (conflict, ambiguity and overload) and decreased work-family conflict.

Thus, to add to the limited studies examining the effects of manager support, we are interested in the role of work-to-family conflict as a mediator in the relationship between manager support for work-family balance and several job-related outcomes. We view manager support as an important factor in the work domain. As previously noted our expectation is that work-related factors directly impact work-to-family conflict and indirectly affect family-to-work conflict. Thus, we expect manager support to alleviate the experience of work-to-family generated conflict.

Career consequences. In addition to manager support being a key factor that impacts work-family conflict, a few studies have recognized the organizational context or culture as central to our understanding of work-family issues. When employees request or make use of options that give them flexibility, they may be penalized in terms of perceptions that they are not serious about their careers. Thus, individuals may perceive a need to sacrifice

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future career or advancement opportunities or risk other negative career outcomes in order to take advantage of scheduling options or alternative workplace arrangements. For example, Kossek, Barber and Winters (1999) found that managers who had work group peers that had used flexible work schedules were more likely to use such schedules themselves. From their findings, it appears as though when managers take the lead, they make visible to others that flexible work arrangements are viable options that one can utilize without long-term career consequences. In fact, fear of negative career impact is often cited as a major barrier that prevents people from using flexible work arrangements (Bailyn, 1993; Schwartz, 1996; Solomon, 1994). Indeed, there is some thought that senior managers may view the need for flexibility as a sign that a person is not really committed to the organization (Rodgers, 1992).

In the first empirical study, Thompson et al. (1999) explicitly examined whether a supportive work-family culture or climate was associated with greater benefit utilization and work-family conflict. In particular, they identified three key dimensions of organizational or cultural support for work-family balance, including managerial support, organizational time expectations, and career consequences associated with utilizing work-family benefits. Career consequences included norms concerning visibility or "face time" and judgments about contribution and commitment. They found that, in addition to the impact of work-family benefit availability, negative career consequences associated with the use of work-family benefits were related to higher levels of work-to-family conflict. Also, they found that the higher the organizational time demands the higher the work-to-family conflict.

To add to the limited empirical research on the link between career consequences and work-family conflict, we are interested in testing the relationships between career consequences, work-to-family conflict and other job-related outcomes. Specifically, we expect the higher the perceived negative impact on one's career, the greater the interference of work with family. Furthermore, we expect work-to-family conflict to mediate the relationship between career consequences and various job-related outcomes. Again, we expect career consequences, as a factor in the work domain, to be directly related to work-to-family rather than family-to-work conflict.

Family Structure

As we have mentioned, while work pressures appear to be the most powerful predictors of work-to-family conflict, family pressures and demands are generally the strongest, most direct predictors of family-to-work conflict (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). The many role demands imposed by the family domain create a number of opportunities for conflict or pressure that can ultimately impact one's work. These demands arise from responsibilities, requirements, expectations and commitments associated with family/home roles. Moreover, conflicts may arise when family roles require extensive time or necessitate concerns, which then affect a person's work (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Netemeyer et al., 1996). Also, family demands can produce conflict such that family roles inhibit or restrict full involvement in work.

A number of aspects of family structure are associated with work-family conflict, including marriage, especially when both individuals are employed, and a variety of dependent

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care responsibilities (Frone et al., 1992; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Kossek, Barber & Winters, 1999). All of these conditions might be expected to impose time concerns and/or create additional demands on the family member, leading to family-to-work conflict. Thus, we account for the complexity and extent of family responsibilities or demands, expecting higher levels of family-to-work conflict for individuals with complex and extensive family demands.

Job-Related Outcomes

Numerous studies have already demonstrated the links between work-family conflict and various individual and organizational outcomes. However, few studies have incorporated a broad set of outcome variables, including attitudinal as well as behavioral outcomes. Also, the possibility of different job-related outcomes associated with the two forms of conflict has received very little empirical attention. One such finding indicates that work-to-family conflict is more strongly associated with job satisfaction than is family-to-work conflict (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Recognizing the plausibility of such differential outcomes, Frone et al. (1992) suggested that work-to-family conflict may be associated with turnover intentions while family-to-work conflict may be associated with absenteeism. This suggests that, when work demands interfere with family life (work-to-family conflict), the most immediate or direct effect will be on a person's desire to find another job and possibly the decision to leave the organization. Conversely, when family responsibilities and demands affect work (family-to-work conflict), the most immediate or direct effect may be on attendance (or absenteeism).

Thus, while there is no empirical support and very little theoretical explanation for these predictions, we believe this is an important question that remains open. When individuals experience ongoing and unresolved conflict in the form of work interfering with family responsibilities, they may perceive that the only solution to the problem would be finding another job that would ultimately enable them to better balance work and family needs. When individuals are not able to resolve the conflicting demands of family and work such that family demands interfere with their ability to meet work responsibilities, absence from work may be the only means of meeting immediate and pressing family demands. Therefore, we predict that work-to-family conflict will have a direct positive impact on turnover intentions and family-to-work conflict will have a direct positive effect on absenteeism. We expect both forms of conflict to have a direct effect on stress. Finally, although previous studies indicate a bivariate relationship between job satisfaction and both forms of conflict (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998), these studies did not examine the likely reciprocal relationship between the two forms of conflict. Thus, we predict that work-to-family conflict is directly related to job satisfaction and family-to-work conflict is only indirectly related through its relationship with work-to-family conflict.

In summary, previous research generally has neglected a joint assessment of employer-provided work-family supports, work-to-family conflict, family-to-work conflict, and a broad set of job-related outcomes. Thus, we include in this study a number of variables that would link formal initiatives and informal practices, the two forms of conflict, and various job-related outcomes. Also, we examine the likely reciprocal relationship between work-to-family and family-to-work conflict.

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Gender Differences

Researchers have clearly indicated an interest in gender differences in work-family conflict. Likewise, policies of the Family and Medical Leave Act recognize the relevance of work and family issues for both men and women. Several proposed differences have been suggested and examined in the literature with limited support. For example, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) suggested that the direction of the role interference might differ for women and men such that work is more likely to intrude into family life for men while family demands may be more likely to interfere with work for women. There is little, if any, empirical support for these predictions (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Also, in terms of the overall level of experienced work-family conflict, most studies indicate that women and men report similar levels (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999).

These results do not rule out the possibility of gender differences in other causal relationships. However, large samples comprised of relatively equal numbers of men and women and the use of more sophisticated multivariate analyses are required to fairly test for potential differences between women and men. While we do not predict specific gender differences, the sample and methodology provide an opportunity to explore the question of possible gender differences in the relationships contained in our model.

Method*Sample*

Data used were from the 1997 National Study of the Changing Workforce survey conducted for the Families and Work Institute by Louis Harris and Associates, using a questionnaire developed by the Institute (Bond et al., 1998). Phone interviews were completed with a nationwide cross-section of employed adults. Sample eligibility was limited to people who were 18 years or older, employed or operated a business in the civilian workforce, resided in the contiguous 48 states, and lived in a non-institutional residence. Multiple calls were made per telephone number to complete interviews if eligible. In households with more than one eligible person, one was randomly selected for the interview. An incentive of US\$20 was offered for participation. Of the telephone numbers called, 3739 were determined to represent eligible households, and interviews were completed for 3551 of these (completion rate = 95%). The sample was weighted based on gender and number of employed persons in the household proportional to 1996 population data. (See Bond et al. (1998) for complete details on the NSCW survey.)

Our study focused exclusively on wage and salaried workers. Given our interest in managerial support and organizational culture (e.g., career consequences) we excluded self-employed individuals, assuming that these factors were not relevant for self-employed individuals. This resulted in a sample size of 2877. Furthermore, we included in our study only those individuals who had apparent potential for work-family conflict. Consistent with recent studies on work-family conflict (e.g., Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Thomas & Ganster, 1995) we included individuals who had at least one characteristic that would make dealing with work-family conflict issues likely. Thus, only those respondents who

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met at least one of the following requirements were included: (a) had at least one child under the age of 18 living in the household; or (b) were involved in a dual-career relationship; or (c) were currently providing care for someone aged 65 or older (or disabled dependent).

On this basis, the final number for the sample used in this study was 2248. The average age of this group was 40 and the sample was fairly evenly divided in gender with 1112 females and 1136 males. Main occupations covered seven categories, including professional ($n = 411$, 18.3%), executives/administrators/managers ($n = 374$, 16.6%), sales ($n = 211$, 9.4%), administrative support ($n = 346$, 15.4%), service ($n = 227$, 10.1%), technical ($n = 109$, 4.9%) and productions/repair ($n = 553$, 24.6%). For 17 cases (.8%) the occupational category was unknown.

Measures

Each of the measures for our study is described in detail below. The Family and Work Institute developed the specific questionnaire items and format. Some of the survey questions appear to closely resemble existing survey measures of specific constructs (e.g., job satisfaction) and some of the questions paralleled those asked in the 1977 Quality of Employment Survey (Bond et al., 1998).

Schedule flexibility. Respondents were asked if they are allowed to choose their starting and quitting times within some range of hours, or change the starting and quitting times on a daily basis. A count variable (from 0 to 2) was computed for each respondent with the higher number indicating more flexibility in the schedule. Also, respondents were asked overall how much control they have in scheduling work hours using a 5-point scale that ranged from (1) complete control to (5) none. We reverse-coded such that the higher value represents more control (greater flexibility).

Dependent care benefits. Respondents were asked to indicate (1: yes or 2: no) the availability of five benefits. These benefits included: (a) services to help find child care, (b) information about elder care services, (c) employer-operated/sponsored child care center, (d) provision of direct financial assistance for child care, and (e) programs that allow employees to put income before taxes in an account to pay for child care or other dependent care. Responses were then coded such that no = 0 and we created a count variable indicating the level of dependent care benefits ranging from (0) no benefits to (5) all benefits¹.

Manager support. Manager support was assessed with six items presented in Appendix A. These questions assessed manager support for the respondent's ability to successfully balance work and family responsibilities. Respondents reported on a 4-point scale, ranging from (1) strongly agree to (4) strongly disagree. We reverse-coded scores such that the higher numbers signify greater manager support. The coefficient alpha reliability for the scale was .89.

Career consequences. Five items shown in Appendix A were used to assess perceptions of career consequences (e.g., must choose between advancement and work-family balance).

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Respondents were asked to indicate the extent of agreement using a 4-point scale that ranged from (1) strongly agree to (4) strongly disagree. We reverse-coded the items so that higher values represent higher negative consequences for one's career. The coefficient alpha reliability for the scale was .75.

Family structure. Respondents were asked to respond (1) yes or (2) no to six questions about their family structure, including (a) are you married, (b) do you have at least one child under age 18, (c) is your spouse employed for pay, (d) do you provide special assistance or care for someone 65 years or older, (e) for a disabled or seriously troubled child, or (f) for a disabled non-elderly adult. We recoded this data setting no = 0. Then, similar to the approach used by Kossek, Barber and Winters (1999), we created a count variable (index) based on an affirmative response to these questions to assess the level and complexity of family demands. The range on this variable was 1-6 (since those with no family structure factors were not included in our study), with higher values indicating higher levels of family demands or responsibilities (see note 1).

Work-to-family conflict. Five items were used to measure perceptions of the extent to which one's work interfered with one's family (shown in Appendix A). Respondents used a 5-point scale from (1) very often to (5) never. We reverse-coded the items such that higher numbers indicate more frequent experiences of work interfering with family. The coefficient alpha reliability for this scale was .85.

Family-to-work conflict. Five items were used to measure perceptions of the extent to which one's family interferes with one's work (shown in Appendix A). Respondents used a 5-point scale from (1) very often to (5) never. We reverse-coded the items such that higher numbers indicate more frequent experiences of family interference with work. The coefficient alpha reliability for this scale was .80.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was assessed with five items presented in Appendix A. Respondents reported on a 4-point scale, ranging from (1) strongly agree to (4) strongly disagree. We reverse-coded scores so that the higher numbers denote greater job satisfaction. The coefficient alpha reliability for the scale was .80.

Turnover intentions. A single item with a 3-point response scale from (1) very likely to (3) not at all likely was used to assess turnover intentions. We reverse-coded the scale so that higher numbers indicate greater likelihood that respondents will make a genuine effort to find a new job with another employer within the next year.

Stress. We used seven items as an indicator of stress and the measures are shown in Appendix A. Respondents reported on a 5-point scale from (1) very often to (5) never. We reverse-coded the items such that the higher number indicates a higher level of experienced stress. The coefficient alpha reliability for the scale was .87.

Absenteeism. Respondents were asked how many days they missed work in the past 3 months (a) to care for a sick child, (b) because their usual child care was not available, or (c)

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for other family reasons. Absenteeism was treated as an objective measure with responses to each question totaled.

Preliminary Analyses

Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses provided support for the unidimensionality of all measures (with the exception of the items measuring work-to-family and family-to-work conflict, as described below). We also computed the construct reliability (a LISREL-generated estimate of internal consistency analogous to coefficient alpha, Fornell & Larcker, 1981) for each construct that consisted of multiple items. With the exception of career consequences, construct reliability estimates exceeded .80. The construct reliability estimate for career consequences was .76.

For the items measuring work-to-family and family-to-work conflict, we examined a one-factor and a two-factor model. In our judgment, there were five items (identified in Appendix A) that appeared to measure each of the two forms of conflict. The chi-square difference test comparing these two models resulted in a significant chi-square difference ($\Delta\chi^2 = 2672.64$, $df = 1$). This result, along with a comparison of the CFI's (Comparative Fit Index, Bentler, 1990) (.72 for the one-factor vs. .95 for the two-factor model) supported the use of the two-factor model. The estimate of the correlation between the two factors was .48 (completely standardized estimate). This factor correlation matched that obtained by Netemeyer et al. (1996). Each of the five items had significant factor loadings for the respective factor (ranging from .58 to .86, completely standardized solution).

Model Development and Evaluation

For all of the subsequent analyses involving latent variable modeling, multiple indicator variables were formed by summing subsets of the items for appropriate scales. This resulted in three indicators for most of the constructs (latent variables). The exceptions resulted from treating each of the four index variables (i.e., schedule flexibility, dependent care benefits, family structure, and absenteeism) as a single objective indicator for the respective latent variable (setting the path from the latent variable to the respective indicator to 1.0 and the error term to 0). As a second indicator for schedule flexibility, we used an item assessing overall control over one's schedule (as previously indicated). Finally, since there was only one item measuring turnover intentions, rather than assume zero measurement error, we corrected for measurement error by setting the error variance to .08 (the product of the variance and 1 minus the estimated reliability (.85), Bollen, 1989).

In order to test the model presented in Figure 1, structural equation modeling was used with covariance data as input to LISREL (Version 8.12; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). While not depicted in Figure 1, the measurement portion of the model (with the exceptions noted) estimated the paths linking the latent variables to their respective indicators, estimated the error variance for each indicator variable, and allowed all of the exogenous (predictor) latent variables to be correlated. For the exogenous latent variables, the factor variances were set equal to 1.0. For the endogenous (dependent) latent variables, one path linking each construct to its respective indicator was set equal to 1.0. Due to the predicted reciprocal relationship between the two forms of conflict, the disturbance terms (for work-to-family

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and family-to-work conflict) were allowed to correlate (accounting for any unmeasured variables shared in common). Finally, because the results of previous research attest to the relationships among several of our dependent variables (i.e., job satisfaction, turnover intentions, stress and absenteeism), we allowed their disturbances to covary, thus accounting for any relationships among these variables (similar to Frone et al., 1992).

Results

The correlations among the variables are presented in Table 1. For the purpose of examining bivariate relationships between constructs, scale scores were created for each of the variables (averaging or summing across the respective items). As can be seen in Table 1, schedule flexibility and manager support were negatively related to work-to-family conflict, as predicted. Conversely, and as expected, work-to-family conflict was positively related to career consequences. This indicates that the higher the perceived negative impact on one's career, the greater the interference of work with family. Dependent care benefits were not significantly related to either family-to-work conflict or work-to-family conflict. Also, family structure was a significant predictor of both family-to-work conflict and work-to-family conflict, such that the greater the family demands the higher the level of interference of family with work and vice versa. As expected, the two forms of conflict were positively related. Work-to-family conflict was significantly correlated with the three predicted outcomes (i.e., negatively related to job satisfaction, and positively related to stress and intentions to leave). Finally, family-to-work conflict was significantly correlated in the expected directions with the four outcome variables.

For the LISREL analyses, a series of model comparison tests were conducted by comparing a model that restricts certain paths (to be equal to zero) with a model that estimates these paths, noting the change in the chi-square value. A significant change in the chi-square value, moving from a more restrictive to a less restrictive model, indicates that the more restrictive model would be rejected. Several model comparison tests were conducted as recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). First, a comparison between a structural null model (restricting all paths representing relationships among the latent variables to zero) and a saturated structural model (estimating correlations among all latent variables) directly tests the restrictions contained in the structural null model. Second, a comparison between the theoretical (Proposed) model (containing only the hypothesized relationships depicted in Figure 1) and the saturated model provides an overall test of the Proposed model and directly tests the restrictions on specific paths proposed by the model. Finally, a significant chi-square difference from this comparison would indicate that the restrictions placed on some (or all) of the additional possible paths would be rejected, suggesting some revision(s) in the Proposed model. Any Revised model would then be compared to the saturated model.

In addition to the chi-square difference tests, the overall adequacy of the various models was evaluated with the Comparative Fix Index (CFI, Bentler, 1990) and RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation). CFI values (ranging from 0 to 1) and RMSEA values (with smaller numbers indicating better overall fit) are both indices of the fit between the model of proposed relationships and those indicated from the observed (sample) data. CFI values greater than .90 and RMSEA values less than .05 are generally considered indicators of

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Table 1
Means, standard deviations and correlations among study variables

Variable	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Manager support	3.37	.68	-										
2. Career consequences	2.04	.73	-.45*	-									
3. Schedule flexibility	.69	.85	.15*	-.23*	-								
4. Family structure	1.62	.75	-.00	-.00	-.01	-							
5. Dependent care benefits	.94	1.25	.12*	-.08*	.10*	.03	-						
6. Work-to-family conflict	2.95	.97	-.26*	.27*	-.08*	.08*	-.04	-					
7. Family-to-work conflict	1.95	.70	-.11*	.18*	.02	.10*	.00	.45*	-				
8. Job satisfaction	3.40	.55	.58*	-.38*	.15*	-.02	.10*	-.29*	-.11*	-			
9. Stress	2.74	.89	-.32*	.28*	-.12*	.09*	-.04	.63*	.40*	-.34*	-		
10. Turnover intentions	1.50	.73	-.28*	.25*	-.05	.04	-.09*	.18*	.10*	-.35*	.23*	-	
11. Absenteeism	.72	2.86	-.05	.02	.01	.11*	.03	.03	.10*	-.08*	.07*	.04	-

The *n* ranges from 1974 to 2248 depending on the variables involved. For the purpose of reporting correlations involving schedule flexibility, only the count variable is presented.

* *p* < .01.

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Table 2
Results for latent variable models examined and model comparison tests

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
Structural null	4437.60*	256	.77	.093		
Saturated structural	659.35*	201	.97	.035	3778.25*	55
Proposed (Figure 1) (Complete Mediation)	1439.59*	227	.93	.053	780.24*	26
Revised (Figure 2) (Partial Mediation)	689.52*	204	.97	.036	30.17*	3
Between-group (male-female) comparison						
Constrained	964.29*	446	.97	.025		
Unconstrained	928.39*	411	.97	.026	35.90	35

* $p < .01$.

acceptable fit. The statistical significance of the individual parameter estimates was also examined.

The chi-square and associated degrees of freedom for the models examined are presented in Table 2. As can be seen from the table, the chi-square difference test comparing the structural null and the saturated structural models indicated that the restrictions placed on the structural parameters would be rejected ($\Delta\chi^2 = 3778.25$, $\Delta df = 55$, $\chi^2\alpha < .05$). Thus, this model comparison indicated support for at least some paths representing relationships among the latent variables.

The chi-square difference test comparing the saturated structural and Proposed models indicated that at least some of the restrictions contained in the Proposed model would be rejected ($\Delta\chi^2 = 780.24$, $\Delta df = 26$, $\chi^2\alpha < .05$). Thus, there was support for some additional paths representing additional relationships beyond those hypothesized. Recognizing the restrictive nature of the Proposed model (essentially a Complete Mediation model), we added paths representing the direct relationships between the five exogenous (predictor) variables and each of the four endogenous (outcome) variables. Also, we included additional paths representing all possible direct relationships between both forms of conflict and the four outcome variables. We maintained the unique predictors of the two forms of conflict in order to estimate the reciprocal relationship. These additions allowed us to examine the hypothesized relationships while accounting for any possible direct effects of the various predictors on the outcome variables, addressing concerns over possible misspecification effects. Thus, a Revised model (containing the original predicted paths and these 23 additional paths) was examined. This Revised model was essentially a Partial Mediation model.

The chi-square difference obtained from comparing the Revised and saturated structural models was significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 30.17$, $\Delta df = 3$, $\chi^2\alpha < .05$). The fit indices, however, suggested virtually identical fit for both models (CFI = .97, RMSEA = .035 vs. .036). Thus, the significance of the parameter estimates was examined from the Revised (Partial Mediation) model. Before discussing the specific parameter estimates, an examination of the squared multiple correlations for the structural equations indicates the percentage of variance explained in the dependent (endogenous) variables by the set of predictor (exogenous) variables. These results indicated that the percentage of variance explained by the set of predictors was as follows: 32% of the variance in work-to-family conflict, 28% of the variance in family-to-work conflict, 53% of the variance in job satisfaction, 14% of the

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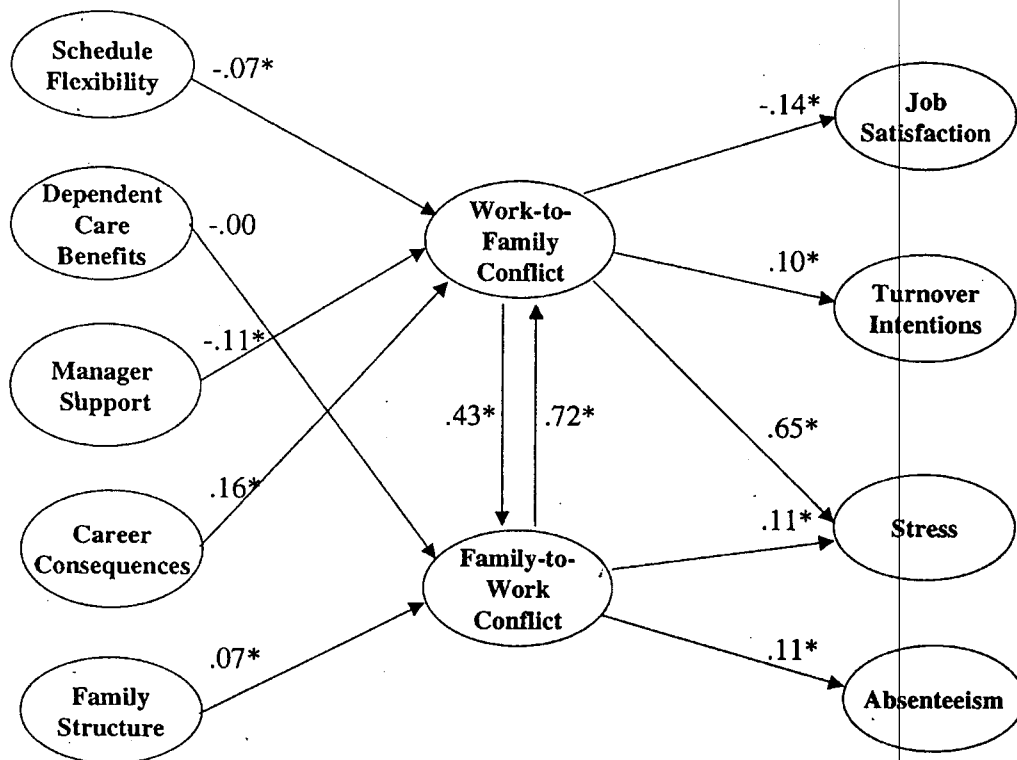


Figure 2. Revised (Partial Mediation) model, $*p < .05$. This Revised model depicts only predicted paths. Paths representing direct effects from exogenous to endogenous variables were also estimated. Estimates for all included paths are presented in Table 3. Estimates are from the completely standardized solution.

variance in turnover intentions, 60% of the variance in stress, and 3% of the variance in absenteeism.

The estimates of the parameters representing the primary structural paths of interest obtained from the Revised model are presented in Figure 2. Please note that this model also contained paths representing direct effects from the exogenous variables to four outcome variables. The estimates for all included structural paths are presented in Table 3. As can be seen in Figure 2, all of the predicted relationships were supported (in the predicted direction) with the exception of the prediction relating dependent care benefits to family-to-work conflict. As can be seen in Table 3, in addition to the significance of the predicted paths, 9 of the 23 added paths were significant. Thus, the predicted paths remained significant even when accounting for additional paths representing direct relationships between the exogenous and endogenous variables. These results indicated support for direct relationships between manager support and all of the outcome variables. Also, there was support for direct relationships between career consequences and job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The remaining three significant paths involved direct relationships between (a) schedule flexibility and job satisfaction, (b) dependent care benefits and turnover intentions, and (c) family structure and absenteeism.

On the recommendation of one of the anonymous reviewers, we also performed the tests of mediation described by Baron and Kenny (1986) to examine the two forms of conflict as

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Table 3
Completely standardized estimates from the revised (Partial Mediation) model

Path	Estimates of predicted paths	Estimates of added paths
Schedule flexibility → work-to-family conflict	-.07*	
Schedule flexibility → job satisfaction		.13*
Schedule flexibility → turnover intentions		.06
Schedule flexibility → stress		-.03
Schedule flexibility → absenteeism		.01
Dependent care benefits → family-to-work conflict	.00	
Dependent care benefits → job satisfaction		.04
Dependent care benefits → turnover intentions		-.05*
Dependent care benefits → stress		.01
Dependent care benefits → absenteeism		.03
Manager support → work-to-family conflict	-.11*	
Manager support → job satisfaction		.53*
Manager support → turnover intentions		-.19*
Manager support → stress		-.12*
Manager support → absenteeism		-.07*
Career consequences → work-to-family conflict	.16*	
Career consequences → job satisfaction		-.13*
Career consequences → turnover intentions		.18*
Career consequences → stress		.01
Career consequences → absenteeism		-.02
Family structure → family-to-work conflict	.07*	
Family structure → job satisfaction		-.01
Family structure → turnover intentions		.03
Family structure → stress		.03
Family structure → absenteeism		.10*
Work-to-family conflict → family-to-work conflict	.43*	
Work-to-family conflict → job satisfaction	-.14*	
Work-to-family conflict → turnover intentions	.10*	
Work-to-family conflict → stress	.65*	
Work-to-family conflict → absenteeism		-.04
Family-to-work conflict → work-to-family conflict	.72*	
Family-to-work conflict → job satisfaction		.03
Family-to-work conflict → turnover intentions		.00
Family-to-work conflict → stress	.11*	
Family-to-work conflict → absenteeism	.11*	

* $p < .05$.

mediators in the relationship between the exogenous and outcome variables. This required estimating several regression equations, including one for each of the four outcome variables (job satisfaction, turnover intentions, stress, and absenteeism) and the two mediator variables (work-to-family and family-to-work conflict). Overall, these analyses supported the results from the LISREL analyses. Specifically, with regard to the tests of work-to-family conflict as a mediator in the relationship between job satisfaction and the independent variables, WFC

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appears to partially mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and schedule flexibility, manager support and career concerns. With regard to absenteeism, we found no support for WFC as a mediator, consistent with our prediction and findings in the LISREL analyses. With regard to the tests of family-to-work conflict as a mediator in the relationship between job satisfaction and the independent variables, we found no support for such mediation. These results were consistent with our prediction and findings in the LISREL analyses. We found some support for partial mediation for turnover and stress with manager support and career concerns. With regard to our LISREL analyses, after accounting for the reciprocal relationship between FWC and WFC, we found support for WFC as the mediating variable. Finally, we found support for FWC as a mediator in the relationship between absenteeism and our family structure variable. This is consistent with our prediction and findings from the LISREL analyses.

Also upon the recommendation of one of the reviewers, using regression analysis, we tested the possibility of interaction effects among the dependent care benefits as well as the family structure variables. More specifically, we tested all of the two-way interactions between the five dependent care benefits (resulting in 10 interaction terms). Likewise, we tested all of the two-way interactions between the six family structure variables (resulting in 15 interaction terms). In the prediction of work-to-family conflict, two interaction terms were significant. These both involved the presence of children under the age of 18 with responsibility for a disabled child and a disabled non-elderly adult. For the equation predicting family-to-work conflict, there was one significant interaction term, involving care for an elderly adult and disabled child. Thus, with regard to the question of potential interactions, these analyses indicated that, overall, with a few exceptions, interaction terms were not significant predictors of the outcome variables. Given the large number of interaction terms (i.e., 25), one would expect to find some significant terms while the interpretation and meaningfulness of the findings may be difficult to determine.

Finally, in order to test for possible differences between women and men in the hypothesized relationships, we used multisample analyses, estimating the Revised model for each group (males and females). First, we allowed the structural paths to be freely estimated in each group (Unconstrained model). We then compared this Unconstrained model with a Constrained model in which the structural paths were assumed to be equal. The non-significant chi-square difference ($\Delta\chi^2 = 35.90$, $\Delta df = 35$, less than the $\chi^2 .05$ critical value) indicated that the Constrained model would be retained. Thus, there was no evidence of significant gender differences in the parameter estimates for the hypothesized relationships, indicating the model is equally applicable to women and men.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to develop and empirically test a model linking work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict with several antecedents and outcomes. Drawing on previous research, we predicted that formal initiatives such as schedule flexibility and dependent care benefits would promote work-family balance in that they would be negatively associated with work-family conflict. We also expected informal workplace practices to have an impact on work-family conflict. Informal practices included managerial support

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for and the career consequences of work-family balance. Further, we expected the two forms of work-family conflict (work-to-family and family-to-work conflict) to be linked with different outcomes: work-to-family conflict would be associated with job dissatisfaction, turnover intentions and stress, while family-to-work conflict would be associated with the outcomes of stress and absenteeism. Additionally, we tested for possible differences between men and women in the hypothesized relationships.

Not surprisingly, we did find some support for the positive benefits of formal work-family initiatives. Specifically, when employees have flexibility in their work schedules they apparently experience less work-to-family conflict. Also, employees with schedule flexibility reported higher levels of job satisfaction whether or not such flexibility alleviates work-to-family conflict. Although we did not find that family-to-work conflict was impacted by the availability of dependent care benefits, employees with dependent care benefits were apparently less likely to leave their organizations.

Adding to previous work in this area, our results highlight the importance of informal workplace practices. Specifically, we found work-to-family conflict to be influenced by managerial support for and career consequences associated with work-family balance. This finding suggests that manager support is key for employees to successfully manage the integration of work with family and family with work. Employees need to know that managers support them in their efforts to balance work and family responsibilities. They must also believe that, when they take advantage of alternative work arrangements, their career advancement opportunities are not jeopardized. Moreover, several important job outcome variables were clearly impacted both directly and indirectly by these informal factors. In particular, all of the four outcome variables were directly impacted by managerial support. Further, job satisfaction and turnover intentions were directly impacted by concerns over career consequences.

In terms of gender differences, the Revised model appeared to be equally applicable to men and to women. In particular, the results suggest women and men are equally concerned with and affected by managerial support and career consequences. Recognizing that these issues are salient for both women and men may increase the likelihood that managers will reconsider their role in supporting alternative work arrangements that help all employees better balance work and family responsibilities.

It should be noted that our Proposed model was rejected in favor of a model that contained, in addition to the predicted paths, direct paths between predictor and outcome variables. Recognizing the restrictive nature of the Proposed model (essentially a Complete Mediation model), the addition of these direct paths resulted in a Revised model (essentially a Partial Mediation model). This model provided a conservative test of the primary relationships of interest. More specifically, the predicted relationships were significant even when accounting for the effects of these additional paths. As a result, the Revised model did not lead to any differences in the primary results or the conclusions drawn. With regard to the added paths that were significant, several of these paths represented the direct effects of flexible scheduling, manager support and career consequences on job satisfaction and turnover intentions. As noted by Grover and Crooker (1995), the availability of such policies and practices may have a positive impact on attitudes regardless of whether an employee personally benefits, perhaps because these provisions signify concern on the part of the organization for employee well-being.

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As noted by Kossek and Ozeki (1998) much of the research on work-family conflict has involved limited samples in terms of size and representativeness. This study overcomes these limitations in that we examined a large, heterogeneous sample that included wage and salaried employees working in a variety of occupations and job categories. The large size of the sample and the inclusion of equal numbers of women and men from a variety of job categories may mitigate concerns about the generalizability of our findings.

Nevertheless, the conclusions of our study are based solely on self-reported data. As noted by Thomas and Ganster (1995), this is a common problem in research on work-family conflict because the key constructs are often based on perceptions and thus depend on self-report data. Sole reliance on self-reported data can raise concerns about common method variance. Thus, additional attempts to obtain multiple sources of data to minimize concerns over common method variance would be beneficial. Certainly, there are fewer concerns associated with self-reported data on the availability of certain options, including flexible scheduling options and dependent care benefits, as well as the demographic information on family structure. Ideally, data on actual turnover occurrences, absenteeism and productivity or performance would be obtained from organizational records.

Another methodological concern pertains to the results involving dependent care benefits. Our results should be interpreted with caution since the variable was highly skewed with more than 52% of respondents reporting no benefits. Thomas and Ganster (1995) noted this same issue. Also, respondents were asked to report the existence of benefits, not their specific use of the benefits. As an alternative, researchers might assess the level of satisfaction with the specific child care or other dependent care arrangements actually utilized, rather than the availability of employer-provided dependent care benefits.

The results of this study underscore the importance of distinguishing between the two types of work-family conflict. Consistent with Netemeyer et al. (1996) findings and in response to Kossek and Ozeki's (1998) recommendations, this study provided additional empirical evidence that there is a distinction between work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. Moreover, we found support for different antecedents and outcomes associated with the two forms of conflict.

Clearly, we feel that these results suggest that more attention needs to be given to the informal workplace practices that impact employees' ability to balance work and family responsibilities. Of course, future research should certainly include simultaneous attention to both formal and informal variables. It could be the case that the benefits of formal initiatives can be enhanced when supportive, informal initiatives are also in place so that employees can fully utilize their options. One direction might include the identification of barriers to utilization of alternative work arrangements. Also, further elaboration of the managerial support role and its implications would be worthwhile. Finally, as employees attempt to balance work and family and take advantage of more initiatives and options, we need to more fully understand the impact of such choices on attitudes and career outcomes.

Note

1. On the recommendation of an anonymous reviewer, using regression analysis, we considered the separate effects of the individual dependent care benefits. We also

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performed these analyses for the family structure variables. These results indicated that none of the individual dependent care benefits or family structure variables were significant predictors of either of the two forms of conflict. Thus, subsequent analyses were performed using the index score as a simple measure of the level/degree of family supportive policies and the level/degree of family demands/responsibilities.

Appendix A. Measures

Manager Support

1. My supervisor is supportive when I have a work problem.
2. My supervisor is fair and doesn't show favoritism in responding to employees' personal or family needs.
3. My supervisor accommodates me when I have family or personal business to take care of—for example, medical appointments, meeting with child's teacher, etc.
4. My supervisor is understanding when I talk about personal or family issues that affect my work.
5. I feel comfortable bringing up personal or family issues with my supervisor.
6. My supervisor really cares about the effects that work demands have on my personal and family life.

Career Consequences

1. At the place where you work, employees who ask for time off for family reasons or try to arrange different schedules or hours to meet their personal or family needs are less likely to get ahead in their jobs or careers.
2. There is an unwritten rule at my place of employment that you can't take care of family needs on company time.
3. At my place of employment, employees who put their family or personal needs ahead of their jobs are not looked on favorably.
4. If you have a problem managing your work and family responsibilities, the attitude at my place of employment is: "You made your bed, now lie in it!"
5. At my place of employment, employees have to choose between advancing in their jobs or devoting attention to their family or personal lives.

Work-to-Family Conflict

In the past 3 months, how often:

1. Have you not had enough time for yourself because of your job?
2. Have you not had enough time for your family or other important people in your life because of your job?
3. Have you not had the energy to do things with your family or other important people in your life because of your job?

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4. Have you not been able to get everything done at home each day because of your job?
5. Have you not been in as good a mood as you would like to be at home because of your job?

Family-to-Work Conflict

In the past 3 months, how often has your family or personal life:

1. Kept you from getting work done on time at your job?
2. Kept you from taking on extra work at your job?
3. Kept you from doing as good a job at work as you could?
4. Drained you of the energy you needed to do your job?
5. Kept you from concentrating on your job?

Job Satisfaction

1. The work I do on my job is meaningful to me.
2. At the company or organization where I work, I am treated with respect.
3. I feel I am really a part of the group of people I work with.
4. I look forward to being with the people I work with each day.
5. How satisfied are you with the opportunities that you have at work to learn new skills that could help you get a better job or find another equally good job if this one doesn't work out?

Stress

During the past 3 months, how often:

1. Have you felt emotionally drained from your work?
2. Have you felt used up at the end of the workday?
3. Have you felt tired when you got up in the morning and had to face another day on the job?
4. Have you felt burned out or stressed by your work?
5. Are you bothered by minor health problems such as headaches, insomnia, or stomach upsets?
6. Have you felt nervous and stressed?
7. Have you found that you could not cope with all the things you had to do?

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Stella E. Anderson is an Associate Professor in the Walker College of Business at Appalachian State University. She received her PhD in organizational behavior from Purdue University. Her research interests include organizational citizenship behavior, work-family conflict and women in management.

Betty S. Coffey is an Associate Professor in the Walker College of Business at Appalachian State University. She received her PhD in strategic management from the University of Tennessee. Her research interests include strategy implementation, building and transferring capabilities for change, and corporate social performance.

Robin T. Byerly is an Assistant Professor in the Walker College of Business at Appalachian State University. She received her PhD in strategic management from Florida State University. Her research areas are strategic management and social responsibility.

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