

A Typology of Workplace Policies

Worker Friendly vs. Family Friendly?

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This article defines "family friendly" policies of employers more broadly as "worker friendly" policies. Second, it presents a fourfold typology of these worker friendly policy types, using these systematic criteria: Who/what is the focus of the policy? What is the goal of the policy? Who benefits (is favored) by the policy? Who bears the financial constraints of the policy? Who is the target audience? Four policy types emerge from this: (a) the "old" family friendly and personal type policies; (b) those that remove impediments to work; (c) training and education; and (d) nontraditional incentives type. We also scored all individual policies along a proemployer and proemployee axis, then determined an average score for each policy type and placed the types into one of four quadrants along these axes. There is preliminary support for four distinct types of worker friendly policies by virtue of their spatial placement.

Keywords: *family friendly policies; human resource management; public and private sector; workers*

THEORY

The literature on family friendly benefits policies encompasses a wide gamut of policies including flextime, flexplace, pay for unused sick days, leave sharing, unpaid leaves exceeding federally mandated minima under the Family Medical Leave Act (Allred & Baker, 2000), the provision of on-site child care, and subsidies for child care (Carre, Ferber, Golden, & Herzenberg, 2000; Kossek, 1991; Newman & Matthews, 1999; Newman, McCurdy, & Lovrich, 2000). The efforts to establish these policies have

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been advocated by unions (A.F.L.-C.I.O., 2000; Carre et al., 2000), by women's groups, and by employee groups. There is a strong set of studies showing a perceived link between these policies and employee retention, employee satisfaction, and employee productivity. Employers have joined in the chorus of proponents as well. For example, the Conference Board, in its report *Linking Home to Work: The Bottom Line*, touted these policies as a win-win phenomenon, after doing an extensive literature review of the many studies that showed that these policies represent a convergence of employee and employer interests (Corporate Leadership Council, 1999; Friedman, 1991; Peters, Peters, & Caropreso, 1990).

A New Definition

The definition of *family friendly* is evolving. We argue that the term *worker friendly* is now a more accurate term than family friendly. Why? The old rubric of family friendly cannot possibly encompass the diverse set of policies that now exist. The phrase worker friendly does include those flexible leave practices that are beneficial to the individual worker, not purely because of his or her familial status, but because of the worker's individual needs. This rubric also covers those policies that help all workers in general, such as training programs and health insurance. Two specific developments support replacing the label of family friendly with worker friendly. First, the demographics of the workplace are changing. Specifically, there is a rise in the proportion of workers who are single or childless, and most recently a rise in the proportion of couples who are unmarried (Fritsch, 2001). Second, there is an overt backlash spearheaded by a group of employees called the Childless Coalition (Bergmann, 1998). Currently about one third of the workforce is raising children under the age of 18 years. The group of childless and single employees feels excluded from the benefits of family friendly policies because many of these policies are child centered. This demographic shift in the workforce toward more single workers and childless workers began after the establishment of family friendly policies.

Changing demographics mean that the average employee of the future will not be a married person with a working spouse and children, which is the type of employee for whom the family friendly policy was designed. The model employee of the future may be a single person, a childless employee, or an unmarried couple (Fritsch, 2001). These workers, when faced with an employer-provided on-site child care center may justifiably question "friendly to whom?" (Hertz, 1999; Pitt-Catsouphes & Googins, 1999;

Scully & Creed, 1999; Young, 1999). These two developments have attracted a lot of attention in the academic press (Grandey, 2000; Pitt-Catsouphes & Googins, 1999; Rothausen, Gonzalez, Clark, & O'Dell, 1998) and also in the popular press (Bergmann, 1998).

Reasons for Proliferation

The reasons for the spread of the so-called family friendly policies are by now familiar. There was the increase in the number of women in the workforce, in the number of dual wage earners, as well as the increasing number of men with working spouses (Blau, Ferber, & Winkler, 1998). There was also the recognition of the difficulty in breaking through the glass ceiling (Newman, 1993). Another factor was the enormous time constraints that most Americans face (Drago, 2000; Schor, 1991). In addition, employers came to redefine these policies (and thus mainstream them) as family friendly issues, rather than dismissing them as "merely" female friendly issues (Galinsky, 1990). In addition, employers found that there were market forces and good business reasons for their adoption, such as the necessity of employers to remain competitive in their benefits packages and to achieve diversity within their organization (Guy & Newman, 1998). There was some evidence that these family friendly policies may increase loyalty, satisfaction, and/or productivity and thus are good for employers also (Friedman, 1991). Furthermore, there was an increase in the number of women in executive positions and in certain industries (Galinsky, 1990; Kossek, 1991). Finally, there was presidential leadership on the issue by President Clinton regarding federal employees; there was federal legislation such as the Family Medical Leave Act requiring unpaid leave for dependent and child care reasons, as well as state legislation such as in Minnesota and California that went beyond the federal minima (Schellenbarger, 2001).

Variables Associated With Policy Adoption

There has been much written regarding the speed and the conditions under which worker friendly policies are adopted (Osterman, 2000). One assumption implicit in this literature is that the spread of these policies is virtually automatic. This assumption has been challenged recently. Scholars such as Daley (1998) have begun to doubt whether the benefits of family friendly policies were really definite and measurable, particularly for the public sector (Durst, 1999; Roberts, 2000). Finally, there seems to be varia-

tion in the rate of adoption of such policies by particular industries, with the biotech industry leading. However, the fields of medicine, law, and academia are trailing (Rosenberg, 1999). The public sector often outstrips the private. For example, Mouldner and Hall's (1995) study reported that health insurance was provided in more than 90% of all public sector settings, admittedly with great variation within each sector (Roberts, 2000). There is also variation by state and state-linked variables (Gray, 1973; Lord & King, 1991; Newmark, 2002), by the definition of stakeholders (Hertz, 1999), by the characteristics of the organization (Newman & Matthews, 1999; Newman et al., 2000), by the demographic characteristics of an organization (Peters et al., 1990), and by the leadership of the organization, specifically the number of women in leadership roles (Kossek, 1991). Variation can also be attributed to the structure of exit, voice, and loyalty options for federal employees (Rusbult & Lowery, 1985) whether the policy is segmentative, as opposed to universal, according to the organizational justice literature (Grandey, 2000), and the amount of organizational capacity and the demand for the benefit (Durst, 1999).

FOUR TYPES OF WORKER FRIENDLY POLICIES: TOWARD A NEW TYPOLOGY

After culling current worker friendly policies of employers from a comprehensive search of the literature, a typology of four distinct categories of policies was developed (Babbie, 2001; Bureau of National Affairs, 1993). Table 1 is an enumeration of all the individual policies surveyed from the literature that can be labeled worker friendly and categorized into one of the four policy types. Type I comprises the family and personal policies, which includes the myriad of policies formerly labeled family friendly.¹ The second type, Type II, contains the removing impediments to work policies, those policies that increase the ability of the person to get to work. Type III, training and education policies, includes credit and noncredit learning experiences paid for, in part or in full, by the employer, or training classes that are work based. The fourth type, Type IV, nontraditional incentives, is a panoply of incentive programs that have the primary purpose of fulfilling organizational goals of the employer, such as a program to reduce absenteeism, while offering a prize to one individual employee and providing incentives for all other employees to make behavioral changes to get the prize.

Table 1. Typology of Worker Friendly Policies

<i>1) Family/Personal</i> Pregnancy leaves Maternity/Paternity leaves Personal leave Family medical Child care: on-site and vouchers to subsidize Paid vacation Bereavement leaves Flexible use of sick days Flex plans and cafeteria plans Health care benefits	<i>2) Removing Impediments to Work</i> Employee assistance programs Homework Telecommuting Flexplace Flextime
<i>3) Training & Education</i> Skill acquisition Personal development Higher education	<i>4) Nontraditional Incentives</i> Company car Parking prizes: Employee of the month Presenteeism creative incentive programs Conversion of sick pay to cash Recognition awards Gyms Stress management On-site oil change and lubrication jobs

To explore whether these four policy types are distinctive, the following criteria have been developed and can be applied to each policy:

- Who is the focus of this type of policy?
- What is the goal of this policy type?
- Who does each policy type favor, the employee or the employer?
- Who bears the financial constraints?
- Who is the target group of employees for this policy?

What follows provides an extensive description of each type and explains the way in which each category is distinct through the application of the previously defined criteria.

Type I: Family/Personal Policies

The family/personal policies (upper left-hand corner of Table 1) serve one of two functions: to either facilitate coordination of duties associated with rearing children or to establish flexible arrangements with the use of leave and personal days.

What is the focus? The focus of Type I is the worker.

What is the goal? The goal is to help the worker balance the stresses between work and family.

Who is favored by this policy? It benefits employees (at least the targeted employees) as well as employers. In fact, over the long term, it may actually empower the employer to attract and retain talented employees, if we assume that (a) only a very small number of employers have such a benefit, (b) that it is desirable to employees, and (c) that the labor market is competitive.

Who bears the financial restraint? The financial burden is primarily borne by the employer.

Whom does this policy type target? It targets the employee with familial obligations—employees with young children or employees who have caregiving responsibilities for elderly parents.

Type II: Removing Impediments to Work

This policy type consists of accommodations of space, time, and personal support. These include such policies as homework, flex plans, flexplace, telecommuting, and employee assistance programs. Technology drives the establishment of many of these policies. In addition, acute time pressures inspire these policies as well (Drago, 2000). The reader will notice that one practice, mommy track funneling, is not included in either the first or second policy type.² The answers to the key criteria questions for Type II policies, removing impediments to work, are the following:

The focus of these policies is the employee and the employer.

The goal of this policy type is to facilitate the employee getting to work or what Dr. Rachel Willis dubbed, “the access to work” (Connelly, Degraff, & Willis, 2002; Willis, in press). The goal is as broad as its name implies. In fact, the problem could be as far reaching as an employee’s psychological or substance abuse problems, which can be addressed through the use of employee assistance programs (counseling and referral systems for personal problems).

The benefit accrues to the employer and the employee but favors the employee.

The financial constraints of this policy type are borne by the employer.

The target audience is universal, that is, all workers.

Type III: Training and Education Policies

Type III is the most straightforward and most cohesive of the four types of worker friendly policies:

The focus of this policy is developing the human capital of the worker.

The overall goal of Type III policies is to enhance human capital and skill and to increase the employee's competitiveness within the job market and work site due to technological or academic skill upgrading. However, different types of training imply different goals. One purpose of training can be job linked, meaning that it is dedicated to upgrading skills for a current job or for qualifying for new jobs. Another purpose of training is personal development, such as retirement transition programs, personal financial planning programs, and other noncredit programs. Such programs are clearly not job related (Ferman, Hoyman, Cutscher-Gershenfeld, & Savoie, 1991). A final purpose of some of these policies, such as the back-to-school programs in United Auto Workers-Ford joint training programs is to get a general education, a broad-based education that exceeds the imparting of narrow, technical skills. It should be noted that training programs that have the narrow focus of upgrading job skills have been offered by employers for quite some time, as well as union apprenticeship programs, which teach specific skills as a way of getting workers trained for hiring. Such programs serve the dual (and perhaps conflicting) functions of training the employee for another job while also increasing the employee's loyalty to the employer, or in the case of construction unions, providing pre-employment training and certification of competence. The combined forces of deindustrialization and changing technology led to some of the most extensive training commitments, which were spawned from joint labor-management training program funds in the automotive and telecommunications sector (Ferman et al., 1991). These were negotiated by unions and companies that saw highly paid union workers in automobile and telecommunication industries face either permanent unemployment or huge transitions to jobs in completely different sectors (Ferman et al., 1991).

Who benefits? The employer as well as the employee benefit. The employer benefits from the collective added human capital of many employees being well trained. The employee benefits by gaining a new skill.

The employer bears the financial constraints.

Whom does this policy favor? This policy favors the employer by increasing the value and quality of each employee to the firm, as well as the employees, by increasing their skills and competitiveness within the field.

Type IV: Nontraditional Incentives

The fourth policy type encompasses programs designed to achieve an employer goal, such as reduced absenteeism, via offering employees an incentive to conform to that behavior. Another example of this kind of policy would be the recognition programs, such as an annual awards dinner or the "Employee of the Week/Month" parking spot award. Some of these look interesting, even bizarre, such as the employer-provided oil change and lubrication offered by a sock manufacturer in North Carolina. It should be

noted that, although traditional incentive programs are devised to increase productivity, the nontraditional activities usually involve economic incentives to the employees to perform some activity, which will directly benefit the employer financially, such as "presenteeism," which is the opposite of absenteeism. Thus a cynical view of these programs is that the employer is duping the employees to achieve its financial aims. An example would be a drawing for a free car in a lottery-style giveaway to one of thousands of employees who had perfect attendance. The answers to the key questions (criteria) are the following:

The focus is the employer, although it may appear at first glance to be on the employee.

The employer is favored relatively more, but benefits accrue to both.

Who benefits from this policy type? The organization gains power relative to the employee. There is usually only one winner among the employees in these lottery-style giveaways, so the vast majority of employees gain nothing but are coaxed or motivated (depending on one's point of view) into conforming with the organizational goal.

In terms of financial constraints, it does not burden either the employee or the employer.

Who is the target of these policies? Employees with a particular behavioral characteristic, such as bad attendance, that the employer wants to change, are the targets of these policies.

METHOD

Terminology

An individual policy is one of the 30 or so of those individual practices listed in Table 1. A policy type is one of the four worker friendly types: Type I, family/personal; Type II, removing impediments to work; Type III, training and education; and Type IV, nontraditional incentives. Policy types are aggregations of individual policies that cluster together based on the five criteria established, as displayed in Table 2.

Method Employed

One of the possible methods we could have employed to distinguish policy types was to array a policy type along only one continuum, which extends from proemployer to proemployee. This approach has its limits,

Table 2. Summary of Policy Types

<i>Type</i>	<i>Focus</i>	<i>Goal</i>	<i>Benefit/ Empower</i>	<i>Financial Constraint</i>	<i>Target Audience</i>
Family/ Personal	Worker	Balance of family and work	Both	Employer	Families
Removing impediments	Both	Blending spheres between home and work	Both; favors employee	Employer	Universal
Training and education	Human capital	Development of human cap- ital, skill	Both	Employer	Universal
Nontraditional	Organization	Retention and satisfaction	Both	Neither	Targeted group only

however, because it assumes that the more proemployer a policy is, the less proemployee a policy is; that is, that there is only one implied continuum and there is a trade-off. This is the opposite assumption from which much of the early family friendly literature worked, particularly those studies covered in the Conference Board report (Friedman, 1991) in which the assumption was that all policies were good for the employer (by increasing loyalty or increasing productivity) and for the employee. However, the trade-off assumption and the win-win assumption are troublesome, so they need to be tested. Therefore, we used an alternative technique of first scoring individual policies and calculating Cronbach's alpha to test reliability, and second, using these scores to calculate coordinates for each policy type to array them spatially along two separate axes: one axis that extends from positive to negative in its impact on the employer and the other that extends from positive to negative in its impact on the employee.

Scoring

How do we determine the score that becomes the basis for the spatial location of the policy type? We scored each individual policy by the degree to which the policy is proemployee (+1, -1, or 0 for neutral) and the degree to which the policy is proemployer (+1, -1, or 0). That gave us two numbers for each individual policy—the proemployee score and the proemployer score for each policy type. Then, we added the scores of individual policies within each type to get two total scores for each type. Finally, we

divided the two total scores for each policy type by the number of individual policies within each type. This gave us two mean scores, rather than two total scores. A total score would have the problem of being a function of the number of individual items in each policy type. As you can see from Table 1, the number of individual policies varies from three policies in the training and education type to a total of 10 in the family/personal type. So we created a mean score as a way of standardizing for the number of items. We also multiplied that number by 100 so that the magnitude of the scores is not miniscule.

The scores and Cronbach's alphas are reported in the Appendix. The scoring technique allows the employer and the employee benefits to be measured independently.

Plotting

This scoring technique also enabled us to place each of the four types in one of four quadrants: proemployee and proemployer quadrant, antiemployee and proemployer, antiemployee and antiemployer, and finally, proemployee and antiemployer (see Figure 1). If there is a good fit with the hypothesis, that is, that this policy type is win-win (equally favorable) on the two dimensions, there will tend to be a positive number on the coordinates of the employer and the employee axes. Moreover, policy types with a win-win valence will fall into the upper right-hand corner of the diagram, as they will be positive on the proemployer axis and positive on the proemployee axis. We proposed this as a good test of the cohesiveness and the mutual exclusivity of these types.³ The test is as follows: Do the four types distinguish themselves from one another in the spatial dimensions formed by the proemployer and proemployee axis? If the four types were not distinct, we would expect that they would converge together at or near the same coordinates.

RESULTS

The hypotheses regarding the expected spatial results are as follows: the two types considered equally proemployer and proemployee are Type I, family friendly, and Type III, training and education. Type IV, nontraditional incentives, was hypothesized to be more proemployer, and Type II, removing impediments, is hypothesized to be more proemployee than proemployer. There will be four quadrants formed by axes in which the pol-

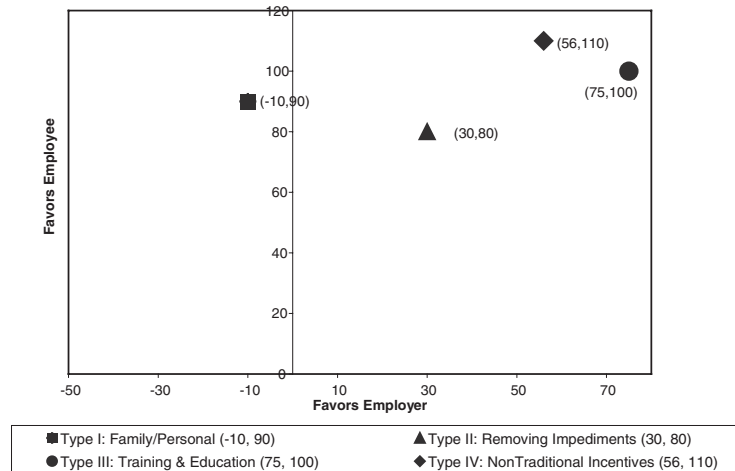


Figure 1: Location of Policy Types Along a Two-Dimensional Grid

icy types are plotted after totaling their scores. After we devised the scores using the method mentioned earlier, we were able to put each of the four policy types into one of the four quadrants in Figure 1 based on the spatial relationship between the two coordinates, which are the two mean scores (proemployer and proemployee score) for each type. The actual scores of each individual policy are in the Appendix. Table 3 indicates the coordinates that result from the scoring of the different policy types.

The individual policy scores were subjected to a Cronbach's alpha test of reliability by two experts.⁴ Cronbach's alpha were in the range of .60 to .94, depending on the evaluator and the policy type suggesting a relatively good inter-coder reliability.⁵ All policy types appear cohesive except Type IV, which has more variation in original scores from the authors and in Cronbach's alpha with the judges than one would like. Figure 1 displays the coordinates and thus the quadrant in which each policy was located.

These results are notable:

1. First, the four policy types do not all have the same coordinates. This tells us that the four policy types are distinct. For instance, Type III and Type IV seem to be the highest in terms of proemployer, with a coordinate of 100 on proemployer for Type III and 110 for Type IV.
2. Second, not all the data points representing policy types are equally favorable to employers as they are to employees. This finding calls into question one of the assumptions behind the earlier family friendly definition litera-

Table 3. Policy Coordinates Based on Scoring Results

	<i>Proemployer</i>	<i>Proemployee</i>
Type I	-10	90
Type II	30	80
Type III	75	100
Type IV	56	110

ture: that a policy, which is proemployee, will always be equally proemployer simultaneously.

3. All of the types, except Type I, family/personal, are located in the proemployer and proemployee quadrant, although their coordinates are distinct. Type I has a slightly negative valence on the employer axis. This contradicts the conventional wisdom and some earlier research, which suggested that the family friendly policies are always win-win. Of course, this result depends on which policies are included in the mix for this type.

IMPLICATIONS

We found that there are four distinct types of worker friendly policies:

- family friendly or personal policies, which tend to be segmentative or are perceived to be segmentative
- removing impediments to work policies, which are universal in terms of who can access them
- training and education policies, which are universal in terms of access
- nontraditional incentive-based policies, which tend to be targeted to meet employer-defined goals

As demonstrated by Table 2, the four policies are distinct along five criteria:

1. Who is the focus of the policy?
2. What is the goal of the policy?
3. Who benefits/is empowered from the policy?
4. Who bears the financial constraint?
5. Who is the target group of employees?

After testing the hypothesis that the mean scores of the four policy types would converge toward a single coordinate, and thus would have the same proportion proemployer as proemployee, we found that the four policies were divergent. The theoretical implications of this are important.

What scholars thought was a single concept in benefits—family friendly—appears to be considerably more complex—with four distinct types of worker friendly policies. This is why we argue that worker friendly is a more accurate rubric than family friendly, because family friendly policies constitute only one of the four types of worker friendly policies. The concept of worker friendly appears to be broad enough to encompass all four types of policies.

The definition of family friendly does seem to be evolving toward worker friendly. This new definition is broad enough to encompass policies targeted at nontraditional family units, at cohabitants, at partners, and at more universal benefit policies than the traditional segmentative family friendly policies. As Grandey (2000) described, segmentative policies are the policies that are not universally available to all employees. They are targeted primarily for workers with children and workers with families, thus lending support to some of the nontargeted workers complaining of injustice.

The four policy types are distinct, that is, located in a distinct space. Even the three coordinates that fall in the proemployee and proemployer quadrant, are not coordinates that are equally proemployee and proemployer. In other words, there is variation in the degree to which the other three policy types, Type II, Type III, and Type IV are proemployee or proemployer. Type IV, although it fell into the quadrant of proemployer and proemployee, had a proemployer score higher than its proemployee score. Type IV had a slightly higher proemployer score than Type III's score. This fact confirmed the hunch that Type IV policies tend to subsume the employee's interest to achieve an employer goal.

The current study has implications for the practical world of personnel. There is increasing evidence that the demographics of the workforce for which the original family friendly policies were designed are fast changing. If those predictions are correct, (Fritsch, 2001), the dominant profile of an employee will not be a dual-income family member and parent but will be either a childless employee or a single employee. Thus, the prevalence of policy types II, III, and IV arguably could rise, even dominate the workplace. After all, some of the organizational justice literature and the popular press reports suggest that Type I policies are subject to a rising backlash from childless workers and single workers. The other types will probably not suffer from the same zero-sum characteristic because there is not a narrow target population, thus not creating the haves and have nots. This four-fold typology still needs to be subject to an empirical test via surveys of

employers' policies to see if the four types are indeed distinct. However, there is evidence from their coordinates in Figure 1 that they are distinct.

Three of the four policy types were positive for employees and positive for employers. So there is general support for the win-win idea. Type I is a different case—the conventional wisdom about the type called family friendly policies was that they were also a win-win situation for the employer and the employee. Our findings tentatively suggest that this policy type may not be equally as good for the employer as for the employee. A cautionary note: This may be because of the mix of policies we included in the policy type and, therefore, bears further study. With our mix of policies and our scoring, the average for Type I, family friendly, came out a little on the negative side for the employer's interest.

Another implication that scholars and personnel directors alike will need to keep in mind is the need for employers and personnel experts to constantly gather feedback from employees as to what particular policies are favored, rather than to presume that the personnel office knows. Employee surveys may be a possible way of doing this. It is expected these employee preferences will change as the composition of the workforce changes and the next iteration of the American worker emerges.

Another implication of the current study, which bears further research, is the question of whether worker friendly policies expand or contract as a function of the business cycle. We would expect that during a downturn the employer would either eliminate or raise the eligibility, or make employees pay a greater share of a worker friendly policy. This macro effect should be examined, because the studies to date have focused more on microlevel factors (employer-level) or sectoral differences. In addition, as is already demonstrated by the literature, there are differences by sector and by industry in terms of the relative enthusiasm for worker friendly policies. It will be interesting to see whether the industries begin to converge toward a common package of these policies over time or whether each industry retains its distinctive mix of policies. If the types are truly mutually exclusive, perhaps some sectors will foment faster adoption of one type of policy than another. In some industries, which are highly competitive, firms may have to offer the competitive (or dominant) package to recruit workers. An area of future research may be to disaggregate the working population and to see which policy types or which individual policies are viewed as favorable by certain

types of workers. Whether the public sector adopts these innovations as fast or faster than the private sector remains an empirical question, which needs to be addressed. This new typology will hopefully lead to some rich research by scholars and practitioners alike, by organizing and motivating important research questions.

APPENDIX

Scores of Individual Policies Within Each Type on a Proemployer and a Proemployee Dimension

Type I: Family/Personal (Type I = -10, 90)

	Proemployer	Proemployee
Pregnancy leave	0	1
Maternity/Paternity leaves	1	1
Personal leave	0	1
Family/Medical leave	0	1
Child care or vouchers	0	0
Paid vacation	-1	1
Bereavement	-1	1
Flexible use of sick days	-1	1
Flex plans and cafeteria plans	1	1
Health care benefits	0	1
Total score for Type I	-1.0	+9
Mean Score	-10	90

Note: Cronbach's alpha (Judge 1) for Type I = .65; Cronbach's alpha (Judge 2) for Type I = .65.

Type II: Removing impediments to work (Type II = 30, 80)

	Proemployer	Proemployee
Employee assistance program	1	1
Homework	0	0
Telecommuting	0	1
Flexplace	0	1
Flextime	.5	1
Total	1.5	+4
Mean Score	30	80

Note: Cronbach's alpha (Judge 1) = .60; Cronbach's alpha (Judge 2) = .70.

(continued)

APPENDIX (continued)

Type III: Training and education (Type III = 75, 100)

	Proemployer	Proemployee
Skill acquisition	1	1
Personal development	0	1
Higher education	1	1
Work-related skill enhancement	1	1
Total	3	4
Mean Score	75	100

Note: Cronbach's alpha (Judge 1) = .88; Cronbach's alpha (Judge II) = .88.

Type IV: Nontraditional incentives (Type IV = 56, 110)

	Proemployer	Proemployee
Company car	-1	1
Designated parking spot: Employee/Month	0	1
Presenteeism	1	1
Conversion of sick days to cash	1	1
Recognition awards	0	1
Gyms	1	1
Stress management	1	1
On-site oil change and lubrication jobs	1	1
Smoking cessation	1	1
Total	5	10
Mean Score	56	110

Note: Cronbach's alpha (Judge 1) = .50; Cronbach's alpha (Judge 2) = .94.

Overall Cronbach's alpha of Judge 1 with authors' scores = 34/56 = .61.

Overall Cronbach's alpha of Judge 2 with authors' scores = 34/56 = .61.

NOTES

1. The latest innovation, which was not included in the current study but is beginning to attract some attention, is the provision of pet insurance for employees' pets. The topic of employers offering pet insurance was the topic of an August 16, 2001, National Public Radio report on the program, *Talk of the Nation*. The report indicated that, in a recent stiff competition between two Silicon Valley employers over a particular employee, the offering of pet insurance by one employer clinched the employee's choosing the job at the pet-friendly employer. The program went on to say that the cost of pet insurance is quite high and that, so far, the number of employers offering it is miniscule, so pet insurance was not included in the quadrant for family and personal policies, but this innovation may be emerging in very competitive markets.

2. Because of the reasoning stated earlier, they tend to marginalize the female employee, not really accommodate the employee (Blau et al., 1998; Carre & Tilly, 1998). Bergmann (1998) argued that mommy track positions promote a "caste system," doing little to negate traditional division of labor, promoting paid substitutes for unpaid family labor and discriminating against single people (p. 11). Bergmann suggested that a more egalitarian course of accommodation would be for the two parents to share positions or share leaves. The part-time accommodation may yield a similar bundle of problems. Rather than empowering the female employee to cope with the combined stresses of home and work, part-time status may be a problem rather than a solution particularly by some authors (Frederickson & Soden, 1998; Kalleberg, Rasell, Cassirer, Reskin, Hudson, Webster, et al., 1997; Lewis, 1998;). One of the implications of part-time status is that the legal status is so different, with the worker being made more vulnerable. There are some strategies to deal with this, however many of them negate the benefits of being part-time (Paul & Townsend, 1998). The part-timer may be permanently relegated to the working poor category by dint of this accommodation and relegated to a category of workers, which are not considered good material for promotion. However, some benefits of part-time work for the employer and the employee should not be omitted. Part-timers are employed for a variety of fiscal and service delivery reasons including (a) reduced compensation and benefits costs, (b) enhanced flexibility in service delivery and staffing, and (c) the opportunity to screen employees for full-time jobs. Employees are attracted to part-time work because of opportunities for (a) flexible schedules, (b) work and family balance, (c) career exploration, (d) work experience, (e) income supplementation, and (f) income generation while searching for a full-time job. There are exceptions to our characterization of part-timers as marginalized employees, such as union-represented part-time employees, such as Teamster-represented employees of United Parcel Service.

3. Another way to test this would be to gather information from employers as to which individual policies they adopt with which other policies and to interview employers and employees as to whether they think that the individual policy is proemployee, proemployer, or neutral.

4. One was an academic who published in the field of public personnel and the other was a practitioner in public personnel with an MPA degree.

5. The most consistently high Cronbach's alpha were for Type III—Training and Education Policy Type, which had an alpha of .88 with both judges' scoring.

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