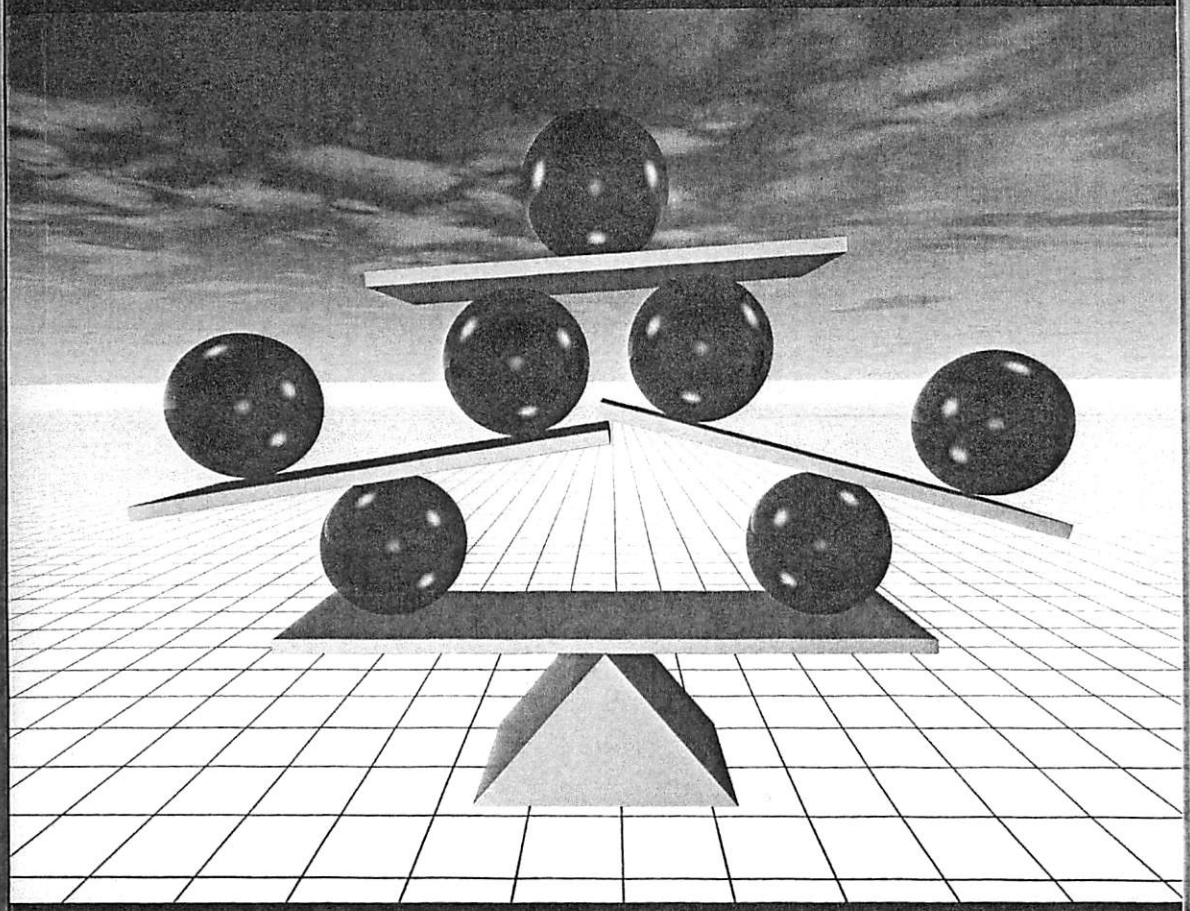
A VOLUME IN RESEARCH IN CAREERS



STRIVING FOR BALANCE

EDITED BY
S. GAYLE BAUGH &
SHERRY E. SULLIVAN

Striving for Balance

A Volume in
Research in Careers

Series Editors
S. Gayle Baugh, *University of West Florida*
Sherry E. Sullivan, *Bowling Green State University*

Research in Careers

S. Gayle Baugh and Sherry E. Sullivan, Series Editors

Striving for Balance (2016)
edited by S. Gayle Baugh and Sherry E. Sullivan

Searching for Authenticity (2015)
edited by S. Gayle Baugh and Sherry E. Sullivan

Maintaining Focus, Energy, and Options Over the Career (2009)
edited by S. Gayle Baugh and Sherry E. Sullivan

ers
an, Series Editors
16)
rry E. Sullivan
2015)
rry E. Sullivan
ver the Career (2009)
rry E. Sullivan

Striving for Balance

Edited by

S. Gayle Baugh
University of West Florida

and

Sherry E. Sullivan
Bowling Green State University

IAP
INFORMATION AGE PUBLISHING, INC.
Charlotte, NC • www.infoagepub.com

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Names: Baugh, S. Gayle, editor. | Sullivan, Sherry E., 1961- editor.
Title: Striving for balance / edited by S. Gayle Baugh and Sherry E. Sullivan.
Description: Charlotte, NC : Information Age Publishing Inc., [2016] | Series: Research in careers
Identifiers: LCCN 2015036089| ISBN 978-1-68123-304-8 (paperback) | ISBN 978-1-68123-305-5 (hardcover) | ISBN 978-1-68123-306-2 (ebook)
Subjects: LCSH: Work and family. | Work-life balance.
Classification: LCC HD4904.25 .S865 2016 | DDC 306.3/6--dc23 LC record available at http://lccn.loc.gov/2015036089

Printed in the United States of America

L., 1961- editor.
ı and Sherry E.

shing Inc., [2016] |

-304-8 (paperback) |
·68123-306-2 (ebook)
:e.
306.3/6--dc23 LC record

CONTENTS

Introduction to *Research in Careers* Series..... *vii*

Introduction to the Volume ..... *xi*

1. Beyond Policy Adoption: Factors Influencing Organizational Support for Reduced-Load Work Arrangements
Alyssa Friede Westring, Ellen Ernst Kossek, Shaun Pichler, and Ann Marie Ryan..... *1*

2. Do Organizational Efforts to Help Employees Achieve Balance Matter? An Empirical Study of Organizational Support Initiatives on Worker Attitudes
Yasmin S. Purohit, Claire A. Simmers, Sherry E. Sullivan, and S. Gayle Baugh *25*

3. Can Managers of Every Generation Have It All? Examining The Relationship Between Work-Life Balance and Promotability for Baby Boomers and Generation X
Sarah A. Stawiski, William A. Gentry, and Lisa E. Baranik..... *47*

4. A Qualitative Exploration of Reactions to Work-Life Conflict Events
Elizabeth M. Boyd, Jessica Keeney, Ruchi Sinha, and Ann Marie Ryans..... *73*

5. Spillover and Crossover Processes: Consequences for Work-Life Balance
Hetty van Emmerik, Arnold B. Bakker, Mina Westman, and Maria C. W. Peeters *97*

6. Beyond Conflict and Enrichment: A Review, Reconceptualization and Research Agenda for Studying Work-Family Balance
Christine D. Bataille *113*

About the Authors *135*

onsequences for

s 97

Review,
genda for

..... 113

..... 135

INTRODUCTION TO THE *RESEARCH IN CAREERS* SERIES

Welcome to volume three of *Research in Careers*! This series is designed in five volumes to provide scholars a unique forum to examine careers issues in today's changing, global workplace. What makes this series unique is that the volumes are connected by the use of Mainiero and Sullivan's (2006) kaleidoscope career model (KCM) as the organizing framework and the theme underlying the volumes.

To understand how this series is organized requires a brief overview of the KCM (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). Just as rotating the tube of the kaleidoscope produces changing patterns when its glass chips fall into new arrangements, individuals change the patterns of their career by rotating the varied aspects of their life in order to arrange their relationships and roles in new ways. Individuals evaluate the choices and options available through the lens of the kaleidoscope to determine the best fit among work opportunities, constraints, and demands as well as relationships and personal values and interests. It is a dynamic model; each decision an individual makes will affect his or her kaleidoscope career pattern.

Like a kaleidoscope, which uses three mirrors to create an infinite number of patterns, individuals focus on three key parameters when making decisions, thus creating the kaleidoscope pattern of their career. These key parameters are (a) *authenticity*, whereby the individual's internal values are aligned with his or her external behaviors; (b) *balance*, such that

Striving for Balance, pp. vii–ix

the individual strives to reach an equilibrium between personal investments in work and nonwork pursuits; and (c) *challenge,* which is an individual's need for stimulating work (e.g., responsibility, autonomy) as well as career advancement. Over the course of the life span, as a person searches for the fit that best matches the character and context of his or her life, the kaleidoscope's parameters shift in response, with one parameter moving to the foreground and taking priority at that time. The other two parameters lessen in intensity and recede to the background, but are still present and active, as all three parameters are necessary to create the current pattern of an individual's life/career (Sullivan, Forret, Carraher, & Mainiero, 2009).

The KCM is based on the results of five different studies (interviews, focus groups, and three surveys) of over 3000 U.S. professionals (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006). Other independent studies have also supported the basic tenets of the KCM (Cabrera, 2007, 2009; Godshalk, Nobel, & Line, 2007; Segers, Inceoglu, Vloeberghs, Bartram, & Henderickx, 2008; Smith-Ruig, 2009).

Using the KCM as the foundation, we have organized the five volumes in this series to recognize the key points of the theory. The first volume, *Maintaining Focus, Energy, and Options Over the Life Span*, centers on how individuals enact their career and keep their career vital over the course of their life. The authors in volume one examined current theories and research within the context of change over the life span, while acknowledging potential obstacles to career growth, transitions to new career phases, and renewal.

Volume two, *Searching for Authenticity*, focused on a person's quest for authenticity, defined as an individual's need to be genuine to himself or herself and to do meaningful work. Within the context of an organization, authenticity includes the need for one's values to match the values of the employing firm. The authors in volume two, have examined the intrinsic enjoyment of one's career, alternative career paths (especially those that are pursued "for love, not money"), and career changes and transitions that are made in order to pursue something more important than money.

In this volume, *Striving for Balance*, we consider how individuals seek a healthy alignment between work and nonwork. In addition to building upon the established literature on work/family conflict, the chapters in this volume also examine the reciprocal positive influences between work and nonwork, considering such issues as balancing work with commitments to others, including spouse/partner, children, elderly relatives, friends, and the community.

In the fourth volume we will focus on *Seeking Challenge*, looking at why individuals need simulating work, what work and nonwork factors influence challenge, and the role played by others (e.g., leaders, mentors), who may contribute to an individual's career success. We will also explore how

employer and individual needs can be matched so as to produce both personal challenge and organizational profitability.

In the fifth volume of the series we will examine "threats and opportunities." The great opportunities offered by new career patterns as well as the possible losses and problems associated with nontraditional careers will be discussed. In this volume we will also look at how organizations are managing in this new work era and how nontraditional careers can be both a boon and a bane to them.

In sum, each volume represents an in-depth examination of a major theme within the field of careers. As such, each is independent of the others, providing the reader with original and varying perspectives on that volume's theme. Additionally, each volume will provide the novice and the established scholar alike with numerous ideas for future research. The five volume series, considered in its entirety, should provide the reader with a deeper understanding of the changing nature of careers as well as the factors that influence how individuals enact their careers within and outside of the context of organizations. By organizing the series using the framework of the KCM, we hope to provide a detailed and realistic examination of the increasingly complex nature of careers in the 21st century.

REFERENCES

Cabrera, E. F. (2007). Opting out and opting in: Understanding the complexities of women's career transitions. *Career Development International, 12,* 218–237.

Cabrera, E. F. (2009). Protean organizations: Reshaping work and careers to retain female talent. *Career Development International, 24,* 186–201.

Godshalk, V. M., Noble, A. M., & Line, C. (2007, August). *High achieving women: an exploratory study of the differences between kaleidoscope career types.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Management, Philadelphia, PA.

Mainiero, L. A., & Sullivan, S. E. (2005). Kaleidoscope careers: An alternative explanation for the opt-out generation. *Academy of Management Executive, 19*(1), 106–123.

Mainiero, L. A., & Sullivan, S. E. (2006). *The opt-out revolt: How people are creating kaleidoscope careers outside of companies.* New York, NY: Davies-Black.

Segers, J., Inceoglu, I., Vloeberghs, D., Bartram, D., & Henderickx, E. (2008). Protean and boundaryless careers: A study on potential motivators. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 73,* 212–230.

Smith-Ruig, T. (2009). Mapping the career journey of accountants in Australia. In S. G. Baugh & S. E. Sullivan (Eds.), *Research in careers* (pp. 163–196), Charlotte, NC: Information Age.

Sullivan, S. E., Forret, M. L., Carraher, S. M., & Mainiero, L. A. (2009). Using the kaleidoscope career model to examine generational differences in work attitudes. *Career Development International, 14,* 284–302.

INTRODUCTION TO THE VOLUME

Although there has been a great deal of research on the topic of work-nonwork balance, workers today face many different obstacles in striving for balance than in previous decades (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Rapidly evolving technology has blurred the boundaries between work and other aspects of life as laptops and smart phones tether employees to their work 24/7. For example, 58.8% of the participants of the American Life Panel reported working during their vacation, including checking their e-mail (40.2%), checking voice mail (22.1%), taking calls (23.9%) and doing the work they would normally be doing if in the office (12.3%) (Carman & Pollard, 2015).

Increased globalization has brought changes to many businesses as well (Al Ariss, 2014; Carraher, & Welsh, 2015; Dickmann & Baruch, 2011; Reis & Baruch, 2013). For instance, brokers once traded on the New York Stock exchange from the ringing of the opening bell at 9:30 A.M. Eastern Standard Time (EST) to its close at 4:30 P.M. Today, New York brokers (and others around the world), are also trading on other markets, such as the Tokyo market which opens at 6:45 P.M. EST and the London market which opens at 3:00 A.M. EST. Even very traditional, slow-to-change industries are doing business much differently because of technology. For example, with over 6.7 million U.S. university students taking at least one course online (Allen & Seaman, 2013), professors who once taught undergraduate students in face-to-face traditional classroom settings are now responding to e-mails and interacting electronically with students around the clock.

Striving for Balance, pp. xi–xv

In addition to changes in technology and increased globalization, the workforce itself has also changed. What employees value and what they want from their employers and careers have changed. Research has documented how many employees want to be authentic in their career choices (Hall & Mao, 2015; Leroy, Verbruggen, Forrier, & Sels, 2015; Liu, Perrewé, & Magnusen, 2015; Murphy, & Volpe, E, 2015), with this quest for authenticity impacting college graduates as they make the transition from school to employment (Blenkinsopp, Scurry, and Hay, 2015) and employees in mid- and late-career as they make the transition to unemployment in the face of lay-offs (de Janasz & Kenworthy, 2015).). With more women, parents, and those caring for elderly relatives in the workplace than in previous decades as well as younger generations of employees who are "working to live not living to work," individuals are looking for organizations that will support their chosen life style (Sullivan, Forret, Carraher, & Mainiero, 2009). A recent survey of 1,087 professional workers, however, reported that 45% perceived their work-life balance as lacking (Salomon, 2015). While some organizations are offering innovative programs to meet their employees' need for balance, other organizations are still struggling to keep up with the changing work context.

The chapters in this volume examine how individuals are striving for balance within the context of our changing workplace. Chapters 1 and 2 focus on macroissues surrounding work-nonwork balance, specifically studying the effectiveness of organizational policies. In Chapter 1, Westring, Kossek, Pichler, and Ryan explore if there is a gap between an organization's adoption of work-nonwork policies and its offering of a supportive environment for the employees use of such policies. Surveying human resource managers from 46 North American companies that were early adopters of reduced-load work arrangements, they found organizations offering a greater number of work-nonwork policies were no more supportive of reduced-load work arrangements than firms offering fewer policies. Westring et al.'s study highlights the importance of organizations creating a supportive context for the implementation of policies to help employees achieve balance.

In Chapter 2, Purohit, Simmers, Sullivan, and Baugh draw from social exchange theory and the compensation literature to examine how employees' satisfaction with their organization's discretionary (i.e., not legally required) support initiatives influences their work-related attitudes and personal well-being. They investigated the relationship between professional workers' satisfaction with three types of discretionary benefits which support work-life balance—(a) time-related benefits, (b) career-related benefits, and (c) family-related benefits—and the three attitudes of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and quality of work life using survey

gy and increased globalization, the
ıat employees value and what they
have changed. Research has docu-
be authentic in their career choices
Forrier, & Sels, 2015; Liu, Perrewé,
Ξ, 2015), with this quest for authen-
ey make the transition from school
and Hay, 2015) and employees in
e transition to unemployment in
orthy, 2015).). With more women,
relatives in the workplace than in
enerations of employees who are
dividuals are looking for organiza-
style (Sullivan, Forret, Carraher, &
87 professional workers, however,
-life balance as lacking (Salomon,
ering innovative programs to meet
r organizations are still struggling
ext.
ine how individuals are striving
changing workplace. Chapters 1
g work-nonwork balance, specifi-
ıizational policies. In Chapter 1,
ılore if there is a gap between an
ork policies and its offering of a
es use of such policies. Surveying
h American companies that were
angements, they found organiza-
-nonwork policies were no more
ements than firms offering fewer
the importance of organizations
plementation of policies to help

van, and Baugh draw from social
terature to examine how employ-
s discretionary (i.e., not legally
heir work-related attitudes and
he relationship between profes-
s of discretionary benefits which
ted benefits, (b) career-related
ınd the three attitudes of job sat-
quality of work life using survey

data from 156 workers. The surprising results of Purohit et. al.'s study offer a number of avenues for future research in this understudied area.

Chapters 3 and 4 examine balance from a microperspective, focusing on generational differences in balance as well as how individuals' reactions to work-nonwork conflicts influence career outcomes. In Chapter 3, Stawiski, Gentry, and Baranik study balance using the lens of generational differences. Using assessment data collected from 664 managers who attended a Center for Creative Leadership development course, they explore the relationship between work-life balance and promotability for members of the Baby Boom generation and Gen X. Stawiski et al. found that a manager's self-rating of work-nonwork balance was positively related to their boss's rating of their promotability, regardless of which generation the manager or boss belonged.

In Chapter 4, Boyd, Keeney, Sinha, and Ryan discuss their qualitative analysis of how 1,359 university alumni's reactions to work-life conflict events shaped their career choices, including entry, participation, and attrition decisions. Their approach offers a different lens to examine work-life conflict for two reasons. First, instead of relying on global assessments of work-life conflict, they studied reactions to specific conflicts, which occur on a daily basis. Second, they examined conflicts across multiple domains, including education, health, leisure, friendships, romantic relationships, family, household management, and community involvement. Scholars researching balance should consider Boyd et al.'s methodology when designing their own studies.

Chapters 5 and 6 provide two perspectives on where scholars should focus their future research efforts in studying work-nonwork balance. In Chapter 5, van Emmerik, Bakker, Westman, and Peeters provide a conceptual examination of the processes that affect work-family conflict, family-work conflict, and the overall resulting work-nonwork balance or imbalance. They focus specifically on two transmission processes: (a) spillover, defined as an event in either an individual's work or the home domain has consequences for the other domain, and (b) crossover, defined as the bidirectional transmissions of positive and negative affect between intimately connected persons (e.g., significant others, family members, important work associates).

In Chapter 6, Bataille reviews the work-family literature, a task made more difficult by the wide range of conceptualizations, measures, and approaches used to study balance. Based upon her extensive review of the literature, she offers a multidimensional definition of work-family balance and develops a framework, which recognizes the dominant dimensions of work-family balance. Bataille's and van Emmerik et al.'s chapters provide scholars with fresh and compelling insights into the study of work-nonwork balance.

In sum, the chapters in this volume provide an in-depth examination of what balance is, how balance impacts individual career decisions, attitudes and outcomes, and what organizations should do to more effectively help their employees achieve balance. We thank each of the authors for contributing his or her interesting scholarship to this volume.

In addition to thanking the authors, we would like to recognize a number of other individuals who contributed to making this volume possible. First, we thank our anonymous reviewers who offered meaningful, developmental feedback that the authors used to further enhance their research. Each chapter was blind-reviewed by at least two independent reviewers.

Second, we express great appreciation and thanks to our publisher George Johnson. He recognized the value of research on the changing nature of careers and provided tremendous support, understanding, and guidance to us throughout the publishing process for volume three.

Third, we thank you, our readers. We hope this volume increases your understanding of careers and provides you with ideas to fuel your own research and enhance your own search for balance.

REFERENCES

Allen, E. I, & Seaman, J. 2013. Changing course: Ten years of tracking online education in the United States. Retrieved from http://www.onlinelearningsurvey.com/reports/changingcourse

Al Ariss, A. (2014). *Global talent management: Challenges, strategies, and opportunities*. New York, NY: Springer Science & Business.

Blenkinsopp, B., Scurry, T., & Hay, A. (2015). Exploring issues of underemployment and authenticity in early career. In S. G. Baugh & S. E. Sullivan (Eds.), *Searching for authenticity* (pp. 43–65). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Carraher, S. M., & Welsh, D. H. (2015). *Global entrepreneurship*. New York, NY: Kendall Hunt.

Carman, K. G., & Pollard, M. (2015). The great American working vacation. Retrieved from http://www.newsweek.com/great-american-working-vacation-300463

de Janasz, S. C., & Kenworthy. A. L. (2015). Toward authenticity or defeat: The Jolting effect 0f layoff. In S. G. Baugh & S. E. Sullivan (Eds.), *Searching for authenticity* (pp. 67–88), Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Dickmann, M., & Baruch, Y. (2011). *Global careers*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Hall, D. T., & Mao, J. (2015). Exploring authenticity in careers: Implications for research and practice. In S. G. Baugh & S. E. Sullivan (Eds.), *Searching for authenticity* (pp. 1–23). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Leroy, H., Verbruggen, M., Forrier, A., & Sels, L. (2015). Career authenticity: On being true to oneself at work. In S. G. Baugh & S.E. Sullivan (Eds.), *Searching for authenticity* (pp. 25–41). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Liu, Y., Perrewé, P. L., & Magnusen, M. (2015). Selling your soul to the devil: Political behavior, the pursuit (or discard) of authenticity, and career success.

In S. G. Baugh & S.E. Sullivan (Eds.), *Searching for authenticity* (pp. 25–41). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Murphy, W. M., & Volpe, E. H. (2015). Enacting authentic careers: An toward authenticity or defeat: The jolting effect of layoff. In S. G. Baugh & S. E. Sullivan (Eds.), *Searching for authenticity* (pp. 89–109). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Reis, C., & Baruch, Y. (2013). *Careers without borders: Critical perspectives*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Salomon, S. (2015). Employers, employees don't agree on work-life balance. Retrieved from http://www.boston.com/jobs/news/2015/02/04/study-employers-employees-don-agree-work-life-balance/OqUBVdR1K4V7YYqP2T174O/story.html

Sullivan, S. E., & Baruch, Y. (2009). Advances in career theory and research: A critical review and agenda for future exploration. *Journal of Management, 35*, 1542–1571.

Sullivan, S. E., Forret, M. L., Carraher, S. M., & Mainiero, L. A. (2009). Using the kaleidoscope career model to examine generational differences in work attitudes. *Career Development International, 14*, 284–302.

CHAPTER 1

BEYOND POLICY ADOPTION

Factors Influencing Organizational Support for Reduced-Load Work Arrangements

Alyssa Friede Westring, Ellen Ernst Kossek, Shaun Pichler, and Ann Marie Ryan

Work-life policies (e.g., flextime, telework, reduced-load work) have become a commonplace feature in the portfolio of human resource (HR) offerings in the majority of organizations today (Matos & Galinsky, 2012). For instance, according to the 2012 National Study of Employers, 77% of U.S. companies allowed flextime options and 63% offered telework options for at least some of their employees (Matos & Galinsky, 2012). Several strategic reasons for the adoption of such policies have been noted, including compliance with legal regulations, enhanced employee commitment, ability to attract as well as retain a diverse workforce, being seen as an employer of choice, and fostering employee well-being (Kossek & Friede, 2006).

Despite the proliferation of these policies and their intended benefits, there is mounting evidence that having these policies on the books may not be sufficient to fully address employee and organizational needs. The organizational context in which these policies are offered may inhibit or enhance their effectiveness (Allen, 2001; Eaton, 2003; Ryan & Kossek,

Striving for Balance, pp. 1–23

2008; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to examine the relative and interactive effects of factors that may influence the supportiveness of an organizational context for implementing a work-life policy.

To explore this issue, we focus on a particular work-life policy: the reduced-load work arrangement (RLWA), which is important for advancing understanding of contextual influences on policy implementation (Kossek, Ollier-Malaterre, Lee, Pichler, & Hall, in press).

RLWAs are defined as a reduction in work load for a commensurate decrease in salary (Lee, MacDermid, Williams, Buck, & Leiba-O'Sullivan, 2002). In a sample of early-adopting organizations that all offer some form of RLWA, we investigate organizational support for policy usage. Thus, our sample can be viewed as employers who were trying to be innovative and rapidly respond to the changing labor market when the need to attract and retain women was becoming a major corporate issue in the past 10 to 15 years. We explore other features of the organizational environment that enhance or impede organizational support for use of RLWAs. The remainder of the chapter is organized as follows. First, we describe RLWAs in greater detail and discuss evidence regarding the effectiveness of RLWAs in meeting employee and organizational goals. In particular, we highlight several facets of organizational support for RLWAs. We then describe factors that are expected to influence organizational support for RLWAs. To support our arguments, we present an empirical study of 46 organizations that offer RLWAs and present our findings regarding those factors that contribute to support for RLWAs.

Reduced-Load Work Arrangements

Following Lee et al. (2002), we employ the term *reduced-load* to highlight the fact that not only are work hours reduced in this policy, but so are the total responsibilities assigned to that employee. However, terms such as *part-time* and *reduced-time* may also refer to instances when employees work less than full-time. RLWAs have been used by employees at all organizational levels, including senior managers and high-level professionals (Lee et al., 2002). RLWAs may be negotiated on a short-term or long-term basis and users are often able to maintain full benefits for the duration of their arrangement. According to the 2012 National Study of Employers, 41% of companies allow at least some employees to "move from full-time to part-time work and back again while remaining in the same position or level" (Matos & Galinsky, 2012, p. 14). Organizations vary in their approach to offering RLWAs. Some organizations reluctantly allow RLWAs under special circumstances to retain exceptional employees (i.e., an accommodation

1999). Therefore, the purpose of
nd interactive effects of factors that
ı organizational context for imple-

a particular work-life policy: the
), which is important for advancing
ɔn policy implementation (Kossek,
ı press).
n work load for a commensurate
lliams, Buck, & Leiba-O'Sullivan,
ınizations that all offer some form
support for policy usage. Thus,
s who were trying to be innova-
g labor market when the need to
major corporate issue in the past
:s of the organizational environ-
ional support for use of RLWAs.
:ed as follows. First, we describe
ence regarding the effectiveness
anizational goals. In particular,
ıal support for RLWAs. We then
ence organizational support for
resent an empirical study of 46
nt our findings regarding those
As.

e term *reduced-load* to highlight
ed in this policy, but so are the
oyee. However, terms such as
ıstances when employees work
by employees at all organiza-
l high-level professionals (Lee
short-term or long-term basis
ıefits for the duration of their
al Study of Employers, 41% of
"move from full-time to part-
n the same position or level"
ɔns vary in their approach to
:ly allow RLWAs under special
ees (i.e., an accommodation

culture), whereas others embrace it as a new and valuable way of working (i.e., a transformation culture; Lee, MacDermid, & Buck, 2000).

RLWAs are unique from many other work-life policies because they actually change the amount of work completed, which is a critical form of preventing work-family conflict for professionals who often face rising workloads, work intensification, and overwork as their key challenges (Kossek, Valcour, & Lirio, 2014). This type of policy is distinct from other policies that only change when and where work is completed (e.g., telework, flextime), but maintain the same level of workload (Kossek et al., in press). As such, RLWAs are a particularly interesting policy to explore because they challenge the professional career cultures and talent management systems that are based on the hegemony of habitually placing career over personal life, where long hours are needed to advance the corporate ladder (Wharton & Blair-Loy, 2002). In essence, RLWAs are a key strategy for promoting a sustainable workforce as they allow employees to pursue career success while sustaining personal and family well-being (Hall, Lee, Kossek, & Las Heras, 2012).

Although it may seem counterintuitive for organizations to support RLWAs in times of global economic distress and increasing competition, such policies may help organizations recruit and retain top talent. In particular, the retention of older workers and high talent women professionals (who might otherwise leave the workforce) may be enhanced through RLWAs (Kossek & Lee, 2008). RLWAs also can be an effective way to manage labor costs, use staff effectively, and motivate workers who want not only to have a career, but also to devote time to other life interests from family life to volunteering to being involved in the community or church (Hall, Kossek, Briscoe, Pichler, & Lee, 2013). Overall, additional research is warranted to improve our understanding of this relatively underutilized career management practice.

Effectiveness

Research to empirically determine the effectiveness of work-life policies suffers from several shortcomings that make drawing conclusions about their effectiveness elusive (Kelly et al., 2008). For example, outcomes that scholars can use to define *effectiveness* can range from organizational-level return on investment (ROI) to individual-level work-family conflict or job satisfaction. Further, some studies explore the impact of policy availability, whereas others focus on policy usage (Kossek, 2005). Overall, research on the effectiveness of work-life policies is quite limited and, in the cases where evidence exists, the results are mixed (Ryan & Kossek, 2008).

With regard to RLWAs, more specifically, our ability to draw conclusions regarding the effectiveness of these policies is thwarted by the same limitations described above: varied definitions of effectiveness and variance in whether policy availability or use is the target of study. Further, researchers often study work-life policies in "bundles," thus making it difficult to extract the unique effects of RLWAs (Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000).

Evidence is growing that employees utilizing RLWAs are at least as effective as their full-load counterparts, particularly when managers and employees both benefit from the arrangement. For example, Kossek and colleagues (in press) have found that managers think employers benefit from RLWAs when used as a talent management tool with high performers, in conducive jobs and with employees who are flexible on using this form of flexibility—that is, willing to give and take with the organization to ensure work gets done. Several other longitudinal studies of reduced-load employees found that the majority experienced both personal and professional success as a result of their RLWA (Lee et al., 2006; Hall et al., 2013). The 2006 study showed that over one third of reduced-load participants had been promoted while working a reduced-load and another third of the sample was expected by the supervisor to be promoted within the year. Further, over 90% of the sample reported a positive impact of the RLWA on their children, felt more satisfied with their balance between work and life, and were happier (Lee et al. 2006). However, in a meta-analysis comparing full-time and part-time workers, Thorsteinson (2003) found no significant differences between these groups in terms of their job satisfaction, organizational commitment. or intention to turn over. This lack of differences was true for both professional and nonprofessional employees (Thorsteinson, 2003).

Supportive Context for RLWAs

Despite these limited and mixed findings regarding the impact of work-life policies, there is ample evidence that they are more likely to be effective when implemented within a supportive organizational context (Allen, 2001; Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002; Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hansen, 2009; Kossek, Lewis, & Hammer, 2010; Ryan & Kossek, 2008; Thompson et al., 1999). In other words, when work-life policies are only offered to present a "family friendly" image of the organization, but are not offered in a context of support, they are less likely to be effective (Blair-Loy & Wharton; 2002; Konrad & Linnehan, 1995). Effective implementation of RLWAs requires deep integration into the strategic and social fabric of organizational life.

ally, our ability to draw conclusions
cies is thwarted by the same limita-
ıs of effectiveness and variance in
target of study. Further, research-
ndles," thus making it difficult to
ry-Smith & Blum, 2000).
s utilizing RLWAs are at least as
particularly when managers and
gement. For example, Kossek and
anagers think employers benefit
agement tool with high perform-
es who are flexible on using this
e and take with the organization
longitudinal studies of reduced-
experienced both personal and
WA (Lee et al., 2006; Hall et al.,
one third of reduced-load par-
ng a reduced-load and another
ıpervisor to be promoted within
eported a positive impact of the
with their balance between work
6). However, in a meta-analysis
, Thorsteinson (2003) found no
os in terms of their job satisfac-
ıtion to turn over. This lack of
ınd nonprofessional employees

ngs regarding the impact of
hat they are more likely to be
ortive organizational context
)02; Hammer, Kossek, Yragui,
ammer, 2010; Ryan & Kossek,
ls, when work-life policies are
nage of the organization, but
are less likely to be effective
ehan, 1995). Effective imple-
n into the strategic and social

Scholars have identified several factors that constitute a supportive context for the implementation of work-life policies (Allen, 2001; Kossek et al., 2010; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011. First and foremost, a supportive organizational environment is inclusive and fair in its communication of work-life policies, access to policies, and negotiation of policies (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Additionally, when organizations support the use of work-life policies, employees will not fear a career backlash for utilizing such policies (Eaton, 2003). In other words, when organizations support their work-life policies, employees can experience career development and promotion while utilizing them (Anderson et al., 2002; Eaton, 2003; Ryan & Kossek, 2008; Thompson et al., 1999). Further, in a supportive context, leadership, human resource managers, and supervisors are all informed and aligned to support the use of work-life policies in the ways described above (Anderson et al., 2002; Hammer et al., 2009; Kossek et al., 2011; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999).

With regard to RLWAs, there is reason to expect that those factors that constitute a supportive context for work-life policies in general are important for the success of RLWAs. Note that Friede, Kossek, Lee, and MacDermid (2008) analyzed the HR manager perspective on the factors that are critical for the success of RLWAs. The HR managers in the Friede et al. study cited the importance of several of the factors described above, including organizational communication, support from top leadership, and fairness in the negotiation and evaluation of the arrangement (Friede et al., 2008). Lirio, Lee, Williams, Haugen, and Kossek (2008) analyzed the managerial perspective on the factors impacting the success of RLWAs (using data from the same larger study as Friede et al. (2008). Their results highlight the importance of managers in the creation and maintenance of an inclusive and supportive organizational context for reduced-load workers. In some cases, managers played the role of "defending" employees against a broader, unsupportive organizational environment. A more recent study on RLWAs, Kossek and colleagues (in press) found that RLWAs were seen as more effective when the organizational context included strategic support from senior managers, low career penalties for utilizing arrangements, adaptive HR structures and systems to support policy usage, and relatively few organizational silos for access.

In sum, research does suggest that the effectiveness of work-life policies and of RLWA, specifically, is affected by the supportiveness of the organizational context. If organizations implement a work-life policy such as RLWA, they certainly would do so with the goal of having it as an effective practice. Thus, one may wonder why they might not have a supportive organizational environment for policy implementation. In the next section, we discuss what influences whether the organizational context is supportive.

Predictors of a Supportive Context for RLWAs

One of the main purposes of this chapter is to identify aspects of the organization that influence whether employers provide a supportive context for the implementation of RLWAs. Below, we discuss two critical organizational factors that are expected to influence the degree of support for RLWAs: organizational commitment to human resource management (HRM), in general, and organizational commitment to work-life management (WLM), more specifically. These macro HR factors have had relatively limited empirical investigation, despite their obvious importance for implementation of new ways of working.

Organizational Commitment to HRM

When organizations view their employees as a rare and valuable source of competitive advantage, they are more likely to be committed to the adoption of human resource management (HRM) practices that treat them as such (Becker & Gerhart, 1996). These high performance work practices include performance-based pay, team-based work design, training, and employee participation (Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Combs, Liu, Hall, & Ketchen, 2006; Huselid, Jackson, & Schuler, 1997). Such practices have been shown to have a positive impact on overall organizational performance, particularly when bundled together (Combs et al., 2006; Subramony, 2009). It is important to note that we define commitment to HRM as a strategically embedded commitment to the implementation of impactful human resource practices, as opposed to simply having the policies on the books for appearance or legal reasons.

Less is known about the relationship between an organization's commitment to HRM and its approach to work-life policies (Batt & Valcour, 2003). A study by Berg, Kalleberg, and Appelbaum (2003) found that a commitment to HRM increased perceptions of work-family support among a pooled sample of workers in the steel, apparel, and medical electronics industries. Using national survey data collected in Britain, White, Hill, McGovern, Mills, and Smeaton (2003) found decreased negative work-family spillover in organizations committed to HRM. In a sample of white-collar, dual-earner couples, Batt and Valcour (2003) found that autonomy in decision making (a "high performance" HRM practice) was significantly related to perceptions of work-family support. Given the strategic perspective underlying "high performance" HRM practices, we expect that organizations that place a high value on their employees would be more likely to provide a supportive environment for the use of RLWAs. Therefore, we propose that:

Hypothesis 1. Organizations that are more committed to human resource management will provide a more supportive context for reduced-load work arrangements.

Organizational Commitment to Work-Life Management

While most organizations claim a commitment to employee work-life balance, not all organizations are deeply committed to supporting the work-life needs of employees. Some organizations may simply have the policies on the books to provide an image of family friendliness, but there is no deeper strategic integration of work-life issues into the vision or culture of the organization. Therefore, we define organizational commitment to work-life management (WLM) as the extent to which the organization has a deep cultural and strategic commitment to meeting employee work-life needs. Similar to the previously discussed definition of commitment to HRM, this construct is differentiated from an organizational approach to WLM that offers work-life policies is name only, but is not fully committed to their implementation. Implicit in our definition is the assumption that supporting employee work-life needs will benefit multiple constituencies, such as different employee groups as well as the organization (Kossek et al., in press; Kossek, 1989; Tsui & Milkovitch, 1987). In organizations with a high commitment to WLM, work-life policies are treated as an important component of talent management and as a way to show that management places a high value on its workforce (cf. Lobel & Kossek, 1996; Kossek et al., 2010). We expect that such organizations will provide a more supportive context for the RLWAs that they offer.

Hypothesis 2: Organizations that are more committed to work-life management will provide more supportive contexts for reduced-load work arrangements.

Relationship Between Factors Influencing Support for RLWAs

Although we expect that when organizations are committed to HRM and, more specifically, to work-life management, they will offer a more supportive context for RLWAs, it is unclear whether commitment to HRM versus work-life management will differentially or interactively contribute to the creation of a supportive context for RLWAs. For example, a commitment to HRM may be more important for organizations without a strong record of commitment to work-life initiatives and practices in order to successfully

implement any work-life policy. Alternatively, it is possible that a high commitment to WLM may be sufficient to create a supportive context for RLWAs, even in instances when the organization does not show a broader commitment to high performance HRM.

To investigate this issue in greater depth, we therefore propose the following two exploratory research questions.

Research Question 1: What is the relative impact of commitment to HRM and commitment to WLM on the extent to which organizations provide a supportive context for RLWAs?

Research Question 2: Is there an interaction between commitment to HRM and commitment to WLM in the extent to which organizations provide a supportive context for RLWAs?

METHOD

Procedure

Target organizations were identified by their representation in at least one of the following categories: previous participation in an Alfred P. Sloan Foundation Study on reduced-load work, recognition in the "2004 Working Mother" list, commendation by the National Association for Female Executives (NAFE), membership in the Boston College Work Family Roundtable, representation on the Michigan State University School of Labor & Industrial Relations Human Resources Advisory Board, or membership in the College and University and Work and Family Association group. A total of 108 organizations were contacted for participation in the study among which 56 (52%) attempted the survey. Some firms were not included in the final analyses if more than a third of their data were missing. All organizations with missing data were contacted several times by phone and e-mail to complete the survey. All participants were assured that the answers they provided would not be directly linked back to themselves or their organization.

Within each target organization, we identified a high-level HRM to participate in our survey. HR managers were recruited by e-mail, phone, or post, often using multiple methods. We targeted upper-level HR managers for the survey, because they were expected to be more knowledgeable about their organization's approach to WLM. They were invited to participate in a web-based survey about their organization's employees, HRM practices, and work-life policies. The survey was administered via a secure web site. Survey instructions indicated that they should provide "an overall

natively, it is possible that a high to create a supportive context for anization does not show a broader f.

pth, we therefore propose the fol-ns.

tive impact of commitment to the extent to which organiza-RLWAs?

ction between commitment to extent to which organizations As?

) their representation in at least is participation in an Alfred P. work, recognition in the "2004 y the National Association for in the Boston College Work Michigan State University School Resources Advisory Board, or nd Work and Family Association ntacted for participation in the ie survey. Some firms were not third of their data were missing. ntacted several times by phone ticipants were assured that the y linked back to themselves or

ified a high-level HRM to par-ecruited by e-mail, phone, or eted upper-level HR managers be more knowledgeable about ey were invited to participate tion's employees, HRM prac-administered via a secure web y should provide "an overall

perspective of your company regarding how reduced-load (working less than full-time and accordingly being paid less), and other related work-life policies are evolving and fit into your business and human resource environment."

Sample

The final sample of organizations for this study consisted of 46 organizations from multiple sectors of the economy. About half (48%) of the organizations in our sample were professional service firms, but organizations from high-technology manufacturing (15%), consumer goods (13%), and durable manufacturing (13%), as well as government and nonprofits (11%) were also represented. Organizations ranged in size from between 500-2,000 employees to more than 50,000 employees.

For each company, we contacted the individual who directly oversaw the work-life programs and practices or supervised these individuals and asked them to complete the survey. One HR manager from each company completed the survey. The vast majority of the respondents (75%) were at the HR manager level or higher. Approximately 40% of the respondents were managers, 22% were directors, 7% were vice presidents, and 7% were senior vice presidents or higher.

Measures

Supportive context for RLWAs. In order to measure supportive practices related to RLWAs, we created a scale that contained items representing the facets of organizational support described above (e.g., access to training and development, pay and promotion opportunities). The items for this scale are shown in the Appendix. Participants indicated the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements using a scale from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). An exploratory factor analysis using principal axis factoring was conducted to determine the latent factor structure of the items. An examination of the scree plot (Cattell, 1966) and the factor loadings indicated that a single factor best described the underlying covariance structure. After removing one poorly performing item, this factor explained 40% of the variance in the data. Factor loadings ranged from .417 to .816. The estimated reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .83$.

Organizational commitment to HRM. We used an adapted form of the Huselid et al. (1997) scale to measure commitment to HRM. Respondents indicated the extent to which each of seven items described their organization using a scale from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). All seven

items reflect practices designed to enhance HRM. Higher scores indicate a greater organizational commitment to HRM. The reliability estimate for the current study is $\alpha = .81$.

Organizational commitment to WLM. To assess the extent to which the organization was committed to WLM, we developed a measure of the extent to which organizations integrated work-life practices and values into their overall vision and strategy based on our review of the literature described above (see Appendix). These items were measured on a five-point scale from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). An exploratory factor analysis using principal axis factoring was conducted to determine the dimensionality of these four items. Only the first factor had an eigenvalue above 1.0; this factor explained 59% of the variance in the data. Factor loadings ranged from .641 to .824. The estimated reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .84$.

Control variables. In light of prior research, we controlled for both organizational size and sector. Because organizational size has consistently been found to predict the adoption of innovative human resource management programs (Kochan, McKersie, & Chalykoff, 1986; Osterman, 1994) as well as the adoption of work-family programs (Goodstein, 1994; Konrad & Mangel, 2000; Milliken, Martins, & Morgan, 1998), we controlled for the potential confounding effects of size. *Organizational size* was measured by asking respondents how many full-time employees worked for their organization, using a 5-point scale ranging from under 200–500 to greater than 50,000.

Because industry has been found to predict the extent of workplace innovation in organizations (Kochan et al., 1986), and has also been related to extent of work-family benefit adoption (Milliken et al., 1997; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000), we also controlled for *industry* effects by dummy coding organizations as either manufacturing (coded as 1) or nonmanufacturing (coded as 0).

An additional control variable was the total number of work-life policies offered by the organization. Because we were interested in strategic and cultural factors that impact support for RLWAs, we decided to control for the total number of policies on the books of the organization. The policies that were included in the measure were as follows: job-sharing, flextime, flexplace, modified/compressed work week, company-sponsored dependent care (on or near site), dependent care referral services, paid personal or family care leave, maternity leave, paternity leave, lactation program, company-sponsored health and wellness program (on or near site), health and wellness referral services, continuing education, phased retirement, and adoption aid. RLWAs were not included in this index because all organizations in the sample offered this policy. This index is

ıhance HRM. Higher scores indicate
to HRM. The reliability estimate for

VLM. To assess the extent to which
'LM, we developed a measure of the
ated work-life practices and values
ɔased on our review of the literature
ese items were measured on a five-
to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). An exploratory
:toring was conducted to determine
. Only the first factor had an eigen-
d 59% of the variance in the data.
24. The estimated reliability for this

r research, we controlled for both
organizational size has consistently
nnovative human resource manage-
Chalykoff, 1986; Osterman, 1994)
rograms (Goodstein, 1994; Konrad
Morgan, 1998), we controlled for
:e. *Organizational size* was measured
-time employees worked for their
ing from under 200–500 to greater

ɔ predict the extent of workplace
l., 1986), and has also been related
:ion (Milliken et al., 1997; Perry-
led for *industry* effects by dummy
:turing (coded as 1) or nonmanu-

total number of work-life policies
e were interested in strategic and
r RLWAs, we decided to control
books of the organization. The
ure were as follows: job-sharing,
l work week, company-sponsored
ıdent care referral services, paid
leave, paternity leave, lactation
d wellness program (on or near
:s, continuing education, phased
were not included in this index
offered this policy. This index is

similar to the indices used by Konrad and Mangel (2000) and Osterman (1995). The work-life policies index (WLPI) was created by summing yes/no responses for each program. The reliability estimate for this index was α = .73, which is consistent with the alpha estimate of Osterman's index, which was .75.

Analyses

Hypotheses were tested using hierarchical and moderated multiple regression. Hierarchical regression was used to explore the impact of commitment to HRM and WLM above and beyond the control variables. To facilitate understanding of the unique implications of these two variables, two hierarchical regressions were conducted in which the order of their entry into the regression was reversed. To investigate the interaction between commitment to HRM and WLM, we conducted a third hierarchical regression in which the two types of commitment were entered in Step 2 and the cross-product of the two variables was entered in Step 3. The interaction term was calculated as the cross-product of mean-centered variables (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Significant interactions are interpreted according to procedures described by Cohen and Cohen (1983).

RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations of all variables are reported in Table 1.1. The zero-order correlation between commitment to HRM and commitment to WLM, while positive and significant, clearly indicates that separate constructs were being assessed (r = .37, $p < .05$). Relationships at the bivariate level indicate that the control variables had nonsignificant effects on the outcome variables. At the bivariate level, both commitment to HRM and commitment to WLM were significantly related to the supportive context for RLWAs ($p < .01$ for both). These results provide initial support for Hypotheses 1 and 2. Multiple regressions were used to further explore Hypotheses 1 and 2. As can be seen in Table 1.2 (Step 2), commitment to HRM explains an additional 16.5% of the variance ($p < .01$) in the supportive context for RLWAs above and beyond the effects of the control variables. This finding provides further evidence in support of Hypothesis 1. Similarly, in Table 1.3 (Step 2), commitment to WLM explains an additional 23.8% of the variance ($p < .01$) in supportive context for RLWAs above and beyond the control variables. These findings support Hypothesis 2.

Table 1.1. Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations for all Study Variables

	Variable	*Potential Range*	*Mean*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
1.	Industry	0,1	.48	.51	–					
2.	# of Employees	1–5	4.00	.93	.12	–				
3.	# of Work-Life Policies	0–15	11.82	2.63	.05	.27	(.75)			
4.	Commit. to HRM	1–5	4.21	.46	.09	.00	.10	(.81)		
5.	Commit. to WLM	1–5	3.70	.78	–.14	–.23	.29	.37*	(.84)	
6.	Support for RLWAs	1–5	3.34	.59	–.11	–.01	.01	.41**	.43**	(.83)

Notes. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$. Scale reliabilities in parentheses; SD = standard deviation; Commit. to HRM = Commitment to Human Resource Management; Commit. to WLM = Commitment to Work-Life Management; RLWA = Reduced-Load Work Arrangement. For industry, 0 = nonmanufacturing, 1 = manufacturing.

To investigate the incremental and interactive influence of the two types of commitment (for HRM and WLM), we conducted additional analyses. To address Research Question 1, we included a third step in our hierarchical regressions (Tables 1.2 and 1.3). As can be seen in Step 3 of Table 1.2, commitment to WLM explains an incremental 14.6% of variance in the supportive context for RLWAs (above and beyond commitment to HRM; $p < .01$). In Table 1.3 (Step 3), we can see that commitment to HRM does not explain a significant amount of incremental variance above and beyond commitment to WLM.

In the analysis of Research Question 2, we explore the interactive effects of these two types of commitment. In Table 1.4 (Step 3), we add the interaction term of these two variables above and beyond their main effects. The interaction between commitment to HRM and WLM is significant in the prediction of a supportive context for RLWAs. The addition of the interaction term explains an additional 11.2% of the variance in this outcome ($p < .01$). Figure 1.1 displays the plot of the interaction term. Figure 1.1 indicates that when commitment to WLM is high, level of commitment to HRM does not impact the supportive context for RLWAs. It is only when commitment to WLM is low that the regression slope is noticeably positive. These findings indicate that a high commitment to HRM, in general, can essentially overcome a lower commitment to WLM in creating a supportive context for RLWAs. The least supportive context, not surprisingly, occurs when the organization has low commitment to both HRM and WLM.

l Deviations and Intercorrelations udy Variables

1	2	3	4	5	6
–					
.12	–				
.05	.27	(.75)			
.09	.00	.10	(.81)		
−.14	−.23	.29	.37*	(.84)	
−.11	−.01	.01	.41**	.43**	(.83)

ties in parentheses; SD = standard deviation; ıan Resource Management; Commit. to WLM RLWA = Reduced-Load Work Arrangement. For cturing.

interactive influence of the two types), we conducted additional analyses. ıcluded a third step in our hierarchi- ıs can be seen in Step 3 of Table 1.2, cremental 14.6% of variance in the and beyond commitment to HRM; see that commitment to HRM does cemental variance above and beyond

2, we explore the interactive effects ıble 1.4 (Step 3), we add the interac- and beyond their main effects. The RM and WLM is significant in the RLWAs. The addition of the inter- 2% of the variance in this outcome of the interaction term. Figure 1.1 M is high, level of commitment to ontext for RLWAs. It is only when cession slope is noticeably positive. mitment to HRM, in general, can ıt to WLM in creating a supportive context, not surprisingly, occurs ent to both HRM and WLM.

Table 1.2. Incremental Impact of Commitment to Work-Life Management in Predicting Supportive Context for Reduced-Load Work Arrangements

	STEP 1		*STEP 2*		*STEP 3*	
Variable	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
(Constant)	3.411**	.565	1.370	.907	.935	.848
Industry	−.123	.188	−.168	.174	−.125	.161
# of Employees	.005	.109	.023	.101	.089	.096
# of Work-Life Policies	−.002	.039	−.018	.036	−.057	.036
Commitment to HRM			.522**	.189	.365v	.183
Commitment to WLM					.347**	.123
F	.143		2.021		3.509*	
Adjusted R^2	−.065		.089		.230	
ΔR^2	.011		.165**		.146**	
F for ΔR^2	.143		7.583**		7.977**	

Notes. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. HRM = Human Resource Management. WLM = Work-Life Management.

Table 1.3. Incremental Impact of Commitment to Human Resource Management in Predicting Supportive Context for Reduced-Load Work Arrangements

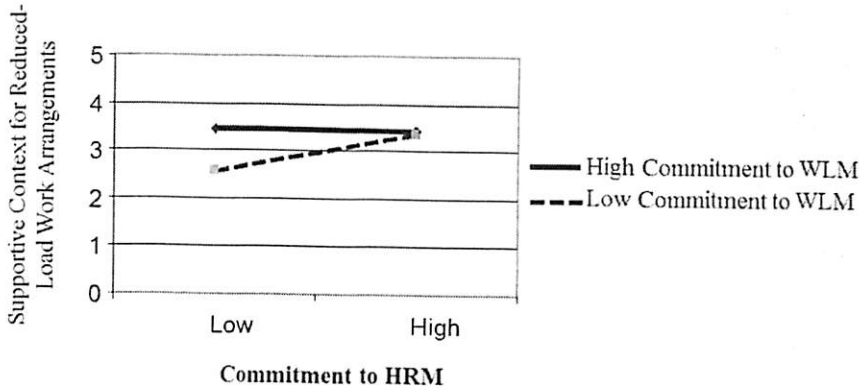
	STEP 1		*STEP 2*		*STEP 3*	
Variable	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
(Constant)	3.411**	.565	2.136**	.620	.935	.848
Industry	−.123	.188	−.087	.166	−.125	.161
# of Employees	.092	.099	.092	.099	.089	.096
# of Work-Life Policies	−.002	.039	−.055	.038	−.057	.036
Commitment to WLM			.421**	.121	.347**	.123
Commitment to HRM					.365	.183
F	1.43		3.144*		3.509*	
Adjusted R^2	−.065		.170		.230	
ΔR^2	.011		.238**		.073	
F for ΔR^2	.143		12.027**		3.981	

Notes. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. HRM = Human Resource Management. WLM = Work-Life Management.

Table 1.4. Interaction between Commitment to Human Resource and Work-Life Management in Predicting Supportive Context for Reduced-Load Work Arrangements

	STEP 1		*STEP 2*		*STEP 3*	
Variable	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*
(Constant)	3.411**	.565	.935	.848	–.8029*	3.441
Industry	–.123	.188	–.125	.161	–.189	.151
# of Employees	.005	.109	.089	.096	.062	.089
# of Work-Life Policies	–.002	.039	–.057	.036	–.043	.034
Commitment to WLM			.347**	.123	2.784**	.918
Commitment to HRM			.365	.183	2.469**	.805
WLM x HRM					–.569*	.213
F	.143		3.509*		4.604**	
Adjusted R^2	–.605		.230		.340	
ΔR^2	.011		.311**		.112**	
F for ΔR^2	.143		8.476**		7.157**	

Notes. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. HRM = Human Resource Management. WLM = Work-Life Management. WLM x HRM = Interaction between commitment to WLM and commitment to HRM.



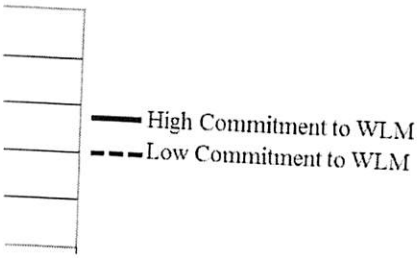
Notes. WLM = Work-Life Management. HRM = Human Resource Management

Figure 1.1. Interaction between Commitment to HRM and WLM in Supportive Context for Reduced-Load Work Arrangements.

ın Commitment to Human Resource ı Predicting Supportive Context for Work Arrangements

	STEP 2		STEP 3
B	SE	B	SE
.935	.848	−.8029*	3.441
−.125	.161	−.189	.151
.089	.096	.062	.089
−.057	.036	−.043	.034
.347**	.123	2.784**	.918
.365	.183	2.469**	.805
		−.569*	.213
3.509*		4.604**	
.230		.340	
.311**		.112**	
8.476**		7.157**	

ıan Resource Management. WLM = Work- raction between commitment to WLM and



ıh

uman Resource Management

nent to HRM and WLM in Supportive ients.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this chapter was to examine the macro HR factors of commitment to human resource management and work-life strategy that impact the supportiveness of an organizational context for implementing a specific work-life policy that challenges work-life norms for professionals. This investigation is important because, while many organizations may offer work life flexibility policies such as RLWAs, organizations vary in the degree to which they support the use of the policy without penalty (Eaton, 2003). Existing research has shown that the context in which such policies are offered has a profound impact on their effectiveness both generally (Kelly et al., 2008) and specifically for RWLAs (Kossek et al., in press). Indeed, in our study, organizations offering a greater number of work-life policies were no more supportive of RLWAs than those that offer fewer such policies. This finding suggests that merely having lots of work-life policies on the books is a necessary but insufficient condition for organizational support of work life. Having policies on the books can be a sign of awareness of the recruitment and public relations value of work-life policies but not does not necessarily suggest that working in alternative and diverse ways have gained acceptance "moving from the margins to the mainstream" of organizational life (Kossek et al., 2010).

We found that the overall organizational approach to HRM does impact the context for RLWAs. When organizations are committed to HRM as a valued organizational strategy, they are more likely to provide support for RLWAs. Perhaps this finding suggests that such firms are more likely to see talent as a resource in which to invest and take a longer term view to retaining and developing people. Those organizations that are dedicated to investing in human capital will be more likely to support their reduced-load workers. When organizations are committed to overall human resource management in their implementation of HR practices, they are building a culture of commitment to supporting human capital that extends to their approach to alternative work arrangements.

We also found that a higher commitment to effectively managing employee work-life needs is related to a greater context of support for RLWAs. Again, our findings reinforce the important concept that offering work-life policies on the books is simply not enough to meet employee needs. When organizations are more deeply committed to work-life issues as part of their vision and strategic approach to managing the organization, they will be more likely to support their reduced-load employees.

We also explored the incremental and interactive impact of commitment to HRM and WLM. We found that being committed to WLM does explain incremental variance in supportive context for RLWAs above and beyond commitment to HRM. However, the reverse of this finding is not true.

Commitment to HRM did not explain incremental variance above commitment to WLM. These differential findings suggest that an organization's approach to work-life issues may be more central to its support for RLWAs than the broader HRM approach is. In our moderation analyses, we found that when commitment to WLM was high, the organization's commitment to HRM was not important in predicting support for RLWAs. However, when commitment to WLM was low, a broader commitment to HRM was valuable in creating a context of support. These findings suggest that a strategic commitment to employees as a key organizational resource is an important factor in supporting RLWAs. Although commitment to work-life issues is important, a broader culture that values employees may be just as impactful when it is absent.

There are some potential limitations to this study that deserve mention. First, the recruiting strategy was targeted at organizations that are known for offering RLWAs. Thus, the findings are constrained to organizations that already offer some degree of work-life support for employees. Within these organizations, we interviewed one manager per organization, who may have a unique perspective on the commitment of the organization to HRM or WLM. The manager may also be biased toward reporting greater levels of support for RLWAs, based on the role within the organization. Common method variance could also potentially inflate correlations between measures (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, our results do not indicate a pattern of extremely high intercorrelations among self-reported variables, relative to the reliability of the scales. This study was also conducted within North America and prior research has demonstrated cross-national differences with regard to work-life issues and the context of support for employees (Kossek & Ollier-Malaterre, 2013; Lyness & Judiesch, 2008). Future research should explore whether our findings generalize to other cultures outside of North America.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Despite these limitations, this research has important implications for both research and practice. For researchers, we want to highlight the importance of treating global organizational support for work-life policies as an important dependent variable in its own right. There have already been calls for researchers to differentiate between policy availability and use (Kossek, Baltes, & Mathews, 2011), but these two outcomes still do not paint the full picture of policy implementation. It is important for scholars to further investigate the organizational factors such as the impact of commitment to HR and work-life policies that constitute a supportive context for the

n incremental variance above com-
ıdings suggest that an organization's
ore central to its support for RLWAs
our moderation analyses, we found
igh, the organization's commitment
ting support for RLWAs. However,
broader commitment to HRM was
ort. These findings suggest that a
a key organizational resource is an
Although commitment to work-life
ıat values employees may be just as

to this study that deserve mention.
ed at organizations that are known
re constrained to organizations that
ıpport for employees. Within these
nager per organization, who may
itment of the organization to HRM
ed toward reporting greater levels
within the organization. Common
inflate correlations between mea-
sakoff, 2003). However, our results
ıigh intercorrelations among self-
ility of the scales. This study was
d prior research has demonstrated
work-life issues and the context
llier-Malaterre, 2013; Lyness &
explore whether our findings gen-
ı America.

SEARCH AND PRACTICE

s important implications for both
want to highlight the importance
or work-life policies as an impor-
There have already been calls for
icy availability and use (Kossek,
outcomes still do not paint the
important for scholars to further
h as the impact of commitment
ıte a supportive context for the

effective implementation of specific work-life practices such as RLWAs and cultures and structures that facilitate the creation of that context.

In the current study, we focus on an organization's commitment to both HRM and WLM as predictors of this supportive context. Our findings highlight the importance of both of these variables and suggest that the underlying vision, values, and culture of an organization may play an important role in influencing the degree of support for work-life policies. We hope that other researchers continue to investigate the underlying strategic and cultural goals and values of organizations as predictors of policy support. Further, we hope that researchers move beyond the main effects of these variables to understand the complex interplay between vision, values, strategy, and culture in impacting support for work-life policies.

It is also important to emphasize that our focus on RLWAs, a unique type of work-life policy, is very important for advancing professionals' careers and well-being, as RLWAs are unique in their reduction in actual workload, as opposed to just a change in the time or place of work completion. Utilization of RLWAs challenges traditional notions of what is considered a "good" or "valuable" worker. Thus, we believe that support for such arrangements may be more closely linked to the values of the organization regarding the fostering of a sustainable work force and the reduction of work-family conflict and promotion of employee well-being than other types of policies (Kossek et al., 2014). We suggest that future research include multiple types of work-life policies and investigate linkages to commitment to human resource management and investment in a work-life strategy. Additionally, a comparative study that explores factors influencing support and implementation for different types of policies across cross-national contexts would be valuable for advancing knowledge of how to address the work-family policy and practice implementation gap.

We believe that the results of this study will also be valuable to human resource managers. By using support for RLWAs as our outcome (in lieu of policy availability), we hope to turn the attention of practitioners to the context in which work-life policies are offered and implemented. In essence, we hope practitioners will understand the importance of supporting reduced-load workers (or employees using other types of work-life policies). HR managers may also play an important role in educating both managers and employees about the importance of support for RLWAs. Overall, support for work-life policies does not begin or end when employees negotiate their policy usage. Instead, all HR systems (e.g., promotion, training, recruiting) must adapt to the needs of employees using alternative work arrangements.

This study also has relevance for organizational leaders, those who play an important role in shaping the vision, values, and culture of their organization. Leaders will benefit from understanding how these "bigger picture"

issues play out in the daily lives of employees. By creating an environment that is committed to HRM and WLM, they may increase the likelihood that employees will be supported when they utilize work-life policies. In order to truly support employee work-life needs, organizational leaders must "walk the talk." Although many organizations pay lip service to work-life balance and employees as a valuable resource, not all organizations have such values deeply embedded in the way that they operate. Our results demonstrate the importance of moving beyond such "lip service" to a deeper cultural integration of valuing employees and their work-life needs.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was funded by the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation (Grant Number 2002-6-10) as part of a study lead by Mary Dean Lee of McGill University and Ellen Ernst Kossek of Purdue University. We are also grateful to Carol Schreiber and Connie J. G. Gersick and Tim Hall for help with data collection.

REFERENCES

Allen, T. D. (2001). Family-supportive work environments: The role of organizational perceptions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 58*, 414–435.

Anderson, S. E., Coffey, B. S., & Byerly, R. T. (2002). Formal organizational initiatives and informal workplace practices: Links to work-family conflict and job related outcomes. *Journal of Management, 28*, 787–810.

Batt, R., & Valcour, M. (2003). Human resource practices as predictors of work-family outcomes and employee turnover. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society, 42*, 189–220.

Becker, B., & Gerhart, B. (1996). The impact of human resource management on organizational performance: Progress and prospects. *Academy of Management Journal, 39*, 779–801.

Berg, P., Kalleberg, A. L., & Appelbaum, E. (2003). Balancing work and family: The role of high-commitment environments. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society, 42*, 168–188.

Blair-Loy, M., & Wharton, A. S. (2002). Employees' use of work-family policies and the workplace social context. *Social Forces, 80*, 813–845.

Cattell, R. B. (1966). The screen test for the number of factors. *Multivariate Behavior Research, 1*, 245–276.

Cohen, J., & Cohen, P. (1983). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences.* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

nployees. By creating an environment , they may increase the likelihood that hey utilize work-life policies. In order e needs, organizational leaders must anizations pay lip service to work-life e resource, not all organizations have e way that they operate. Our results ving beyond such "lip service" to a employees and their work-life needs.

EDGMENTS

l P. Sloan Foundation (Grant Number Mary Dean Lee of McGill University iversity. We are also grateful to Carol nd Tim Hall for help with data col-

NCES

rk environments: The role of organiza-
al Behavior, 58, 414–435.
T. (2002). Formal organizational initia-
es: Links to work-family conflict and job
ient, 28, 787–810.
source practices as predictors of work-
nover. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of*

ict of human resource management on
s and prospects. *Academy of Management*

E. (2003). Balancing work and family:
iments. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of*

loyees' use of work-family policies and
rces, 80, 813–845.
number of factors. *Multivariate Behavior*

iple regression/correlation analysis for the
NJ: Erlbaum.
.. S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/*
ces. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Combs, J., Liu, Y., Hall, A., & Ketchen, D. (2006). How much do high-performance work practices matter? A meta-analysis of their effects on organizational performance. *Personnel Psychology, 59,* 501–528.

Eaton, S. (2003). If you can use them: Flexibility policies, organizational commitment and perceived performance. *Industrial Relations, 42,* 145–167.

Friede, A., Kossek, E. E., Lee, M. D., & MacDermid, S. (2008). Human resource manager insights on creating and sustaining successful reduced-load work arrangements. *Human Resource Management, 47,* 707–727.

Goodstein, J. D. (1994). Institutional pressures and strategic responsiveness: Employer involvement in work-family issues. *Academy of Management Journal, 37,* 350–382.

Hall, T., Kossek, E., Briscoe, J., Pichler, S., & Lee, M. (2013). Nonwork relative to career orientations: A multi-dimensional measure. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 83,* 539–550.

Hall, D., Lee, M, Kossek, E., & Las Heras, M. (2012). Pursuing career success while sustaining personal and family well-being: A study of reduced-load professionals over time, *Journal of Social Issues, 68,* 742–766.

Hammer, L., Kossek, E., Yragui, N., Bodner, T., & Hansen, G. (2009). Development and validation of a multi-dimensional scale of family supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB). *Journal of Management, 35,* 837–856.

Huselid, M., Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1997). Technical and strategic human resources management effectiveness as determinants of firm performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 40,* 171–118.

Kelly, E. L., Kossek, E. E., Hammer, L. B., Durham, M., Bray, J., Chermack, K., & Kaskubar, D. (2008). Getting there from here: Research on the effects of work-family initiatives on work-family conflict and business outcomes. *Academy of Management Annals, 2*(1), 305–349.

Kochan, T. A., McKersie, R. B., & Chalykoff, J. (1986). The effects of corporate strategy and workplace innovations on union representation. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 39,* 487–501.

Konrad, A., & Linnehan, F. (1995). Formalized HRM structures: Coordinating equal employment opportunity or concealing organizational practices? *Academy of Management Journal, 38,* 787–820.

Konrad, A. M., & Mangel, R. (2000). The impact of work-life programs on firm productivity. *Strategic Management Journal, 21,* 1225–1237.

Kossek, E. E. (1989). The acceptance of human resources innovation by multiple constituencies. *Personnel Psychology, 42,* 263–281.

Kossek, E. E. (2005). Workplace policies and practices to support work and families. In S. Bianchi, L. Casper, & R. King (Eds.), *Work, family, health, and well-being* (pp. 97–116). Mahway, NJ: Erlbaum Press.

Kossek, E. E., Baltes, B. B., & Matthews, R. A. (2011). How work-family research can finally have an impact in the workplace. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Perspectives on Science and Practice, 4,* 352–369.

Kossek, E. E., & Friede, A. (2006). The business case: Manager perspectives on work and the family. In M. Pitt-Catsouphes, E. E. Kossek, & S. Sweet (Eds.), *The work and family handbook* (pp. 661–626). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Kossek, E. E., & Lee, M. (2008). Implementing a reduced-workload arrangement to retain high talent: A case study. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 23*, 49–64.

Kossek, E. E., Lewis, S., & Hammer, L. (2010). Work-life initiatives andorganizational change: Overcoming mixed messages to move from the margin to the mainstream. *Human Relations, 63*, 3–19.

Kossek, E. E., & Ollier-Malaterre, A. (2013). Work-family policies: Linking national contexts, organizational practice and people for multi-level change. In S. Poelmans, J. Greenhaus, & M. Las Heras (Eds.), *New frontiers in work-family research: A vision for the future in a global world* (pp. 1–53). Basingstoke, England: Palgrave Macmillan.

Kossek, E., Ollier-Malaterre, A., Lee, M. D., Pichler, S., & Hall, D T. (in press). Line managers' rationales regarding reduced-load work of professionals in embracing and ambivalent organizational contexts. *Human Resource Management Journal.*

Kossek, E., Pichler, S., Bodner, T., & Hammer, L. (2011). Workplace social support and work-family conflict: A meta-analysis clarifying the influence of general and work-family specific supervisor and organizational support. *Personnel Psychology, 64*, 289–313.

Kossek, E. E., Valcour, M., & Lirio, P. (2014). The sustainable workforce: Organizational strategies for promoting work-life balance and well-being. In P. Chen & C. Cooper (Eds.), *Work and wellbeing: A complete reference guide* (Vol. III, pp. 295–319). Oxford, England: Wiley-Blackwell.

Lee, M. D., Lirio, P., Karakas, F., MacDermid, S. M., Buck, M. L., & Kossek, E. E. (2006). Exploring career and personal outcomes and the meaning of career success among part-time professionals in organizations. In R. J. Burke (Ed.), *Research companion to working time and work addiction* (pp. 284–309). Cheltenham, England: Edward Elgar.

Lee, M. D., MacDermid, S. M., & Buck, M. L. (2000). Organizational paradigms of reduced-load work: Accommodation, elaboration, and transformation. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*, 1211–1226.

Lee, M. D., MacDermid, S. M., Williams, M. L., Buck, M. L., & Leiba-O'Sullivan, S. (2002). Contextual factors in the success of reduced-load work arrangements among managers and professionals. *Human Resource Management, 41*, 209–223.

Lirio, P., Lee, M. D., Williams, M. L., Haugen, L. K., & Kossek, E. E. (2008). The inclusion challenge with reduced-load professionals: The role of the manager. *Human Resource Management, 47*, 443–461.

Lobel, S., & Kossek, E. (1996). Human resource strategies to support diversity in work and personal lifestyles: Beyond the "family friendly" organization. In E. E. Kossek & S. Lobel (Eds.), *Managing diversity: Human resource strategies for transforming the workplace* (pp. 221–244). Oxford, England: Blackwell.

Lyness, K. S., & Judiesch, M. K. (2008). Can a manager have a life and a career? International and multisource perspectives on work-life balance and career advancement potential. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*, 789–805.

Matos, K., & Galinsky, E. (2012). National Study of Employers. Retrieved August 15, 2012, from http://familiesandwork.org/site/research/reports/NSE_2012.pdf

lementing a reduced-workload arrangement
ly. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 23*, 49–64.
L. (2010). Work-life initiatives andorganiza-
ed messages to move from the margin to the
3, 3–19.
013). Work-family policies: Linking national
e and people for multi-level change. In S.
Las Heras (Eds.), *New frontiers in work-fam-
in a global world* (pp. 1–53). Basingstoke,

M. D., Pichler, S., & Hall, D T. (in press).
ding reduced-load work of professionals in
izational contexts. *Human Resource Manage-*

mmer, L. (2011). Workplace social support
analysis clarifying the influence of general
sor and organizational support. *Personnel*

14). The sustainable workforce: Organiza-
rk-life balance and well-being. In P. Chen
llbeing: A complete reference guide (Vol. III,
Viley-Blackwell.
rmid, S. M., Buck, M. L., & Kossek, E. E.
onal outcomes and the meaning of career
nals in organizations. In R. J. Burke (Ed.),
nd work addiction (pp. 284–309). Chelten-

M. L. (2000). Organizational paradigms
lation, elaboration, and transformation.
1211–1226.
M. L., Buck, M. L., & Leiba-O'Sullivan,
e success of reduced-load work arrange-
sionals. *Human Resource Management, 41,*

igen, L. K., & Kossek, E. E. (2008). The
d professionals: The role of the manager.
3–461.
source strategies to support diversity in
d the "family friendly" organization. In
ging diversity: Human resource strategies for
44). Oxford, England: Blackwell.
an a manager have a life and a career?
ectives on work-life balance and career
blied Psychology, 93, 789–805.
Study of Employers. Retrieved August
rk.org/site/research/reports/NSE_2012.

Milliken, F. J., Martins, L. L., & Morgan, H. (1998). Explaining organizational responsiveness to work-family issues: The role of human resource executives as issue interpreters. *Academy of Management Journal, 41*, 580–592.

Osterman, P. (1994). How common is workplace transformation and who adopts it? *Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 47*, 173–188.

Osterman, P. (1995). Work-family programs and the employment relationship. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 40*, 681–700.

Perry-Smith, J. E., & Blum, T. C. (2000). Work-family human resource bundles and perceived organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*, 1107–1117.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 879–903.

Ryan, A., & Kossek, E. (2008). Work-life policy implementation: Breaking down or creating barriers to inclusiveness. *Human Resource Management, 47*, 295–310.

Subramony, M. (2009). A meta-analytic investigation of the relationship between HRM bundles and firm performance. *Human Resource Management, 48*, 745–768.

Thomas, L. T., & Ganster, D. C. (1995). Impact of family-supportive work variables on work-family conflict and strain: A control perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*, 6–15.

Thompson, C. A., Beauvais, L. L., & Lyness, K. S. (1999). When work-family benefits are not enough: The influence of work-family culture on benefit utilization, organizational attachment, and work-family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 54*, 392–415.

Thorsteinson, T. J. (2003). Job attitudes of part-time vs. full-time workers: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 76*, 151–177.

Tsui, A., & Milkovich, G. (1987). Personnel department activities: Constituency perspectives and preferences, *Personnel Psychology, 40*, 519–537.

White, M., Hill, S., McGovern, P., Mills, C., & Smeaton, D. (2003). "High-performance" management practices, working hours, and work-life balance. *British Journal of Industrial Relations, 41*, 175–195.

Wharton A., & Blair-Loy, M. (2002). The "overtime culture" in a global corporation: A cross-national study of finance professionals' interest in working part-time. *Work and Occupations, 29*, 32–63.

APPENDIX

New Measures Developed or Adapted for This Study

Organizational Commitment to Work-Life Management (WLM)

1. This organization is one of the best employers for people concerned about balancing work and life because of the great policies and programs it offers.
2. This organization is one of the best employers for people concerned about balancing work and life, because of the top management philosophy.
3. The human resource strategy developed by this organization includes consideration of employees' work and life demands.
4. The business strategy of this organization explicitly incorporates strategy based on the value of employees.

Organizational Commitment to Human Resource Management (HRM)

Adapted from Huselid, M., Jackson, S.E., & Schuler, R.S. (1997).

1. Working in teams is a core part of the work environment in this organization.
2. This organization engages in quality improvement practices
3. This organization works towards employee empowerment
4. This organization engages in frequent diagnosis of strategic needs
5. This organization engages in talent development in order to achieve its business objectives
6. The HR policies of this organization are designed by individuals with a clear understanding of the strategic business objectives of the company
7. HR serves a supporting role in the implementation of strategic business decisions

Supportive Context for Reduced-Load Work Arrangements

1. The performance review process for those working reduced-load adjusts the criteria for evaluation in a fair manner, given the lesser hours of the individual
2. Training opportunities are less for those working on a reduced-load basis, compared to other employees (R)
3. Career development opportunities are better for those employees not working on a reduced-load basis (R)

PICHLER and A. M. RYAN

ENDIX

l or Adapted for This Study

› Work-Life Management (WLM)

best employers for people con-
nd life because of the great policies

best employers for people con-
nd life, because of the top manage-

eveloped by this organization in-
ees' work and life demands.
ganization explicitly incorporates
mployees.

Human Resource Management

ı, S.E., & Schuler, R.S. (1997).

of the work environment in this

ality improvement practices
employee empowerment
quent diagnosis of strategic needs
ent development in order to

tion are designed by individuals
strategic business objectives of the

ıe implementation of strategic

Load Work Arrangements

for those working reduced-load
in a fair manner, given the lesser

r those working on a reduced-load
es (R)
s are better for those employees
sis (R)

4. There are some opportunities to be hired into the organization from the outside in a reduced-load arrangement
5. Reduced-load work arrangements result in one being less likely to be chosen for special developmental assignments (R)
6. Assuming good performance, advancement opportunities for those working on reduced-load are as good as opportunities for those working full-time
7. Individuals working a reduced-load generally have to return to a full work load in order to receive a promotion (R)

(R) = Reverse-scored