

Beyond family-friendly: The construct and measurement of singles-friendly work culture ☆

Wendy J. Casper ^{a,*}, David Weltman ^b, Eileen Kwesiga ^c

^a *University of Texas at Arlington, Department of Management, 701 S. West St., P.O. Box 19467, Arlington, TX 76019-0467, USA*

^b *University of Texas at Arlington, Department of Information Systems & Operation Management, Box 19437, Arlington, TX 76019-0467, USA*

^c *Bryant University, Department of Management, 1150 Douglas Pike, Smithfield, RI 02917, USA*

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Abstract

Although research has examined work-family issues and organizational support for employees' family responsibilities, few studies have explored the work-life issues of single employees without children. The current study examines single employees' perceptions of how their organizations support their work-life balance in comparison to employees with families. A multi-dimensional scale is developed assessing five dimensions of singles-friendly culture: social inclusion, equal work opportunities, equal access to benefits, equal respect for nonwork life, and equal work expectations. Employees with families perceived more equity in most of these facets than did singles. Managerial and professional employees with higher incomes also perceived their organizations as more singles-friendly. Finally, social inclusion predicted organizational commitment for single employees, and this effect was mediated by perceived organizational support. In contrast, more equal work opportunities were related to lower turnover intentions among childfree singles.

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* Corresponding author. Fax: +1 817 272 3122.

E-mail addresses: wjcasper@uta.edu (W.J. Casper), dweltman@uta.edu (D. Weltman), ekwesiga@bryant.edu (E. Kwesiga).

1. Introduction

Despite increasing diversity in family structures and employees' personal responsibilities (Rothausen, 1999; Teachman, Tedrow, & Crowder, 2000), most research on work-life issues examines married employees with children (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Burnett, 2007) to the exclusion of single childfree adults. This is important given 31.6 million single adults live alone in the U.S. (Casper & Bryson, 1998) making up 40% of the nation's full-time workforce (American Association for Single People, 2001). Moreover, organizations are increasingly offering family-friendly policies to attract and retain workers with families (Mitchell, 1997; Osterman, 1995). Given such policies may create family-friendly backlash among single and childless employees (Young, 1996, Young, 1999), understanding single employees' views of work-life issues and organizational support for employees' families is important. This study explores work-life issues among single employees without families, where "family" is defined as a spouse or cohabiting partner and/or dependent children (see also Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991). Thus, "single" employees discussed herein refer to "single adults without dependent children" (Young, 1996, Young, 1999).

The popular press suggests childfree singles work more when employees with families want time off (Scott, 2001), more desirable assignments are given to employees with families who are perceived to have more need (McCafferty, 2001), organizations often ignore the work stress of single childfree employees (Bruzzese, 1999), and single employees view family benefits as inequitable (Flynn, 1996). Anecdotal evidence that equity in work-life issues is crucial to some singles is also offered by the emergence of three organizations. The Childfree Network (Lafayette, 1994) advocates for non-parents, arguing that parents are afforded more benefits than non-parents. The American Association of Single People (www.unmarriedamerica.com) advocates for equity in employee benefits and workplace policies for unmarried employees. The World Childfree Association (www.worldchild-free.org) advocates for the childfree globally. The emergence of these organizations suggests that at least some singles feel their needs are overlooked by family-friendly organizations.

The current study examines how single childfree workers perceive the organizational support they receive for work-life issues compared to that received by employees with families. A measure of singles-friendly culture is created, the nomological network of this construct is developed, and its ability to predict work attitudes and behavioral intentions among singles is examined.

2. Organizational support for work-family issues

Studies have found that employees with families report lower work-family conflict and higher organizational attachment when their organizations are family-friendly (Allen, 2001; Behson, 2002, 2005; Clark, 2001; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Thompson et al. (1999) developed a measure of work-family culture and found that three distinct facets of work-family culture (managerial support for family, career consequences of work-benefit use, and organizational time demands) were related to greater work-family benefit use, higher affective commitment, lower work-family conflict, and fewer turnover intentions. Allen (2001) found that employees who perceived their organizations as more family-supportive reported higher work-family benefit usage, lower work-family conflict,

higher job satisfaction, higher organizational commitment, and lower turnover intentions. Clark (2001) also found that a flexible work culture and family-supportive supervision was related to higher work satisfaction and employee citizenship. Supportive work-family culture also reduced work-family conflict above the effects of general support (Behson, 2002) and enhanced employee outcomes more than formal work-family policies (Behson, 2005).

In short, research suggests that work-family culture relates to desirable outcomes for employees with families. Yet no research we are aware of has examined whether support for work-life issues can enhance organizational attachment for single employees. The section which follows defines what is meant by singles-friendly culture and reviews the literature on the work-life issues of single childfree employees.

3. Singles-friendly culture

Organizational culture has been defined as “a pattern of basic assumptions, invented, discovered, or developed by a given group, as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be perceived as valid and, therefore, is taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (Schein, 1990, p. 111). Culture has three levels: (1) observable artifacts (symbols, stories and myths), (2) values (norms, ideologies, and philosophies), and (3) basic underlying assumptions (unconscious, taken for granted) (Schein, 1990). Similarly, Denison (1996) argues that culture represents the “deep structure of organizations, which is rooted in the values, beliefs and assumptions held by organizational members” (p. 624). We define singles-friendly culture as the shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports integration of work and nonwork that is *unrelated to family*, and the degree to which equity is perceived in the support an organization provides for employees’ nonwork roles, irrespective of family status. Our conception of singles-friendly culture is consistent with Schein’s (1990) and Denison’s (1996) definitions of organizational culture, and Thompson et al.’s (1999) view of work-family culture.

3.1. Dimensions of singles-friendly culture

We conceptualize singles-friendly culture as multi-dimensional. To identify facets of singles-friendly culture we reviewed the literature including a qualitative study (Casper, Herst, & Swanburg, 2003) of 37 single childfree adults’ perceptions of their organization for singles. This suggested five possible facets of singles-friendly culture. Next, we define each facet and delineate the basis for each definition.

3.1.1. Social inclusion

The qualitative study (Casper et al., 2003) found social inclusion was important to singles-friendly culture. We define social inclusion as the degree to which there are similar social expectations and opportunities for single employees and those with families. Social inclusion occurs when formal and informal social events at work are perceived as equally appropriate for single childfree employees and employees with families. A company picnic with family-friendly events (i.e., pony rides for kids) and singles-friendly events (i.e., beer and softball games) would be socially inclusive. We deem social inclusion as key to singles-friendly culture because some singles reported social exclusion at

work (Casper et al., 2003). Specifically, 19% of participants reported feeling stigmatized due to being single and 16% reported that married workers were perceived as more stable and mature than singles.

This is consistent with findings that people hold stereotypes of single childfree adults as immature (Eby, Allen, & Noble, 2004). Social identity theory argues that individuals categorize themselves into in-groups and out-groups using salient criteria, while seeking to maintain a positive social identity in the process (Brewer, 1979; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Out-group members have more positive social identities and higher self-esteem when attitudes toward the out-group are more favorable. Thus, while singles may be in the out-group if most coworkers have families, their social inclusion should facilitate a positive social identity at work.

3.1.2. Equal work opportunities

The literature (Flynn, 1996; Young, 1999) revealed perceptions that single childfree workers have fewer work opportunities than employees with families. Equal work opportunities exist when opportunities (e.g., promotions, assignments) are provided without respect to family status. Need, equality, or equity-based rules can be used to allocate work opportunities (Young, 1999). In a need-based system, employees with greater need would be given greater opportunity. That is, an employee with a family would be given greater financial opportunities than one without dependents. Equality-based allocation involves providing the same opportunities to all, regardless of need or performance. Finally, an equity approach provides opportunities based on employee contributions (e.g., skills, effort). With equality and equity, family status would not impact opportunity. Thus, a singles-friendly organization would provide opportunities based on equity- or equality-based rules, but *not* based on need.

3.1.3. Equal access to employee benefits

Access to employee benefits may also be important to singles-friendly culture (Grandey, 2001; Rothausen, Gonzalez, & Clarke, 1998). Equal access to benefits refers to the degree to which similar ability exists for single employees and those with families to use benefits. Most work-life programs provide services that are of little benefit to single adults without dependent children (Young, 1996) and offering such benefits can create perceptions of unfairness among single childless employees (Grandey, 2001; Grover, 1991; Kirby & Krone, 2002; Parker & Allen, 2001; Young, 1999). Indeed, some single workers report inequity and discrimination in employee benefits (Flynn, 1996; Young, 1999). Kirby and Krone (2002) found that some workers perceived benefits targeted at parents as unfair. Moreover, self-serving bias appears to influence whether work-family benefits are perceived as fair. Employees who had used or would use work-family benefits in the future perceived them as more fair (Grover, 1991; Parker & Allen, 2001) and reported more favorable attitudes toward them (Kossek & Nichol, 1992).

In theory work-family benefits can be allocated equally (i.e., available to all), but in practice allocation is typically need-based (i.e., only those with families find them useful) (Grandey, 2001). For example, on-site day care (Rothausen et al., 1998), parental leave (Grover, 1991), and spouse employment assistance (Eby & Allen, 1998) are useful only to employees with families. To foster perceptions of equal access to benefits among singles work-family benefits could be offered as part of cafeteria-style benefits, in which employees

are provided an equal number of credits to purchase benefits (Grandey, 2001). Organizations could also offer benefits that can support nonwork needs other than family (i.e., flex-time, telecommuting).

3.1.4. Equal respect for nonwork roles

In singles-friendly cultures single childfree employees' nonwork roles would be taken seriously (Young, 1999). We define equal respect for nonwork life as the degree to which similar value is placed on nonwork roles of all employees. Research suggests that some managers accommodate employees' families more than other nonwork needs. For instance, Swanburg, Pitt-Catsouphes, and Drescher-Burke (2005) found parents were more likely to get time off than non-parents. When organizations fail to respect nonwork roles, interrole conflict can result. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) defined interrole conflict as conflict that occurs when pressures from one role (i.e., work domain) are incompatible with pressures from another role (i.e., home domain). Work-family conflict is the most frequently researched work-family topic (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005) but samples used to study this topic have been comprised predominately of married employees (83%) and parents (77%) (Casper et al., 2007). Thus, the work-nonwork interrole conflict of singles is poorly understood even though singles have nonwork commitments which can facilitate such conflict. Casper et al. (2003) found that 35% of singles felt their nonwork responsibilities were perceived as unimportant, although many provided financial assistance (65%) or direct care to extended family and friends (24%) or pets (57%).

3.1.5. Equal work expectations

Equal work expectations refer to the degree to which there are similar work expectations for single employees and those with families. An organization that makes decisions about who should travel for business or work on holidays without respect to family exhibits equal work expectations. Research suggests that some singles feel they face greater work expectations than employees with families (Young, 1999). Participants in a study by Kirby and Krone (2002) reported that single childfree workers engaged in more business travel than those with families. Similarly, Casper et al. (2003) found that some single employees felt they were expected to work more hours when coworkers missed work for family reasons.

Equity theory (Adams, 1963) posits that employees perceive fairness only when their ratio of job inputs to outcomes equals the ratio of a comparison other. Accordingly, if single employees are expected to work at times when employees with families are not, and both groups receive the same rewards from the organization, this should lead to perceived inequity. If singles believe their expected inputs are greater due to factors unrelated to work (i.e., family status), this might also be perceived as a violation of the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995). Accordingly, equal work expectations may be an important aspect of singles-friendly culture.

In short, we identified and defined five dimensions of singles-friendly culture: social inclusion, equal work opportunities, equal access to benefits, equal respect for nonwork life, and equal work expectations. Although these five facets are conceptualized as distinct, they are expected to be correlated. In the next section, we discuss the construct validation of singles-friendly work culture.

3.2. Construct validation

In addition to delineating the dimensions of singles-friendly culture, it is important to develop its construct validity and nomological network. Exploring the nomological network facilitates understanding the construct in terms of its meaning, and how it relates to other constructs in the literature (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). In this study, we use several techniques to develop construct validity evidence including confirmatory factor analysis, exploring theory-based group differences, and examining how facets of singles-friendly culture relate to other constructs in the literature.

3.2.1. Confirmatory factor analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis is a common way to provide evidence that the items written are indicative of the underlying construct they were intended to measure (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Accordingly, this enables examination of whether the five facets are distinct but related, as expected.

Hypothesis 1. Singles-friendly culture will be best represented as five distinct but related dimensions.

Moreover, multiple groups analysis with confirmatory factor analysis enables us to examine whether the factor structure is consistent across subgroups (Bryne, 2004). Thus, we explore the degree to which the measurement weights for the five facets of singles-friendly culture are stable across two distinct groups: (1) singles without dependent children and (2) their coworkers with families (i.e., spouses/partners and/or children).

3.2.2. Group differences

It is also relevant to consider differences between singles and employees with families in the level of singles-friendly culture perceptions reported. Research on equity theory suggests that people are sensitive to inequity when under-rewarded, but respond less consistently to over-reward (Mowday, 1996). Accordingly, singles may be sensitive to fewer supports than coworkers with families, but those with families should be less sensitive to greater supports. Accordingly, workers with families may perceive their organizations as more singles-friendly than will singles.

Hypothesis 2. Workers with families will perceive their workplaces as more singles-friendly than will single childfree workers.

3.2.3. Relationships with other concepts

Scale validation involves understanding the relationships the scale exhibits with other constructs (Schwab, 1980). To contribute to validity evidence for our measure, we assessed the relationships between the facets of singles-friendly culture and work-related demographics such as job level, industry, education, and income, as well as three aspects of work-family culture. More educated workers, managers and professionals, and employees with higher incomes have greater access to work-family policies (Holcomb, 2000; Swanburg et al., 2005). For instance, managers and professionals have greater access to flexible schedules (USDOL, 2002), while workers with low incomes have less access to such policies (Miller, 1992). More educated employees also possess greater access to flexible work schedules (Swanburg et al., 2005). Because more privileged workers are more likely to observe peers using work-family supports they may perceive more inequity between singles and peers with families. On the

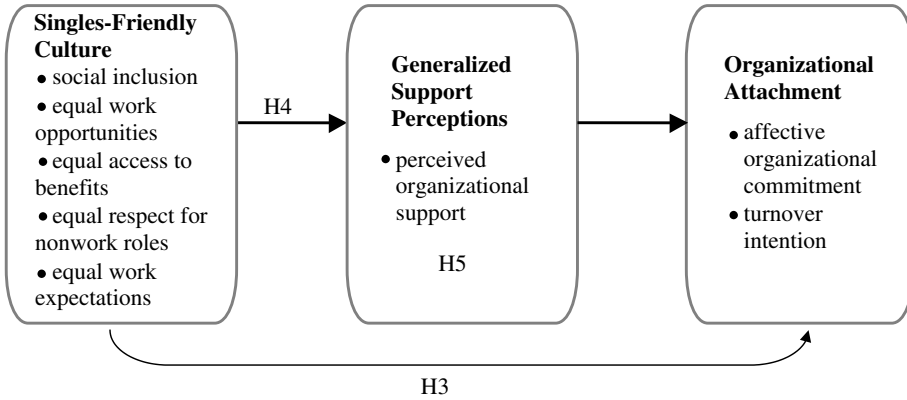


Fig. 1. Model of relationships explored in study.

other hand, given their greater resources, they may focus less on inequity between singles and non-singles. Other research finds industry differences in work-family policy offerings (Miliken, Martins, & Morgan, 1998) but it is unclear how such differences in policy availability would relate to singles-friendly culture. Thus, the relationships between work-related demographics and singles-friendly culture are examined in an exploratory fashion.

Research Question 1: How do job level, industry, education, and income relate to the five dimensions of singles-friendly culture?

The relationship between work-family culture and singles-friendly culture is also unclear. Organizations that support family may also support other nonwork needs, suggesting a positive relationship. In contrast, if family-friendly employers focus on employees' families, singles may perceive the culture as singles-unfriendly. Thus, exploratory relationships are examined without a priori hypotheses. Three facets of work-family culture were examined: managerial support for family, career consequences of work-family benefit use, and organizational time demands (Thompson et al., 1999).

Research Question 2: How do three dimensions of work-family culture relate to five facets of singles-friendly culture?

In the next section we describe our hypothesized model and the literature that supports it.

4. Hypothesized model

Our research tested the relationships in the model shown in Fig. 1. Just as family-friendly cultures have been found to enhance organizational attachment for employees with families (Allen, 2001; Clark, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999), we expected single childfree employees who perceive their organizations as singles-friendly to report higher affective commitment and lower turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 3. Singles-friendly culture will be positively associated with affective commitment and negatively associated with turnover intentions for single employees without dependent children.

4.1. Generalized support perceptions

Perceived organizational support (POS) is employees' general belief that their organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), while specific perceived support is associated with a specific aspect of the organization (e.g., support for family, support for diversity). Behson (2002) found that POS accounted for more unique variance in job satisfaction and affective commitment than specific perceptions (e.g., supervisor support for work-family benefits). However, specific support perceptions are also important as they can facilitate POS. Family-supportive actions (Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994) and work-family benefits (Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Lambert, 2000) are both related to greater POS. This study explores whether nonwork support for needs other than family might enhance POS for singles. This is consistent with the suggestion that organizational actions enhance POS when they signal to a worker that he or she is valued (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Given singles-friendly organizational actions support nonwork irrespective of family status, such actions should facilitate POS among singles.

Signaling theory offers a theoretical rationale for how singles-friendly actions facilitate POS. Signaling theory argues that observable actions by an organization are interpreted by observers to signal less observable characteristics of the organization (Spence, 1973). The facets of singles-friendly culture are types of organizational equity which are fairly observable. For instance, one could easily observe whether one is socially included. Benefits available to singles and workers with families are also observable and could be interpreted as signals of underlying characteristics of the organization. In contrast, POS is a general perception that involves personifying the organization into a caring entity (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Thus, based on signaling theory, we posited that more observable aspects of the organization (i.e., singles-friendly dimensions) would facilitate more generalized and less observable perceptions (i.e., POS). Thus, single employees who experienced singles-friendly culture were expected to report greater POS.

Hypothesis 4. A more singles-friendly culture will be positively associated with POS for single employees without dependent children.

Research suggests that POS is positively related to affective commitment and negatively related to turnover intentions (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Grover and Crooker (1995) argued that the effects of family-friendly benefits on organizational attachment occur because employees perceive these benefits as symbols of an organization's concern for employee welfare. Consistent with this, Casper and Buffardi (2004) found that the effects of family-supportive policies on job pursuit intentions were fully mediated by POS. Taken together, this research suggests that among single workers, the effects of singles-friendly culture on organizational attachment might be mediated by POS.

Hypothesis 5. The effect of singles-friendly culture on organizational attachment is mediated by POS among single workers.

The goal of this study was to (1) develop a measure of five facets of singles-friendly culture, (2) examine the relationship between this measure and other key constructs, (3) examine the effect of these facets on organizational attachment and support perceptions, and (4) examine POS as a mediator of the effect of singles-friendly culture on organizational

attachment. Measure development is discussed in the next section. The model to be tested is depicted in Fig. 1.

5. Method

5.1. *Participants and procedure*

An online survey was completed by 543 subjects. Study participants were recruited as part of a class assignment by students at a university in the central U.S. Participants had to be employed a minimum of 20 h per week. Participants were provided a website address where the survey could be found. In order to ensure that students actually recruited eligible participants (i.e., did not falsify survey completion), several measures were taken. After completing the survey, participants were required to report which student recruited them and provide an email address and phone number where they could be contacted. Students were informed that a random sample of participants would be contacted to verify participation and that if participation could not be verified, points would be deducted from their grade.

Measure development work (exploratory factor analysis, reliability analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, relationships with other constructs) was conducted with all 543 participants. Group differences (singles versus those with families) in the factor structure were examined. Of the participants, 292 were single (never married, divorced or widowed) and 208 were single without children. Because the focus of the model was employee attachment among single childfree workers, only single participants without children were included in the model regression analyses. Of these 208 participants, 92% were never married, 7% were divorced, and 1% were widowed. Participants were an average of 25 years old (standard deviation = 8 years), and 64% were female. With regard to race, 60% were Caucasian, 14% were Hispanic, 12% were African American, 10% were Asian, and 4% reported their race as other. Participants worked an average of 33 h per week (standard deviation = 11 h) and 26% had at least a college degree.

5.2. *Measures*

5.2.1. *Singles-friendly culture measure development*

A total of 140 items were developed from our literature review to measure singles-friendly culture (Bruzze, 1999; Casper et al., 2003; Flynn, 1996; Lafayette, 1994; McCafferty, 2001; Murray, 1996; Picard, 1997; Young, 1999). Items assessed the five facets described earlier: social inclusion, equal work opportunities, equal access to benefits, equal respect for nonwork life, and equal work expectations. Three researchers developed the initial items independently which were then reviewed and edited. Because research suggests that the constituency that provides support can be important (Hefner & Rentsch, 2001; Hunt & Morgan, 1994), items were developed to assess organizational support provided by the organization and the supervisor. For instance, an item to assess organization-based equal access to benefits was “Single employees and employees with families have equal access to employee benefits in this organization.” “My supervisor treats all employees’ request for time off the same, regardless of why the employee wants the time off” assesses supervisor equal respect for nonwork roles. For social inclusion and equal work expectations, items were also developed reflecting support from peers. Of 140 initial items: 36 were

for social inclusion, 20 for equal work opportunities, 24 for equal access to benefits, 24 for equal respect for nonwork life, and 36 for equal work expectations. The survey utilized a 5-point Likert-scale from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1).

5.2.1.1. Exploratory factor analysis. Principal components analysis with varimax rotation was performed. Multiple criteria were used to determine which factors to retain (Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986) and all supported the extraction of five factors. The scree plot revealed a marked change in the slope after the fifth factor and 5 factors had eigenvalues greater than 1. Together the five dimensions explained over 40% of the variance in the items. Items with loadings of .45 or greater and cross-loadings under .30 were assigned to a factor. Items without a loading of .45 or greater or cross-loadings greater than .30 were discarded. Although items were written to distinguish between support from the organization, supervisor, and peers, source of support did not result in an independent construct. Instead, a 5-factor solution was consistent with the data.

5.2.1.2. Reliability analysis. Reliability analysis was conducted. If alpha for a subscale could be increased by item deletion, the item was usually discarded. “My supervisor makes decisions about who will travel for business without considering employee family status” was retained because the content reflected an aspect of the construct not assessed by other items, even though deletion would have slightly increased reliability. Alphas for each subscale were above .70 (Nunally, 1978). Reliability for social inclusion (17 items) was .96, for equal work opportunities (7 items) was .91, for equal access to benefits (7 items) was .89, for equal respect for nonwork life (3 items) was .75, and for equal work expectations (7 items) was .82. The final factors, 41 items retained, and factor loadings are shown in Table 1.

5.2.2. Measures of other concepts for construct validation

5.2.2.1. Job level. When the data were collected, participants responded to an open-ended question to list their job type which was coded into job level following Thompson et al.’s (1999) categories: (1) department head or executive, (2) middle manager or professional, (3) first level supervisor, (4) hourly worker. When job level could not be coded by available data (5) uncodeable was used. The sample included 1.7% department heads or executives, 39.4% middle managers or professionals, 2.8% first level supervisors, 35.9% hourly workers, and 20.3% with not codeable jobs.

5.2.2.2. Industry. Job type was also coded into industry when possible. Industry was coded using the North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2002) into 10 categories: (1) agriculture, forestry, and fishing, (2) mining, (3) construction, (4) manufacturing, (5) transportation and public utilities, (6) wholesale trade, (7) retail trade, (8) finance, insurance and real estate, (9) services, and (10) public administration. Industry that could not be determined from the data was (11) uncodeable. In terms of industry, 18.4% were in the service sector, 11% in finance, real estate or insurance, 9.6% in public administration, 5.9% in retail trade, and 50.5% were not codeable. There were small numbers in agriculture (.2%), construction (1.1%), manufacturing (.6%), transportation or public utilities (1.8%), and wholesale trade (.9%).

5.2.2.3. Education. Participants reported education as follows: (1) high school or GED, (2) some college, (3) associates or technical degree, (4) bachelor’s degree, or (5) graduate or professional degree. With respect to education, 7% of participants completed high school or a GED, 43% reported some college, 21% had an associates or technical degree, 19% had college degrees, and 10% had graduate or professional degrees.

Table 1
Factor loadings from principle components analysis

	Factor 1, social inclusion	Factor 2 equal work opportunities	Factor 3, equal access to benefits	Factor 4, respect for nonwork roles	Factor 5, equal work expectations
My supervisor encourages single and married employees equally to attend company-sponsored social events.	.717	.110	.132	.137	.055
My supervisor plans social events for our work group that are appropriate for both single employees and those with families.	.775	.072	.096	.112	.060
My supervisor believes that work-related social gatherings should be appealing to both single and married employees.	.825	.177	.152	.084	.102
My supervisor believes that work-related social events should include all work group members, regardless of family status.	.732	.246	.170	.141	.005
My supervisor supports hosting work-related social events that include employees both with and without children.	.768	.202	.077	.182	.010
My organization considers the preferences of both single and married employees when planning social events.	.718	.129	.130	.104	−.007
My organization considers the preferences of both parents and childless employees when planning social events.	.759	.123	.151	.045	−.001
My organization supports hosting formal social events that cater to employees both with and without children.	.652	.120	.174	−.005	.059
My organization considers the fact that single employees might enjoy different social events than workers with families when planning company gatherings.	.502	−.021	.081	.090	.021
My organization is aware that different social events may appeal to employees who are parents and those without children.	.618	.141	.037	.037	−.055
Social events in this organization are equally fun for single employees and those with families.	.652	.061	.202	.136	.005
My organization ensures that company social events will be of interest to both married and single workers, with and without families.	.681	.165	.231	.099	−.015
In my organization, employees with and without children are equally likely to attend work-related social events.	.509	.155	.199	.142	.066
My coworkers feel that company social events should be fun for both single and married employees.	.463	.197	.236	.119	.040

Single and non-single employees in my organization are just as likely to attend work-related social events.	.456	.117	.283	.174	.036
Employees with and without children are equally welcome at social gatherings hosted by my coworkers.	.472	.130	.078	.120	.012
My coworkers acknowledge that hosting social events that appeal to both parent and non-parent employees is important.	.539	.062	.078	.072	.049
My supervisor provides equal work opportunities for employees with children and those employees without children.	.169	.644	.266	.195	.067
I don't feel that my supervisor uses family status when making promotion decisions.	.166	.702	.200	.173	.143
Family status does not determine what work opportunities are offered to an employee in my organization.	.158	.690	.216	.184	.230
I don't feel that my organization uses family status when making decisions regarding promotions.	.217	.673	.171	.126	.138
My organization provides equal work opportunities for single and married employees.	.255	.716	.290	.192	.150
My organization provides equal work opportunities for employees with children and those employees without children.	.263	.680	.314	.220	.137
In my organization, there are equal opportunities available for employee advancement, irrespective of employee family status.	.228	.682	.197	.149	.152
My organization provides benefits that are relevant for single and non-single employees.	.241	.157	.759	.118	.108
My organization is supportive of having benefits that are desirable for single employees.	.106	.043	.489	.105	–.036
All employees receive the same level of employee benefits, irrespective of family status.	.159	.169	.616	.100	.092
Single employees and employees with families have equal access to employee benefits in this organization.	.224	.277	.737	.133	.103
The benefits provided by my organization are desirable to both single employees and those with children.	.179	.251	.694	.161	.055

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

	Factor 1, social inclusion	Factor 2 equal work opportunities	Factor 3, equal access to benefits	Factor 4, respect for nonwork roles	Factor 5, equal work expectations
My supervisor is supportive of having benefits that appeal to both single and non-single employees.	.295	.262	.659	.186	.002
The benefits that are offered by my organization are equally useful to a married employee with children and a single employee.	.225	.165	.717	.088	.119
My supervisor treats all employees' requests for time off the same, regardless of why the employee wants the time off.	.200	.272	.232	.624	.137
My organization's policy requires all employees' request for time off be treated the same, regardless of why the employee requests time off.	.226	.194	.235	.470	.221
Workers in my organization are equally understanding when single employees are away from work for personal reasons as when employees with families are away for family reasons.	.190	.126	.130	.606	.184
My supervisor makes work assignments without considering an employee's family situation.	−.087	.172	.052	.044	.687
My supervisor makes decisions about who will travel for business without considering employee family status.	−.093	.121	.094	.140	.561
In my organization, work assignments are made without considering family status.	.069	.126	.161	.133	.766
The amount of overtime employees in my organization are expected to work is not influenced by family status.	.169	.266	.145	.276	.490
My marital status does not influence the number of hours I am expected to work in my organization.	.153	.127	.184	.264	.470
My coworkers believe that employee family status should not be considered when making work assignments.	.130	.111	.174	.128	.509
Work assignments in my organization are made without considering employees' family situations.	−.015	.140	.005	.075	.679

Note. Bold values indicate that item loading was high enough (greater than .45) that the item was assigned to the factor indicated.

5.2.2.4. *Income.* Participants reported income as follows: (1) less than \$20,000 annually, (2) \$ 20–29,999/year, (3) \$30–49,999/year, (4) \$50–69,999/year, (5) \$70–100,000/year, or (6) more than \$100,000/year. 28% of participants earned less than \$20,000 annually, 25% earned \$20,000–\$29,999, 30% earned \$30,000–49,999, 9.5% earned \$50,000–69,999, 4.5% earned \$70,000–100,000, and 3% earned more than \$100,000.

5.2.2.5. *Work-family culture.* Items from Thompson et al. (1999) assessed three dimensions of work-family culture. Managerial support for work-family issues was assessed with 11 items. An example item is “In general, managers in this organization are quite accommodating of family-related needs.” Alpha for managerial support was .80. Career consequences of work-family benefit use was assessed with three items with an alpha of .78. An example item is “Many employees are resentful when men in this organization take extended leave to care for newborn or adopted children.” Organizational time demands were assessed with two items with an alpha of .68. An example item is “To get ahead in this organization, employees are expected to work more than 50 h a week, whether at the workplace or at home.”

5.2.3. Measures in structural model testing

Organizational attachment was measured by affective organizational commitment and turnover intention. Affective commitment was measured with 4 items from Meyer and Allen (1984). A sample item is “My organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me.” Coefficient alpha for affective commitment was .78. Turnover intentions were measured with 2 items. A sample item is “I will probably look for a new job in the near future.” Coefficient alpha for turnover intention was .82. POS was measured with 6 items from Eisenberger et al. (1986). An example of item is “My organization cares about my well-being.” Coefficient alpha was .91.

6. Results

Although exploratory factor analysis was first used in measure development, confirmatory factor analysis was used to test the measurement model for the first hypothesis. Confirmatory factor analysis is a hypothesis testing technique which allows comparison of hypothesized (5-factor) and alternative measurement models (1-factor). The factor structure across subgroups was also examined with multiple groups analysis by comparing the measurement model for singles to that of participants with families. AMOS (Arbuckle, 1997) was used with maximum likelihood estimation and a partial disaggregation approach (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998). The entire sample ($n = 543$) was used to test the fit of a 5-factor and a 1-factor measurement model. Fit statistics for the 5-factor model were superior (see Table 2) and this model exhibited a significant increment in fit over the 1-factor model, $\chi^2_{\text{difference}}(10) = 375.181, p < .05$, supporting Hypothesis 1.

Next, the measurement model was fit separately for singles ($n = 208$) and those with families ($n = 257$). χ^2 for both samples was significant (see Table 2), but χ^2 is powerful and sensitive to sample size, and all other fit statistics indicated good fit for both samples with NFI, CFI, and TLI all above .90 and the RMSEA less than .10. Fit statistics were slightly superior for the singles sample (see Table 2). Finally, multiple groups analysis was conducted. A model with measurement weights constrained to be equal across groups was compared to a model where weights were not constrained. The χ^2 difference test ($\chi^2_{\text{difference}}(8) = 19.17, p < .05$) indicated that the unconstrained model fit better than the constrained

Table 2

Fit statistics for various measurement models

Model	χ^2	df	NFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Entire sample: 5-factor model	283.74	55	.949	.960	.934	.078
Entire sample: 1-factor model	1613.56	65	.656	.663	.528	.210
Singles only: 5-factor model	108.40	55	.947	.973	.955	.068
Nonsingles only: 5-factor model	147.99	55	.932	.955	.926	.081
Multiple groups analysis: 5-factor model with measurement weights constrained	275.56	118	.935	.961	.940	.054
Multiple groups analysis: 5-factor model with measurement weights unconstrained	256.39	110	.939	.964	.940	.054

Table 3

Loadings from confirmatory factor analysis

Path	Entire sample	Singles	Nonsingles
Social inclusion → parcel 1	1.00	1.00	1.00
Social inclusion → parcel 2	1.01	1.04	1.00
Social inclusion → parcel 3	.979	.984	1.00
Social inclusion → parcel 4	.766	.903	.658
Social inclusion → parcel 5	.852	.883	.834
Equal work opportunities → parcel 1	1.00	1.00	1.00
Equal work opportunities → parcel 2	.920	.935	.891
Equal access to benefits → parcel 1	1.00	1.00	1.00
Equal access to benefits → parcel 2	.887	.805	.932
Equal respect for nonwork life → parcel 1	1.00	1.00	1.00
Equal respect for nonwork life → parcel 2	.982	1.08	.825
Equal work expectation → parcel 1	1.00	1.00	1.00
Equal work expectation → parcel 2	.596	.578	.679

model. Although this indicates measurement weights differed slightly between groups, all weights were positive and significant (see Table 3). The measurement model also fit well for both groups (see Table 2), suggesting the measure could be used with either or both groups.

Tests for Hypothesis 2 compared singles-friendly culture facets for singles and employees with families using Hotelling's T^2 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Results revealed a significant multivariate effect ($F(5,448) = 3.829, p < .05$). Follow-up univariate tests found significant differences between singles and workers with families on 4 facets of singles-friendly culture. Participants with families were significantly more likely to perceive equal work opportunities, equal access to benefits, equal respect for nonwork life, and equal work expectations than were single participants (see Table 4), consistent with Hypothesis 2.

Research question 1 explored how work-related demographics related to singles-friendly culture. All demographics were dummy coded. Job level predicted 3.2% of the variance in equal work opportunities, 2.3% of the variance in equal work expectations, and 2.7% of the variance in equal access to benefits. Managerial and professional employees reported more equal work opportunities (mean of 3.94 vs. 3.64), more equal work expectations (mean of 3.67 vs. 3.45), and more equal access to benefits (mean of 3.86 vs. 3.63) than those in jobs that were not codeable. Industry predicted 3.6% of the variance in equal access to benefits. Workers in the service industry (mean = 3.68) perceived more equal access to benefits than those in retail (mean = 3.30). Education was unrelated to singles-

Table 4
Group differences in dimensions of singles-friendly culture

	Singles		Non-Singles		<i>F</i> test
	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	
Social inclusion	3.66	.73	3.68	.75	.09
Equal work opportunities	3.72	.83	3.96	.66	12.26*
Equal access to benefits	3.70	.76	3.84	.68	6.82*
Equal respect for nonwork Life	3.63	.85	3.83	.74	12.35*
Equal work expectations	3.46	.79	3.69	.64	5.67*

Note. *n* = 208 for singles; *n* = 257 for workers with families.

* *p* < .05.

friendly culture. Income predicted 2.7% of the variance in equal access to benefits. Those with higher incomes perceived more equal access to benefits. Workers making \$20–29,999, \$30–49,999, \$50–69,999, and greater than \$100,000 all perceived more equal access to benefits than those earning less than \$20,000. Income also predicted 2.8% of the variance in equal work expectations. Those earning \$50–69,999 and \$70–100,000 yearly perceived more equal work expectations than those earning less than \$20,000.

Research question 2 explored how work-family culture related to singles-friendly culture. Correlations are presented in Table 5. Managerial support for work-family issues exhibited significant positive relationships with all five singles-friendly culture facets. Correlations ranged from .307 to .530, with social inclusion and equal respect for nonwork life exhibiting the strongest relationships. Career consequences were also positively related to all facets, although relationships were smaller, from .222 to .357. Finally, organizational time demands were negatively related to all facets, with correlations from –.090 to –.314.

Before testing the hypotheses that emerge from the model depicted in Fig. 1, correlations between the five dimensions of singles-friendly culture and key model variables were run, and are presented in Table 6 along with means, standard deviations, and reliabilities. Next, multiple regression analyses were used to test hypotheses 3 and 4. The analyses described do not include covariates. However, alternate analyses were run with dummy codes for job level, industry, education, and income as covariates. Both analyses yielded similar findings, so the more parsimonious results are presented. Hypothesis 3 was tested with two simultaneous regression analyses predicting affective commitment and turn-

Table 5
Correlations between work-family culture and facets of singles-friendly culture

	Social inclusion	Equal work opportunities	Equal access to benefits	Equal respect for nonwork life	Equal work expectations
Work family culture managerial support for family	.530*	.468*	.476*	.516*	.307*
Work family culture career consequences of work-family benefit use	.252*	.337*	.275*	.357*	.222*
Work family culture organizational time demands	–.271*	–.314*	–.277*	–.291*	–.090*

Note. *n* = 543.

* *p* < .05.

Table 6

Means, standard deviations, reliability estimates, and intercorrelations

Variable	Singles									
	Mean	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
<i>Singles-friendly culture</i>										
1. Social inclusion	3.66	.73	(.96)							
2. Equal work opportunities	3.72	.83	.57*	(.93)						
3. Equal access to benefits	3.70	.76	.59*	.63*	(.90)					
4. Equal respect for nonwork roles	3.63	.85	.59*	.64*	.62*	(.79)				
5. Equal work expectations	3.46	.79	.38*	.59*	.47*	.58*	(.85)			
<i>Mediators and outcomes</i>										
6. Perceived organizational support	3.46	.85	.58*	.46*	.47*	.51*	.28*	(.89)		
7. Affective org. commitment	3.26	.87	.40*	.30*	.31*	.26*	.16*	.55*	(.71)	
8. Intention to Turnover	2.78	1.14	−.22*	−.21*	−.13*	−.13*	−.04*	−.34*	−.40*	(.81)

Note. $n = 208$; reliabilities (coefficient α) are on the diagonal.

* $p < .05$.

Table 7

Regressions of intention to turnover, affective organizational commitment and perceived organizational support

	Turnover intention				Affective commitment				Perceived organizational support			
	B	SE	β	$R^2/\Delta R^2$	B	SE	β	$R^2/\Delta R^2$	B	SE	β	$R^2/\Delta R^2$
Social inclusion	-.238	.142	-.152	.068*	.326*	.095	.294*	.165*	.373*	.080	.345*	.380*
Equal work opportunities	-.313*	.143	-.225*		.113	.096	.115		.114	.080	.119	
Equal access to benefits	.035	.147	.023		.105	.098	.098		.098	.082	.093	
Equal respect for nonwork roles	.027	.140	.020		-.011	.094	-.012		.213*	.079	.227*	
Equal work expectations	.188	.136	.123		-.065	.091	-.060		-.100	.076	-.095	

Note. $n = 208$.

* $p < .05$.

over intentions from singles-friendly culture facets. Hypothesis 3 was partially supported (see Table 7). The linear combination of five facets of singles-friendly culture predicted 6.8% of the variance in turnover intentions and 16.5% of the variance in affective commitment. Only equal work opportunities uniquely predicted turnover intentions, whereas only social inclusion uniquely predicted affective commitment. Singles who perceived more equal work opportunities reported lower turnover intentions ($\beta = -.225$, $p < .05$), while those who felt more socially included reported higher commitment ($\beta = .294$, $p < .05$).

Hypothesis 4 was also partially supported (see Table 7). The linear combination of the facets of singles-friendly culture predicted 38% of the variance in POS, with two dimensions as unique predictors. Social inclusion ($\beta = .345$, $p < .05$) and equal respect for non-work life ($\beta = .227$, $p < .05$) were positively related to POS.

To test Hypothesis 5, the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach to test mediation was used. POS fully mediated the effect of social inclusion on affective commitment, given the β for

Table 8
Mediated regression analysis

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
<i>Predicting affective organizational commitment</i>			
Social inclusion	.449*	.074	.395*
<i>Predicting perceived organizational support</i>			
Social inclusion	.653*	.065	.582*
<i>Predicting affective organizational commitment</i>			
Perceived organizational support	.506*	.074	.498*
Social inclusion	.103	.083	.091

Note. $n = 208$.

* $p < .05$.

social inclusion became non-significant ($\beta = .091$, $p > .05$) once POS was entered in the equation (see Table 8). No other mediating effects were found.

7. Discussion

The current study builds on past findings that single workers experience family-friendly backlash (Young, 1996; Young, 1999) by developing the construct and measurement of singles-friendly culture. Results suggest singles-friendly culture is a multi-dimensional construct which can be reliably measured. We also contributed to the nomological network for this construct and tested a model of how singles-friendly culture relates to support perceptions and organizational attachment for childfree singles. We found that singles perceive less equal treatment with respect to nonwork support than employees with families and that this perception relates to organizational outcomes among singles.

7.1. Construct and measure development and validation

A primary goal of this study was construct and measurement development for singles-friendly culture. We created a measure that could reliability assess five distinct dimensions of singles-friendly culture: social inclusion, equal work opportunities, equal access to benefits, equal respect for nonwork life, and equal work expectations. Each subscale had adequate reliability and confirmatory factor analysis substantiated the notion that singles-friendly culture has five distinct but related dimensions. Although the measurement model fit well for singles and employees with families, the weights differed slightly between groups and model fit was best for singles. Given the goal of this study was to understand a perception relevant to singles and how this related to singles' organizational attachment, this is not surprising. However, because the measurement model also fit well for workers with families, use of this measure with groups other than singles seems reasonable.

Although there were no differences between singles and those with families in perceived social inclusion, workers with families believed their employers provided more equal work opportunities for singles, more equal access to benefits, more equal respect for nonwork roles, and more equal work expectations. These results are consistent with our hypotheses drawn from equity theory research. Equity theory research has found that workers are more sensitive to under-reward relative to others than over-reward (Mowday, 1996). The

fact that singles perceived less equity in how their organizations dealt with work-life issues suggests singles (i.e., under-rewarded) react more to this inequity than do employees with families (i.e., over-rewarded), consistent with findings on under- and over-reward inequity. Such perceived inequity in nonwork support may have important consequences for organizations. Because perceptions of unfairness have been linked to employee theft (Greenberg, 1990) and retaliation (Sharlicki & Folger, 1997), employees that possess perceptions of inequity may engage in more counter-productive behaviors.

The current study found various work-related demographics were related to singles-friendly culture. Managers and professionals perceived more equal work opportunities, equal work expectations, and equal access to benefits. Since managers and professionals have greater access to work-life policies (Swanburg et al., 2005; USDL, 2002), they may experience over-reward and thus, lack sensitivity to inequity (Mowday, 1996). Those in service industries also reported greater equity in benefits than those in retail. Given retail organizations employ many low wage workers (Kim & Taylor, 1995) with non-traditional work hours, it may be difficult to provide some forms of work-life support, given the need for holiday work and other non-traditional work hours. Finally, workers with higher incomes perceived more equal work expectations and access to benefits, consistent with findings that higher income workers have greater access to work-life support (Swanburg et al., 2005). Thus, less privileged singles (i.e., lower income, lower level jobs) may be most sensitive to inequity in work-life support given they may receive the lowest level of organizational support given both their single status and their lower social status in employment (Swanburg et al., 2005).

Finally, we also examined the relationship between work-family culture and singles-friendly culture. The three facets of work-family culture were related to singles-friendly culture in different ways. Managerial support for family was positively related to all facets of singles-friendly culture, but exhibited the strongest relationships with social inclusion and equal respect for nonwork life. Thus, managers that support family also appear to support nonwork roles other than family and be sensitive to employees' social needs. Past research has found that the supervisor is critical to use of work-family policies (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988; Thompson et al., 1999; Warren & Johnson, 1995). Managers can interfere with employee utilization of work-family policies (Perlow, 1995) and employees with supportive and powerful supervisors are more likely to use these policies (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002). Given managerial support for family relates to other forms of nonwork support and social inclusion, future research should examine how supervisors can facilitate or thwart the perception of singles-friendly culture.

Career consequences of work-family benefit use and singles-friendly culture were also positively related for all five dimensions. Career consequences refer to the fact that an organization penalizes employees who use work-family policies in terms of career advancement (Thompson et al., 1999). Research suggests that some employees fear negative career consequences if they participate in work-family programs and that this leads to underutilization of policies (Harris et al., 2002). The current study suggests that when workers are penalized for using work-family policies, more equity between singles and workers with families is perceived. This highlights that fact that equity at work is not always about positive supportive aspects of the organization. Equity can exist when an organization supports all workers or when an organization is uniformly unsupportive. Thus, future studies should examine differences between equity due to uniform support and equity due to consistent low supportiveness.

Finally, organizational time demands were negatively related to all singles-friendly culture facets. When employees work long hours, this impedes work-life balance, and employees perceive their organizations as unsupportive of nonwork. It is interesting that when employees perceive excessive hours, they perceive less equity between singles and those with families. Thus, excessive time demands may be as much or more of a concern for singles than for employees with families. Given qualitative findings that singles are subject to greater overwork than employees with families (Kirby & Krone, 2002; Young, 1999), future quantitative work should examine actual hours worked by singles and employees with families to determine if this inequity in work hours can be corroborated.

7.2. Singles-friendly culture and organizational outcomes

Although five facets of singles-friendly culture could be reliably measured, the degree to which they predicted the attitudes and behavioral intentions of childfree singles differed. Social inclusion was particularly critical given it uniquely predicted both affective organizational commitment and POS. Because some singles suffer from isolation and few socially supportive relationships (Bruzze, 1999; Young, 1996; Young, 1999), they may look to work to provide a sense of community and connection with others. Thus, if singles fill social as well as financial needs at work, social inclusion may be crucial. This is consistent with compensation theory (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990) which posits that involvement in multiple domains is beneficial such that when one domain (i.e., work) is lacking, people derive greater satisfaction from another domain (i.e., family). Because childfree singles do not have traditional families to provide compensation from nonwork, they may look to work for satisfaction.

In addition to social inclusion, equal respect for nonwork life also predicted POS. This suggests that organizational support for nonwork can influence worker attitudes for employees of diverse personal situations, not just those with traditional families who have been the focus of work-life research (Casper et al., 2007). Organizations most often offer work-life policies and benefits when they have large numbers of female employees with dependent care needs (Goodstein, 1994, 1995). However, the current study suggests that support for work-life issues is important to more diverse employees. Given work-life policies can enhance the desirability of the organization in recruitment (Casper & Buffardi, 2004) and have a positive financial impact (Bright Horizons Family Solutions, 1997), organizations might enhance these positive outcomes by providing work-life programs that appeal to a wider array of employees.

The current study suggests that general support perceptions are key in organizations' responsiveness to work-nonwork issues. When organizations include working singles socially this influences outcomes through POS. Including singles socially at work contributes to their sense of being valued by the organization, and can also facilitate social exchange in which employees reciprocate with greater organizational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1986). This, in conjunction with evidence that POS relates to turnover and organizational citizenship behavior (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), suggests that inclusive organizations may reap the benefits of social exchange by developing workers who are more willing to go the extra mile for the organization.

Finally, although social inclusion and equal respect for nonwork roles predicted POS and affective commitment, only equal work opportunities related to turnover intentions. Thus, distinct facets of singles-friendly culture appear to relate to different positive

outcomes. Although being socially included and respected relates to attitudes, unequal access to opportunities is critical for single employees who consider leaving their jobs. Workers with partners are usually members of dual-earner households (Hochschild, 1997). Because singles have only one income, they may be more concerned about career development, work opportunities, and financial stability than those with partners. Given single workers comprise a significant portion of the workforce (American Association for Single People, 2001) and turnover is costly to organizations (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000; Mobley, 1982), organizations that ensure career opportunities are equally available to single workers may benefit from savings due to reduced turnover.

7.3. Practical implications

This study found that singles perceived more inequity in work-life support from their organizations than did those with families. Given the link between perceived inequity and counter-productive behavior (Greenberg, 1990; Sharlicki & Folger, 1997), organizations that support work-life issues in an equitable way may benefit from less negative employee behavior.

Findings also indicate that organizations that are inclusive of single childfree workers can enhance worker attachment through a sense of support. Organizations might consider this when planning social functions at work. Sponsoring social functions that include workers both with and without families should facilitate organizational attachment for all workers.

Organizational support for nonwork may also affect more diverse employees than one might expect. Thus, organizations would benefit from ensuring their work-life programs support various nonwork roles. For example, flexible work schedules can be used to manage any work-nonwork need, not just family. Finally, career options seem crucial to turnover of singles. Therefore, organizations that provide access to mentoring and career development programs may enhance retention of single employees.

7.4. Limitations and directions for future research

As with all research, this study has some limitations. Because we used cross-sectional self-report data, common-method variance may have inflated relationships and causality can not be inferred. However, Doty and Glick (1998) found that although common-method variance often influences results, the bias is rarely large enough to invalidate findings. Still, future research with longitudinal designs should validate the magnitudes of the relationships studied and allow exploration of causal relationships.

Our web-based data collection also omits potential participants without access to computers. Given participants were mostly in their mid-20s and never married, caution should be urged in generalizing beyond this group. Findings may not generalize to older, divorced or widowed workers or those with greater work experience. Thus, future research should use more diverse samples of singles (e.g., divorced, older) and methods that allow exploration of non-response bias.

Finally, with the exception of some basic demographics, the relationship between individual differences and singles-friendly culture was not examined. Given people differ in their equity sensitivity such that they exhibit preferences for over-reward, under-reward, and equity (Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987), future research should examine the degree to which equity sensitivity influences singles-friendly culture perceptions.

Despite these limitations, the current study contributes to the literature by exploring work-nonwork issues for single workers without children. This enhances our understanding of these issues among an important but previously neglected group.

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