AGE DIFFERENCES IN ATTRACTION TO INSTRUMENTAL AND SYMBOLIC ORGANIZATIONAL ATTRIBUTES

by

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Abstract

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As the demographic landscape in business continues to get more diverse, the need to examine what attracts individuals of different demographic attributes to organizations becomes increasingly more important. This study examined the extent to which individuals across different age groups were attracted to organizations offering different incentives. Specifically, it examined whether the presence of symbolic attributes (work-life balance or corporate social responsibility statements) affected people of different ages in their ratings of attraction to organizations. It also looked at the effect of these symbolic attributes on attraction to an organization over and above the instrumental attribute of pay. The results and implications are discussed.

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Chapter 1

Age Differences in Attraction to Instrumental and Symbolic Attributes

As young people enter the workplace, and those of older generations remain, organizations are faced with the conundrum of how to attract individuals of varying ages to the same organization. Organizations that position themselves to attract a large applicant pool may select from the top of the talent pool (Turban & Cable, 2003); however, to garner a larger talent pool, an organization must be able to attract many different types of applicants. Although little research has explored the types of organizations workers of different ages are attracted to, Ehrhart and Ziegert (2005) called for researchers to examine how demographic variables may affect attraction to organizations. Age is one demographic variable which may relate to what organizational characteristics job applicants find attractive in potential employers.

To attract the best applicants, an organization must take into account who is in the applicant pool and what those individuals want from an organization. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2008), the number of people in the largest growing group in the workplace, people over the age of 55, is expected to nearly double in size by 2016, to represent 6.1% of the US workforce. This means the workforce will continue to experience even greater age diversity. This age diversity is often discussed in terms of three major generational groups – the Baby Boom Generation, Generation X, and Generation Y. Though there is not absolute

agreement in the literature as to exact birth dates which reflect these generational cohorts, typically the Baby Boomers are described as people born between 1946 and 1964. People of Generation X are often described as being born between 1965 and 1980. Finally, those born between 1981 and 2000 have been typically been termed Generation Y (Frandsen, 2009; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002).

The age diversity of today's workforce is an important consideration for employers to take into account in recruitment, because applicants of different ages may look for different things in an employer. Research has found that applicant perceptions of person-organization fit, or the degree to which their values match those of the organization, is an important predictor of applicant interest in a job (Carless, 2005). This may occur because age may relate to a person's values, and thus, the degree to which a person perceives a fit with a particular organization may vary by age. Many researchers have suggested such age-based differences in values. Specifically, it has been argued that younger workers expect to be provided with more opportunities for work-life balance (Carver & Candela, 2008) and that older workers prefer tangible rewards such as bonuses or company-wide recognition (Kupperschmidt, 2000). However, little empirical research has actually explored what role age-related values may play in preferences for certain types of work organizations (Hanson & Leuty, 2012), and the empirical research that has been conducted is equivocal. Some research finds age differences in employee work values (Twenge, 2010; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance,

2010), and other research does not (Deal, Altman, & Rogelberg, 2010; Gentry, Griggs, Deal, Mondore, & Cox, 2011).

If there are age differences in what people value in an employer, this poses a challenge to organizations that wish to attract these seemingly different individuals. The purpose of this study is to examine how age influences the organizational characteristics to which people are attracted. In doing so, I draw from person-organization fit theory (Kristof, 1996) and signaling theory (Rynes, 1991; Spence, 1973) to explore the degree to which age is important in attraction to organizations that offer extrinsic rewards (i.e., pay), opportunities for leisure (i.e., policies and culture promoting work-life balance), and opportunities to express altruistic values (i.e., corporate social responsibility). In short, I aim to answer these questions: Do people of different ages have different work values? If so, how do these different work values affect attraction to organizations which express such work values?

Differences in Values across Age and Generations

Generations are defined as groups of individuals who share common experiences in their formative years (Kupperschmidt, 2000). Experiences might include world events, political movements, economic situations, disasters, and pop culture icons (Hansen & Leuty, 2012). These early experiences are proposed to create a relatively stable "collective memory" among people as they move into adulthood (Joshi, Dencker, & Franz, 2011). This *collective memory* is posited to

affect the values, ideas, and needs of each member of that generation, which can result in people from the same generational cohort having more similar attitudes and values than those from different generational cohorts (Dencker, Joshi, & Martocchio, 2008). Based on these more similar values and attitudes, people of a more similar chronological age may share more similar values, and thus, be attracted to more similar organizational characteristics than are people whose chronological age is different (Zenger & Lawrence, 1989).

Rokeach (1973) defined a value as an "enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence (p. 5)." Work values are understood as the aspects of the job or work that are necessary for job satisfaction (Hansen & Leuty, 2012). Work values can be classified as instrumental or terminal values (Jin & Rounds, 2012).

Instrumental values refer to modes of behavior that are deemed desirable (e.g., ambition or honesty). Terminal values, on the other hand, are end states that a person desires to achieve such as a comfortable life or wisdom (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). According to self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000), values can be further broken down into intrinsic values, or values related to psychological needs (i.e., competence or autonomy), and extrinsic values, or materialistic values such as pay or job security (Jin & Rounds, 2012). The importance a person places on any of these given values may relate to age. When

collective memory is shared with other people in an age cohort, these similar experiences may lead people to develop more similar values (Joshi, et al, 2011).

Several studies have found age-based differences in work values, which authors have attributed to generational differences in collective memory. In a cross-sectional study by Lyons, Higgins, and Duxbury (2007), the work values of older workers were found to be different from those of younger workers. They looked at five core values: intrinsic ("work that provided mental stimulation and is psychologically rewarding," p. 66), extrinsic ("work that provides good levels of tangible rewards such as salary, benefits, and job security," p. 66), prestige ("work that is highly esteemed and recognized by others," p. 66), altruism ("work that benefits people and society," p. 66), and social ("work that allows for social interaction with other people," p.66). Workers classified as Generation X (ages 28-42), reported that they valued intrinsic factors more than did workers who were older (known as Baby Boomers). Generation Y workers (ages 18-27) reported that they valued the opportunity for social interaction and prestige more than older workers (Generation X, and Baby Boomers). Of course, because this study was cross-sectional, it is not clear whether these differences were a function of generational cohort effects or developmental effects associated with age (i.e., maturity related changes).

A study by Twenge and her colleagues (2010) used data on values from a survey that was administered annually to graduating high school seniors dating

back to 1976. Because this study longitudinally compared workers of different generations who were all at the same age at the time they completed the survey (high school seniors), differences should reflect generational effects, as opposed to age-based maturational differences which are controlled for with this type of longitudinal design. Similar to Lyons, Duxbury and Higgins (2005), Twenge et al. (2010) found that people classified as Generation X (those born between 1965 and 1981) placed greater value on intrinsic rewards relative to those classified as Generation Y (those born between 1982-1999) and Baby Boomers (those born between 1946-1964). Moreover, members of Generation Y valued extrinsic rewards more than those from Generation X, who valued them more than Baby Boomers. Contrary to Lyons et al. (2005), Twenge et al. (2010) found no generational differences with respect to valuing altruism or opportunities for social interaction at work. Twenge et al. (2010) also examined the importance of leisure time, and found that those classified as Generation Y valued leisure time more than those from Generation X, who valued it more than members of the Baby Boomer generation.

In a cross section study, Rael, Mitnick, and Maloney (2010) examined the work ethics of people of different ages along seven dimensions (hard work, self-reliance, leisure, centrality of work, morality/ethics, wasted time, and delay of gratification) as well as two job values (intrinsic values and social values). They found that the youngest workers, referred to as Generation Y (those born between

1980-2000) rated leisure, self-reliance, and delay of gratification as more important than the oldest workers, referred to as Baby Boomers (those born between 1946-1964), who rated morality/ethics has more important. Generation Y members also rated social values (i.e., "permits contact with lots of people") and intrinsic values (i.e., "work that is interesting") as more important than Baby Boomers or members of Generation X (those born between 1965-1979), but the effect was relatively small.

Smola and Sutton (2002) used a work values survey conducted in 1974 and re-administered the same survey to a new generation of MBA students in 1999 in order to control for age. The only criteria for inclusion in the study, was that the participants were employed full time. The first set of data from 1974 consisted mostly of people who were members of the Baby Boomer generation (born between 1945-1964) and the data from 1999 included mostly members of Generation X (born between 1965-1977). Due to the extremely low numbers of participants from any other generation in either study, only these two groups were examined. Boomers indicated greater agreement with questions dealing with the importance of work in one's life, indicating that work should take priority over other life domains, than did members of Generation X. Members of Generation X scored significantly higher than did those from the Baby Boomer generation on the moral importance of work, indicating that they believed that being a hard worker contributes to being a better person. This indicates a general shift in work

values from individuals beginning their career in 1974 and those beginning their careers in 1999. The Baby Boomer generation looked at work as the central component of one's sense of self, where the members of generation X believed working hard could make you a better person, but work was not necessarily central to one's identity.

One concern with most studies that examine "generational differences" in work values is that the cross-sectional designs they typically use confound the effects of generational cohort and maturational effects of age. With the exception of Twenge et al. (2010) and Smola and Sutton (2002), studies of "generational" differences in work values have not eliminated age-based maturational effects as an explanation for differences by conducting longitudinal research and controlling for age of the participant. Thus, it is not clear whether differences are due to generational cohort effects or age-based maturational effects. However, several recent studies on work values suggest that, given the stability of values over the life course, generational cohort differences are a reasonable explanation for findings.

For instance, a meta-analysis of longitudinal within-subjects studies of work values (Jin & Rounds, 2012) examined how people's values change over time. Results suggested that once values are formed, they are relatively consistent over time. Values were least stable during the traditional college years (age 18-22), but became relatively stable within a few years after college. Extrinsic values

were found to remain most stable over time, followed by social, intrinsic and lastly status values, though none of the four values differed significantly from each other. When age was examined as a moderating variable, the same pattern held across each generation. In short, this research suggests that after the collegiate years, a person's values tend to remain relatively consistent over time. The fact that the values a person establishes in their mid-twenties are likely to be relatively stable through life, suggests that value differences observed in many past studies may reflect generational cohort effects.

In a longitudinal examination of work values across generational cohorts, Hansen and Leuty (2012) found evidence for generational differences in work values after controlling for age effects. Participants completed the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (value survey) as part of a vocational assessment center over a 30 year period and generational differences were examined, controlling for age. Results indicated that newer generational cohorts placed more importance on values such as self-actualization, which involved characteristics such as creativity, developing skills and abilities, and using one's knowledge. Intrinsic values were also considered more important among members of newer generational cohorts. Individualistic values such as lifestyle, being unique, playfulness, and autonomy were also rated as more important by these newer cohorts than by older cohorts. Thus, even when age is controlled for, generational cohort differences seemed to still exist (Hansen & Leuty, 2012).

Taken together, the extant research suggests that workers of different ages may indeed possess different values, and that the effects may be related to their generational cohort. If workers of different ages have different values, whether they perceive a potential employer as a "fit" with their values varies as a function of their age. Value congruence refers to the similarity between the values held by an individual and those held by an organization (Chatman, 1989). Applicant perceptions of value congruence have been found to be positively related to attraction to an organization (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Cable & Judge, 1996). If an organization conveys particular values to job applicants (e.g., though information on a website, given at a job fair, etc.), those with similar values should be more attracted to the organization.

Organizational Attraction

Organizational attraction is defined as a positive attitude or affect toward an organization that leads to a desire to create a relationship with that organization (Aiman-Smith, Bauer, & Cable, 2001). It is typically experienced in initial stages of recruitment when applicants are searching for job vacancies (Gomes & Neves, 2010), and is important because it relates to an applicant's actual pursuit of employment (Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005).

During the selection process potential applicants weigh different job and organizational characteristics to determine if a potential vacancy, or organization, is a good fit (Chatman, 1991). These job and organizational characteristics are

often the basis for forming initial impressions of fit with an organization and provide the basis for the initial attraction (Thomas & Wise, 1999). Information provided to applicants is drawn on by applicants throughout the recruitment process to foster an understanding of the organization and its members (Rynes & Barber, 1990) and determine which organizations an applicant should continue to pursue and which he/she should not (Schwab, Rynes, & Aldag, 1987). Applicants are often attracted to organizations with characteristics that they infer to espouse values that are similar to their own (Chatman, 1991). An organization's reputation, size, and notably, compensation information, have each independently have been shown to be important predictors of attraction to an organization (Boswell, Roehling, LePine, & Moynihan, 2003). Applicants can begin to develop impressions about an organization's reputation even with minimal exposure to and little information about it (Slaughter, Zickar, Highhouse, & Mohr, 2004).

An applicant's initial impression of an organization is based on incomplete information (Schwoerer & Rosen, 1989). Signaling theory posits that decisions are made without complete information. Signaling theory originally argued that applicants send signals (alterable personal characteristics such as education) to organizations to indicate that he or she would be a good candidate for a job (Spence, 1973). Since its conception, this theory has been broadened to various fields to explore how both organizations and people make decisions when there is incomplete information in fields as diverse as organizational strategy and

applicant job choice (Karasek & Bryant, 2012). When applied to applicant decision making, signaling theory suggests that because applicants do not have all the information they desire to make an accurate judgment about a potential employer, the information they do possess is interpreted as signals for other organizational characteristics that they care about (Rynes, 1991; Goldberg & Allen, 2008; Turban & Cable, 2003). Thus, observable actions of employees and the organization can be used to infer unobservable characteristics of an organization such as whether they exhibit care and concern for employees (McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010). Using these characteristics as signals, applicants make inferences about whether or not their personality, values, and needs fit with the organization (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). The positive reputation of a firm serves as a signal for applicants that the organization would be a good place to work (Turban & Cable, 2003).

Organizational attraction can change throughout the recruitment process as applicants gain more information about the actual environment of the organization (Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005), and their perceptions of value congruence with the organization change (Rentsch & McEwen, 2002). If information about the organization's characteristics and what it supplies to fulfill applicants' psychological needs matches with the desires of an applicant, he/she will perceive fit with the organization (Harold & Ployhart, 2008). The greater the perception of

fit with the organization, the greater the attraction the applicant will have to the organization (Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005).

Person-Organizational Fit and the Similarity-Attraction Paradigm

Person-organization (P-O) fit is defined as "the compatibility between a person and organization that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both" (Kristof, 1996, p. 4). According to Kristof (1996), there are two types of PO fit: compatibility and congruence. Compatibility looks at supplementary and complementary fit. Supplementary fit occurs when an individual possesses characteristics similar to those of an organization. Complimentary fit occurs when either an individual's characteristics fill a hole and meet a need in the organizational environment, or the organizational environment fulfills a need of the individual.

PO fit has also been conceptualized as the congruence between a person and an organization (Kristof, 1996). There are two forms of congruence: needs-supply and demands-ability. Needs-supply PO fit occurs when what the organization supplies satisfy the needs of the individual (e.g. financial, psychological, interpersonal, or growth). Demands-ability PO fit occurs when the individual has the abilities to meet the demands of the organization (i.e. time, commitment, KSAs; Kristof, 1996). Within the context of applicant job choice, an applicant's perception of their PO fit with an organization is an important

predictor of their attraction to the organization and intentions to pursue employment (Carless, 2005; Cable & Judge, 1996). Applicant perceptions of both supplementary fit and/or needs-supplies fit with a potential employer may both be relevant.

Two meta-analyses found that an applicant's perception of fit predicts attraction to organizations and intentions to actually apply for open positions (Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). An applicant's perception of fit begins with the initial exposure to an organization and is altered as the person navigates the relationship with the organization (Kristof, 1996). Initial positive perceptions of PO fit from initial exposure to the organization are important in the beginning process of the selection procedure; such that the greater the perceived fit of applicants, the more likely they were to engage in and move forward in the selection processes with the organization (Carless, 2005). As one acquires information about the organization PO fit is continually assessed based on several dimensions: independence in work, relationship with co-workers, potential for self-development, creativity in the job, money earned, lifestyle afforded by the work, prestige of the work, altruistic nature of the work, security in the job, potential for management opportunities, ability to detach from the organization outside of working hours, physical activity of the work, and finally, the surroundings or environment of the organizations (Hesketh & Gardner, 1993).

Though applicants may not possess all the information necessary to evaluate the organizations on all possible dimensions that are relevant to their interest in the organization, Rentsch and McEwen (2002) found a positive relationship between perceived person-organization fit and organizational attraction.

The underlying process through which perceptions of person-organization fit influence organizational attraction can be explained by the similarity-attraction paradigm (Dineen, Ash, & Noe, 2002). The similarity attraction paradigm suggests that people are typically more attracted to others who are more similar to them than to those who are less similar to them. The greater the similarity that exists, the greater the attraction between people (Byrne, 1971). At an interpersonal level, attraction is enhanced by both attitude similarity (Brown & Abrams, 1986) and personality similarity (Hoffman & Maier, 1966). Similarity with others in beliefs and attitudes validate and reinforce one's own ideas, affect and behaviors (Harrison, Price, Gavin, & Florey, 2002).

When making comparisons, individuals, anchored by their own attributes, assess the information (i.e. values, beliefs, and personality) that any entity, for example an organization, provides. If that information is regarded positively (i.e. values, beliefs, and personality) the entity is more likely to be judged favorably (Ajzen, 1974). Furthermore, individuals assign importance to the attributes known about an entity, and the more salient and important the attribute is to the person,

the more attracted one becomes to an entity that is similar on that attribute (Montoya & Horton, 2013).

The similarity-attraction hypothesis can be applied to understanding how people form an attraction to an organization. In the same way that people form an attraction to a person based on perceived similarity, they may also become attracted to organizations that they perceive are similar to themselves in important ways (i.e., shared values). Two predictions stem from the similarity-attraction hypothesis. First, as the relationship continues and more similarities are found, the attraction should continue to increase. Second, people project their own sense of self on the other entity in the relationship, thereby further increasing attraction (Byrne, 1971). This is thought to occur without conscious awareness, such that perceived similarity is as or more important in predicting attraction as actual similarity (Hoyle, 1993). In forming fit perceptions, applicants may pay more attention to information that is more important to them, such that those attributes have more influence on their perceptions of P-O fit, and ultimately, their attraction to an organization (Montoya & Horton, 2013).

Perceived similarity to members of an organization has been found to predict attraction to that organization, as individuals may project member attributes as attributes of the organization (Devendorf & Highhouse, 2008). The greater proportion of attitudes/beliefs that members of the organization express that the applicant him- or herself relates to, the greater the perceived similarity

and thus, attraction to the organization (Montoya & Horton, 2013). Applicants may draw from what they know about individuals in an organization and assume that the ideas, attitudes or beliefs of the organization are the same (Celani & Singh, 2011). Ultimately applicants are seeking supplementary person-organization fit (Judge & Cable, 1997; Rentsch & McEwen, 2002). That is, applicants desire a place where they share similar values and attitudes with others in the organization. The greater an applicant's perception of person-organization fit, the greater the attraction to the organization (Carless, 2005). The primary characteristic individuals' judge fit on is values (Dineen et al., 2002). As values are relatively enduring characteristics of individuals and organizations, a perception of P-O value congruence may lead applicants to believe that this similarity can lead to satisfactory long term employment with an organization (Chatman, 1991). This perceived fit, similarity or congruence in values, is a predictor of attraction (Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005; Harold & Ployhart, 2008; Judge & Cable, 1997; Schreurs, Druart, Proost, & De Witte, 2009) and attraction outcomes such as accepting a job offer (Chapman et al, 2005).

Instrumental and Symbolic Attributes

Organizational attributes can be classified as either instrumental or symbolic. According to the Instrumental-Symbolic Framework (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003), instrumental attributes are attributes or functions that describe the organization or its products objectively and in a tangible manner. In contrast,

symbolic attributes are those that describe the organization subjectively and in an intangible way. Instrumental attributes, which are concrete or factual, are characteristics that the organization either possesses or does not possess (BakanauskienĖ, BendaraviČIenĖ, KrikŠTolaitis, & Lydeka, 2011), including pay, industry, firm location, firm size (Schreurs et al., 2009), advancement opportunities, and job security (Van Hoye & Saks, 2011). Information on instrumental characteristics is likely to be readily available to applicants (Schreurs et al., 2009) through mechanisms released by the organization itself (i.e., a company website) or through third-party groups (i.e., *Fortune Magazine*). Applicants weigh instrumental information from a utilitarian perspective (Van Hoye & Saks, 2011) by considering the maximum rewards against the minimal costs (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003). Instrumental attributes may be the basis for an initial attraction to an organization, but symbolic attributes are just as important in predicting job choice outcomes (Schreurs et al., 2009).

Symbolic attributes are the trait-based (BakanauskienĖ et al., 2011) or abstract characteristics (Van Hoye & Saks, 2011) that allow applicants to identify with or express themselves (Schreurs et al., 2009). Understood through the lens of signaling theory (Rynes, 1991), symbolic attributes serve as signals that applicants use to make inferences about the organization – what the organization is and how they might be treated if they were a member of it (Van Hoye & Saks, 2011). These intangible attributes are represented by five general factors:

sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness (Van Hoye & Saks, 2011). Sincerity is the degree to which the organization is perceived to be warm and accepting. Excitement is the degree to which the organization is perceived to be trendy and imaginative. Competence is the degree to which the organization is perceived to be reliable or conscientious. Sophistication and ruggedness are the degree to which the organization is perceived to be prestigious and masculine, respectively (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003). In particular, the traits of sincerity and competence seem to be important predictors of attraction to organizations (Van Hoye & Saks, 2011).

Because of the importance of both instrumental and symbolic attributes, the role of both instrumental and symbolic organizational characteristics in organizational attraction is examined in the current study. The instrumental characteristic examined is pay level, given much research suggests that pay is important in job choice (Rynes & Barber, 1990; Cable & Judge, 1994) and that the degree that pay is valued may differ among different age groups (Bellenger, Wilcox, & Ingram, 1984; Hansen & Leuty, 2012). Two symbolic organizational policies are also explored - work-life balance and corporate social responsibility. These two symbolic characteristics were chosen because they are expected to symbolize values (work-life balance, altruism) that are differentially appealing to applicants of different ages (Smola & Sutton, 2002; Twenge, Campbell, & Freeman, 2012).

Pay

Instrumental attributes describe the organization or its products objectively and in a tangible manner (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003). One such attribute that is important to most applicants is pay level. Research has found, not surprisingly, that applicants are more attracted to organizations with reputations for higher pay relative to those with reputations for paying less (Cable & Judge, 1994; Harold & Ployhart, 2008; Jatmiko, 2004; Wayne & Casper, 2012). Although people in general find higher pay to be more attractive than lower pay, the degree to which pay is influential in organizational attraction may vary across people. For instance, research has found that younger people, and those making less money, are more attracted to companies offering higher salaries relative to older people, and those currently earning more money (Ingram & Bellenger, 1983). Similarly, Bellenger and colleagues (1984) found that younger people rated pay as most important compared to older groups. Recently, Ng and Feldman (2010) found a weak relationship between age and pay satisfaction - older adults were more satisfied with their pay their younger individuals.

Research has found that Generation X members (born between 1965 and 1980) rated compensation as more important than did older people who were born before 1965 (Hansen & Leuty, 2012). A review by Hansen and Leuty (2012) found that utilitarian values, such as pay, prestige, and advancement, were ranked as more important for each successive generation, with younger workers ranking

pay more important than older workers. Twenge and her colleagues (2012) found a similar trend in which younger generations (Generation X and even more so Generation Y) rated "being very well off financially" much more important than did Baby Boomers at the same age, suggesting the tendency to value pay highly may be a generational cohort effect. Following a linear trend, members of the Baby Boomer ranked pay as less important than those of Generation X, which ranked it less important than Generation Y. Generation Y members also placed the greatest importance on personal financial concerns (i.e. paying rent/bills) more generally than older generations (Twenge et al., 2012).

Hypothesis 1: Applicants will be most attracted to companies offering above average pay than those offering average pay.

Hypothesis 1a: The relationship between pay level and organizational attraction will be moderated by age, such that the relationship will be stronger among younger participants than among older participants.

Though instrumental attributes may attract applicants to a company early in the selection process, symbolic attributes have been shown to be just as important (Schreurs et al., 2009); (Bakanauskiene et al., 2011). Though instrumental attributes like pay may be important, they are not solely responsible

for attraction (Boswell et al., 2003; Lievens & Highhouse, 2003). Recruitment researchers have long proposed the value of nonmonetary inducements in successful recruitment (Rynes & Barber, 1990; Heneman & Berkley, 1999).

Work-Life Balance

Balancing of work roles and home roles is a major concern for many of today's workers (Carless & Wintle, 2007). Although there is still debate among scholars as to how to define work-life balance; there is agreement that balance is something many employees desire (Carlson, Grzywcz, & Zivnuska, 2009; Frone, 2003, Voydanoff, 2005). Work-life balance policies are used to support a lifestyle in which employees can experience satisfaction in the life domains they engage in outside of work (Carless & Wintle, 2007). These may include flexibility policies, which allow for alternative working arrangements (Bourhis & Mekkaoui, 2010), or family support policies, which make available the necessary resources to facilitate providing care for dependents (Butts, Caper & Yang, 2013). As such, organizations that are perceived to be supportive of employees' quest to find work-life balance should be perceived as more attractive employers than those who are not.

Several studies have explored the influence of work-life balance policies on organizational attraction. In an experiment with MBA students, Rau and Hyland (2002) explored the role of flexibility policies including flextime and telecommuting on organizational attraction. This study found that people with

higher work-family conflict were more attracted to organizations offering flextime than traditional work arrangements. Even those with lower reported conflict were more attracted to telecommuting options over traditional work arrangements (Rau & Hyland, 2002). In fact, the simple presence of a work-life balance policy statement has been found to increase job pursuit intentions (Wayne & Casper, 2012). Another study found that participants viewing scenarios where flexible scheduling was not offered exhibited less attraction to an organization than those viewing scenarios that offered some type of flexible work arrangements (Nadler, Cundiff, Lowery, & Jackson, 2010).

Honeycutt and Rosen (1997) found that organizations that offered flexible or dual career paths and polices which allowed for greater potential balance between work and family were more attractive to applicants than organizations that offered only traditional career paths and polices. Similarly, Careless and Wintle (2007) found that the opportunity for flexible and dual career paths over a traditional career path increased attraction to organizations. They did not find that flexible career paths were significantly more attractive to applicants than dual career paths in the overall sample. However, among younger applicants, organizations that offered flexible paths were more attractive (Careless & Wintle, 2007), suggesting age may be important in attraction to work-life balance policies.

Although much research suggests organizations that offer work-life balance policies are seen as more attractive to applicants than those organizations that do not, fewer studies have explored the mechanism through which this symbolic attribute exerts its effect on attraction. Several studies by Casper and her colleagues (2004; 2012) identified a possible mechanism - anticipated organizational support. That is, applicants may perceive that organizations that offer work-life policies are more supportive of employees, and applicants are more interested in pursuing jobs with a supportive organization (Casper & Buffardi, 2004). In fact, a strong reputation in terms of being a family friendly employer even attracts people that do not currently have family responsibilities through creating a perception that the employer would be supportive (Wayne & Casper, 2012).

Long ago Rynes and Barber (1990) proposed that those organizations, who, due to constraints, could only offer below average pay, could offset the negative effects of low pay by providing non-financial encouragements, such as flexible scheduling or telecommuting. Recent research has found some applicants are indeed willing to earn lower salaries to work in a supportive organizational culture that allows for work-life balance (Catanzaro, Moore, & Marshall, 2010). As such, work-life balance policies can be interpreted as symbolic of other attributes that people want in their employer. Symbolic attributes, such as sincerity (which is related to warmth and acceptance), can attract individuals to

organizations above and beyond instrumental attributes (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003). Applicants use symbolic attributes to make inferences about the organization and what working there would involve (Van Hoye & Saks, 2011).

Consistent with signaling theory (Rynes, 1991), an organization can send messages to applicants about its culture by promoting policies that would attract their desired applicant to the organization. In fact, past research has found that work-life balance policies serve as symbolic signals from the organization that the company is concerned about and will support its employees (Casper & Harris, 2008). Perceptions of organizational support have been found to mediate the relationship between work-life balance policies and various outcomes (Butts et al, 2013; Casper & Harris, 2008), including intentions to pursue employment (Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Wayne & Casper, 2012). Based on signaling theory and past research, it is argued that when work-life balance statements are present, applicants infer that the organization is supportive of employees and their families, which in turn, enhances their attraction to the organization.

> *Hypothesis 2*: Applicants will be more attracted to organizations with a work-life balance statement than those without work-life balance statements.

Hypothesis 2a: Anticipated organizational support will mediate the relationship between attraction and the presence of a WLB statement and organizational attractiveness.

Age can contribute to satisfaction with work-life balance policies (Abendroth & den Dulk, 2011). In a cross-sectional study, Whinghter (2009) found that members of the younger generations are more likely to desire and even expect an organization to offer work-life balance polices, and that those workers categorized as Generation X and Y were seeking greater separation between work and other aspects of their lives than were older workers who were classified as Baby Boomers.

Using high school seniors tested at various years, Twenge et al (2010) found that leisure values, such as time off work, increased in importance for each newer generation, such that Generation X cared more about leisure than did Baby Boomers, and Generation Y cared more about leisure than Generation X. In a similar study in which individuals of the same age were examined at two different points in time (1999 and 1974), the younger generation rated values such as 'having leisure and free time' as significantly more important than did the older generations and were less likely to agree with the idea 'work should be one of the most important parts of a person's life' than older generations (Smola & Sutton, 2002).

Younger adults seem to be far more concerned with an overall quality of life and balance between work and non-work than older adults (Carless & Wintle, 2007). In a cross sectional study where generational inclusion was determined by researchers based on age of participants, Generation Y members rated autonomy and work-life balance as more important than did Generation X members and members of the Baby Boomer generation. Generation X valued both of these dimensions more than Baby Boomers (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008). In another study, young (under the age of 30) job seekers were significantly more attracted to organizations that offered work-life balance policies over those that did not. These younger job seekers reported desiring a job that would afford them balance, claiming quality of life was more important than climbing the corporate ladder. Young job seekers preferred organizations with more flexible career paths which allow for balance, over traditional career paths where one is expected to put career above all else (Carless & Wintle, 2007). Applicants that were characterized as Generation Y were found to be more attracted to organizations with work-life balance statements, as they perceived better fit with those organizations than companies that did not espouse the importance of work-life balance (Ehrhart, Mayer & Zigert, 2012). These younger employees may perceive these various work-life balance policies as signals that the organization would support their desire to have a fulfilling personal life.

Hypothesis 2b: The relationship between presence of a WLB statement and perceived organizational support will be stronger for younger applicants than older applicants.

Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate social responsibility can be seen as a reflection of an organization's altruistic or social values (Jones, Willness, & MacNeil, 2009), hence, a symbolic attribute under the competence dimension – which is concerned with the conscientiousness of an organization – under the instrumentality-symbolic framework. Carroll (1979) defined corporate social responsibility as the "social responsibility of business encompass[ing] the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society had of organizations at a given point in time (p. 500)." It is based in stakeholder theory, the belief that organizations have a responsibility to multiple constituencies. These include stockholders, employees, investors, suppliers, clients, customers, distributors, and any other group that is directly affected by the survival of the organization. According to stakeholder theory, if the organization treats its stakeholders well and with respect, the stakeholder will perceive a duty to reciprocate, fostering positive outcomes for the organization (Carroll, 1999).

Conceptualized as a Venn diagram, Schwartz and Carroll (2003) proposed that organizations have three domains of social responsibility: economic, legal,

and ethical. Corporate social responsibility is represented by the overlapping portions of the diagram – that is, when actions are based on motivations related to not just one of the domains but a mixture of two, or the intersection of all three domains (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003).

The economic responsibility domain is defined as any activity committed by the business whose purpose (either directly or indirectly) is to maximize profits and shareholder value. The legal domain encompasses all federal, state, and local laws or legal principles stemming from case law. Organizations may be compliant, avoidant, or anticipatory in their adherence to the law. Finally, an organization is operating within the ethical responsibility domain if it is behaving within the perceived ethical beliefs of the society (stakeholders and general population) in relation to both the domestic and global relationships (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003).

Applicants make judgments about where organizations fall with respect to these distinct aspects of corporate social responsibility. Organizational actions that reflect corporate social responsibility have a direct positive influence on the evaluation of an organization's reputation (Martin & Ruiz, 2007). Organizations that rank high on perceptions of corporate social responsibility are typically seen as having a better reputation and as more attractive (Turban & Greening, 1996). A company's reputation for social and environmental responsibilities increases perceptions of organizational credibility and competence (Wei-Chi & Wen-Fen

Yang, 2010), increasing an applicant's intention to apply for a job vacancy with the organization (Jatmiko, 2004). The more an organization was perceived to embrace corporate social responsibility, the more likely applicants were to rank the organization as their top choice to join (Jones et al, 2009). The presence of corporate social responsibility programs can be a source of competitive advantage for an organization (Albinger & Freeman, 2000), attracting not only more job applicants (Evans & Davis, 2011), but better quality applicants – those with more education who are highly desirable to other employers (Albinger & Freeman, 2000).

> *Hypothesis 3*: Organizations with a corporate social responsibility statement will be rated as more attractive than those without a corporate social responsibility statement.

The presence of corporate social responsibility activities, through the espoused values of care for the natural environment or the community (Behrend & Baker, 2009), may serve as a signal of the organization's culture and general values drawing applicants who hold similar values (Greening & Turban, 2000). If this is an important attribute to an applicant, the information that an organization shares similar values increases perceptions of similarity (Ajzen, 1974); and thus,

corporate social responsibility policies can increase the attraction to an organization (Backhaus, Stone, & Heiner, 2002).

In a study by Kim and Park (2011), college students in their junior or senior year were found to perceive a high degree of PO fit based solely on the presence of corporate social responsibility statements. Presence of corporate social responsibility programs helped attract potential applicants even when the company was reported as being in a "slump," or currently in a poor business situation. Interestingly, regardless of individual differences, perceived fit was higher among all participants when an organization had a corporate social responsibility statement than when they did not. Furthermore, the perception of person-organization fit was shown to fully mediate the relationship between corporate social responsibility efforts and organizational attractiveness (Kim & Park, 2011). This perception of fit may be a reflection of applicants' ideal self-image as a socially responsible individual, even if their actual self is not. The congruence between the ideal self and the organization's values increases fit which in turn increases attraction to the organization (Nolan & Harold, 2010).

> *Hypothesis 3a*: An applicant's perception of fit with the organization will mediate the relationship between corporate social responsibility and organizational attractiveness.

Empirical research has found five social factors to consistently affect attraction: employee relations, the natural environment, product quality, treatment of women and minorities, and community relations (Turban & Greening, 1997; Backhaus et al., 2002; Behrend & Baker, 2009). Organizations that espouse environmental concern are typically rated as attractive by applicants, even if the individual does not personally hold that value (Jatmiko, 2004; Behrend & Baker, 2009). This may be due to the fact that environmental concern is currently en vogue, and therefore, organizations that focus on it are seen as attractive due to social desirability (Jatmiko, 2004). Interestingly, in a vignette study with an undergraduate sample, Lis (2012) found that environmental corporate social responsibility was rated lowest (though still significant) in importance of all the factors (diversity, employee relations, and product) in determining organizational attraction.

Organizations that are perceived as having high rates of communal orientation are ranked as particularly attractive to potential applicants (Jones et al., 2009). Backhaus et al. (2002) found that compared to the other five dimensions, community relations had the strongest effect on organizational attractiveness ratings. Jones, Willness, and Madley (2010) found that PO fit partially mediated the relationship between community relations and organizational attraction. This effect was stronger and more pronounced than the partial mediating effect of environmental policies. The explanation offered for

this was that, in accordance with signaling theory, community relations programs may send a more direct signal to applicants how the organization values people, which individuals may perceive as being similar to their own values (Jones et al, 2010). As would be expected within the attraction-similarity framework (Ajzen, 1974), when people rated community involvement as important to them, they rated the company with a community relations' orientation as the most attractive of all the hypothetical companies provided in the study. Furthermore, participants reported greater perceived fit with that particular organization compared to the other companies (Jones, et al, 2009).

> *Hypothesis 3b*: An applicant's personal beliefs about community involvement will moderate the relationship between corporate social responsibility and perceived PO fit. The more important community involvement is to an applicant, the greater the perceived fit when a corporate social responsibility statement is present.

Demographic characteristics have been found to affect perceptions of corporate social responsibility. Backhaus et al. (2002) found that the level of attraction to an organization based on its corporate social responsibility activities was moderated by demographic variable, such as gender; where women indicated a general greater concern for certain corporate social responsibility policies

(diversity) than did men. In a multi-national study, Ubius and Alis (2012) found that younger employees rated the social facet of corporate social responsibility as more important than older employees. Similarly, in a Turkish sample, younger employees were found to be more sensitive to environmental and ethical issues, and so engaged in more socially responsible behavior than older employees (Bekiroglu, Erdill, & Alpaken, 2011).

Hypothesis 3c: Younger applicants will be more attracted to organizations with a corporate social responsibility statement (community relations) than older applicants.

Hypothesis 3d: Younger applicants will rate perceived PO fit higher when corporate social responsibility statements (community relations) are present than older applicants.

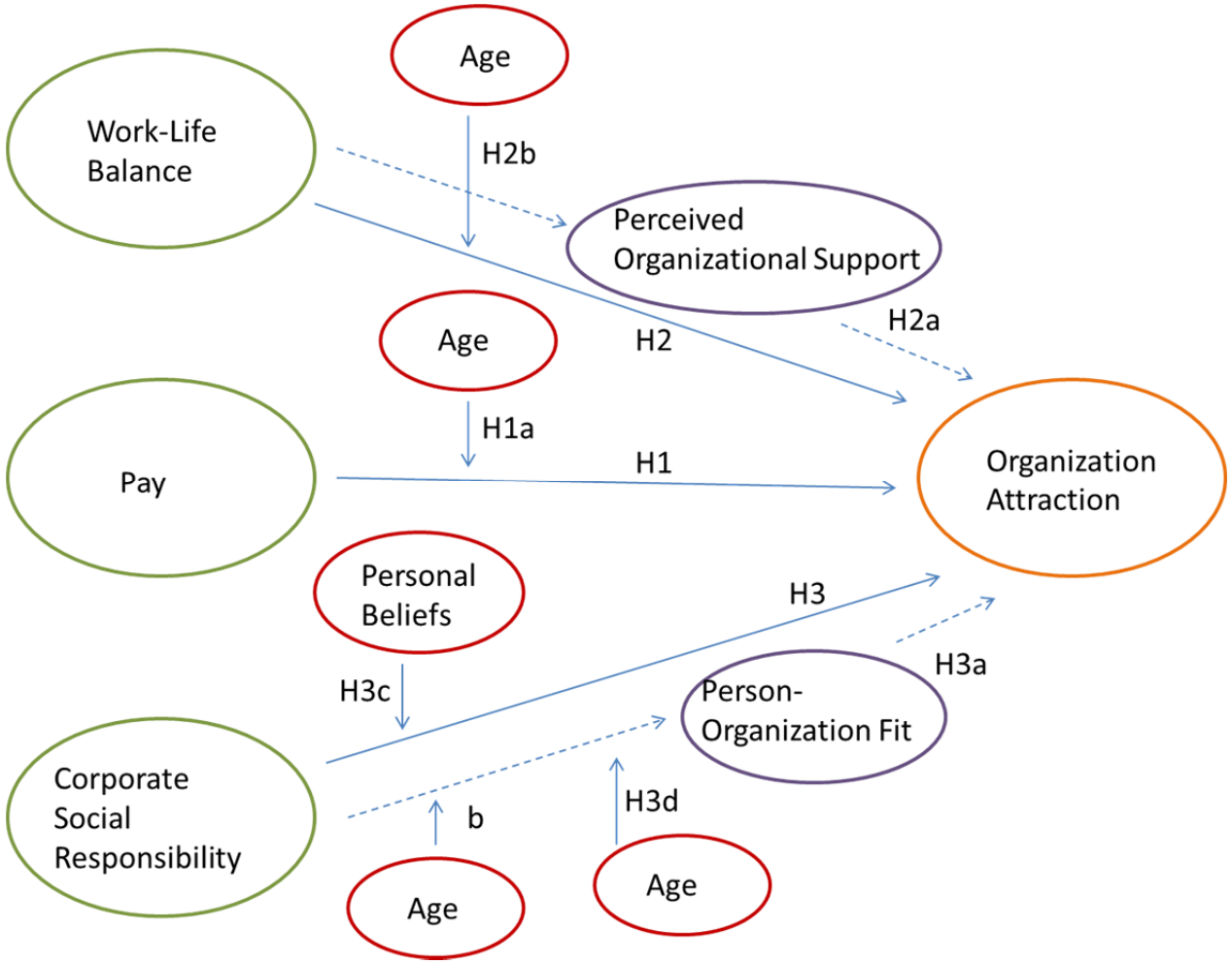


Figure 1-1: Hypothesized Model

Chapter 2

Method

Sample

Participants were recruited from an online database through a third party research company (Qualtrics). A total of 320 participants were recruited. Twenty-four participants were removed from analysis for three reasons. First, six participants that answered the attention check question (Please answer '2' to this question) incorrectly were excluded. Second, the 14 participants who answered reverse coded questions inconsistently were removed. For example, the subject would answer 5 (strongly agree) to both 'This company does little to support its employees' and 'This company provides adequate support for its employees'. When looking at the time it took for these participants to complete the survey, it was well under (~2.26 minutes) the average for the rest of the sample (~14.46 minutes), indicating that though they answered the attention check question correctly, they may not have actually been reading most of the questions. Lastly, after examining outliers – four were shown to be outliers on three or more scales, and so were removed. The final number of participants used for analysis was 296.

The useable sample was 53% male and 88% Caucasian. Even after removing some participants, there was a relatively even distribution of ages. Twenty-six percent of the sample was born before 1963 (50 or older), 25% in

their 40's (born between 1964-1973), 25% in their 30's (born between 1974-1983), and 24% less than 29 years old (born between 1984-1995).

The sample varied greatly in the amount of education received: 3% less than high school, 17% high school diploma/GED, 24% some college, 7% trade/technical training, 11% associates degree, 21% bachelor's degree, and 19% with an advanced degree. Nearly half (45%) were single/never married and 41% indicated they were currently married or living with a partner. Less than half of the sample (47%) has children, but of those who did, 80% had at least one child living at home. A large percentage of the sample (37.5%) indicated they personally had an income of less than $25,000 annually, with 13% indicating $25-34,999, 13% indicating $35-49,000, 15% indicating $50-74,000, 16% indicating an income greater than $75,000, and the remaining chose not to answer. Fifty-six percent of the sample was currently unemployed.

Research Design, Procedures, and Manipulations

Research Design and Procedures

This was a 2 (work-life policy vs. no work-life policy) x 2 (average vs. high pay) x 2 (corporate social responsibility policy vs. no corporate social responsibility policy) between subjects experimental design.

An email was sent to all potential participants in the subject pool. They were screened for eligibility according to two criteria: first, whether they were currently, or within the next year expect to be, actively searching for a new job.

Second, they were screened based on age, in order to assure each age group was adequately represented. Participants responded to two questions to determine their eligibility (Appendix D) before entering the survey. If they matched the criteria they were directed into the survey. If they do not meet the criteria, they were told that they are not eligible to participate.

Participants selected for inclusion first provided consent to participate in the research. Next, participants read the cover story (Appendix A) which explained that they were participating in a research project which would be used to rank the top 25 emerging companies in the United States, based on how appealing these companies are as employers. Participants then read a description of a single company and provided their ratings of that organization. All of the companies were described as currently hiring, but the conditions varied in terms of pay level (average vs. high), the presence of work-life balance policies (have vs. do not have) and corporate social responsibility policies (have vs. do not have), creating 8 different conditions (Table 2-1).

Participants were assigned to a condition based on their age group. For example, a participant who was 25 entered the survey, and received condition 1; the next 20-something who participated received condition 2 (or another conditioned as they were randomly assigned). This was achieved through an algorithm code embedded in the program. This continued until all eight conditions had 10 participants for each age group. Once an age group completed all the

conditions, potential participants in that age group were told they were not eligible to participate.

Table 2-1: Percentage of Sample Receiving Each Condition

Condition	Percent Received				
	Total Sample	Within Age Group			
High Pay/CSR[a] Statement	10.5	7	8	15	11
CSR[a] Statement only	13	14	12	12	14
High Pay/WLB[b] Statement	14	15	15	12	13
WLB Statement only	11	12	12	11	10
High Pay/CSR[a]/WLB[b] Statement	14	14	12	15	15
CSR[a] Statement/WLB[b] Statement	11.5	13	11	11	13
High Pay only	12.5	12	15	12	11
High Pay only	13.57	13	15	12	13

[a]Corporate Social Responsibility
[b]Work-Life Balance
[c]No Pay, Corporate Social Responsibility, or Work-Life Balance Statement given

After reading about the company, participants answered the manipulation check questions, and rated the attractiveness of the organization as an employer, the degree to which they would anticipate receiving organizational support, and the degree to which they would anticipate person-organization fit. They then responded to questions assessing individual differences in attitudes towards corporate social responsibility (Appendix C).

After completing these questions, they were thanked for their participation, debriefed as to the true purpose of the research, and received

compensation from Qualtrics for participation in the survey (points they can use to "buy" items, such as gift cards, from participating organizational partners).

Manipulations

The manipulations for each of the conditions are provided in Appendix B. Using questions similar to that of Wayne and Casper (2012), three questions followed the story to serve as manipulation checks. For compensation level, "On a scale of 1 (much worse than other firms) to 5 (much better than other firms) how would you rate Caxxi Corp's pay relative to other firms in the industry?" For work-life balance initiatives: "On a scale of 1 (much worse than other firms) to 5 (much better than other firms) how would you rate Caxxi Corp's promotion of work-life balance opportunities for its employees?" For corporate social responsibility "On a scale of 1 (much worse than other firms) to 5 (much better than other firms) how would you rate Caxxi Corp's contribution to the communities in which it does business?"

Measures

Anticipated Organizational Support

Anticipated organizational support was measured using Casper and Buffardi's (2004) five-item measure (see Appendix C), adapted from Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1997). An example item includes "If I were working at this company, I would feel supported at work." Participants responded

using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). In the current study, the reliability was .87.

Anticipated Person-Organization Fit

In a review of the literature, Kristof-Brown and Guay (2011) noted that fit can be measured in three ways: direct measures of perceived fit, subjective fit measures, and objective fit measures. Direct measures assess perceived fit by asking a person how well his or her values match those of the organization (supplementary fit) as well as whether the organization fulfills his or her needs (needs-supplies fit). Subjective fit measures ask a person to report characteristics of his/her self as well as perceived characteristics of the environment, and the congruence between self and organizational characteristics is assessed. Finally, objective fit measures ask subjects to rank order general value statements that they agree with, then a second member of the organization (usually a manager/executive) does the same in regards to the organization's culture. Fit is determined based on congruence between the two individual's rankings.

Direct measures are stronger predictors of attitudinal outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) than either subjective fit or objective fit measures. Thus, direct measures of perceived fit are recommended for examining perceived compatibility between a potential applicant and an organization (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011), and were used in the current study.

PO fit was measured using three items from Cable and DeRue (2002): **"**The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organization values,**"** **"**My personal values match my organization**'**s values and culture,**"** and **"**My organization**'**s values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life.**"** Participants responded based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (completely). The three-item measure was found to have a reliability of .91.

Personal Beliefs toward Corporate Social Responsibility

Personal beliefs about corporate social responsibility were measured using two of the five factors of Dennis, Buchholtz, and Butts (2009) philanthropic attitudes scale. Responses were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). The 4-item moral obligation scale measured the degree to which an individual feels he or she has a moral obligation to engage in corporate socially responsible activities. An example item for this scale is "I have a moral obligation to ensure that my firm supports the local community." The 3-item self-identity scale measured the degree to which an individual believes philanthropic activity is "an important component of 'who they are'." An example item of the self-identity scale is "I think of myself as a philanthropist." A full list of items can be found in Appendix C.

In the current study, the reliability for self-identity was .93 and moral obligation was .88. In order to determine whether the items could be used as one

scale, a corporate social responsibility beliefs variable was created, and was found to have a reliability of .908 – with no improvement if any given item were deleted.

Organizational Attraction

Attraction to the organization was measured using Highhouse, Lievens, and Sinar's (2003) 5-item organizational attraction measure. An example item is "For me, this company would be a good place to work." The complete list of items can be found in Appendix C. Participants rated each item using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). In the current study, the reliability was found to be .87.

Additional Variables

Two other measures were collected and used in an exploratory fashion to examine whether age-related differences in these variables accounted for any age differences in attraction to firms with work-life balance policies and higher pay. First, *role salience* was measured using an adapted version of Amatea, Cross, Clark, and Bobby's (1986) Life Role Salience Scales. Four of the scales were utilized: Family Reward Values scale (example item: "Although having a family requires many sacrifices, the love and enjoyment of family are worth it all"), Leisure Reward Values scale (example item: My life would seem empty if I did not have enough time to engage in leisure activities that are important to me), Volunteer Reward Values scale (example item: "Having adequate time to

volunteer is the most important thing in my life"), and Occupational Reward Values scale (example item: "I expect my job/career to give me more real satisfaction than anything else I do"). Participants rated each item using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The complete list of adapted items can be found in Appendix C.

In the current study, the reliability for the Family Reward Value scale was .85. The Leisure Reward Value scale reliability was .83. The reliability for the Volunteer reward Value was .92. Finally, Occupational Reward Value was analyzed; it yielded a reliability of .62. Based on the results, question three (Building a name and reputation for myself though work/a career is not one of my life goals) was deleted, improving the reliability of the occupational reward value scale to .79.

Second, *materialism* was measured with Richin's (2004) 6 item measure. It consisted of three subscales: success, centrality and happiness. Example items include: "I admire people who own expensive homes, cars, and clothes (success subscale)," "Buying things gives me a lot of pleasure (centrality subscale)," and "I'd be happier if I could afford to buy more things (happiness subscale)." Participants rated each item using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The complete list of items can be found in Appendix C.

In the current study, the success subscale had a reliability of .79. The centrality subscale had a reliability of .81. The happiness subscale had a reliability of .75. The three scales were combined to determine the reliability of the entire Materialism scale, which yielded a reliability of .88. For further analyses, the full scale was used instead of the subscales.

Control Variables

Basic demographic information was also collected such as sex, race, marital status, level of education and income. These were used as control variables in hypothesis testing. A complete list of demographic variable collected can be found in Appendix D.

Chapter 3

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Before examining the hypotheses, the data were screened to determine the degree to which basic assumptions such as normality and homogeneity of variance were met. Though the sample did not violate the homogeneity of variance assumption, it violated the normality assumption. However, after determining z for both skewness (WLB - .233, Pay - .197, and CSR -.201) and kurtosis (WLB - .461, Pay - .392, CSR - .399) for the dependent variable across the conditions, each was found to be within one standard deviation of the standard error, and therefore, not deemed to be significantly different from normal (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, Tatham, 2006). The means and standard deviations can be found in Table 3-1.

Table 3-1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Study Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Pay Statement[a]			1						
2. WLB Statement[a]			-.20**	1					
3. CSR Statement[a]			-.02	-.27**	1				
4. Year of Birth	1973	12.74	.03	-.04	.06	1			
5. Organizational Attraction	3.94	0.71	.05	.19**	-.15*	-.10	1		
6. Organizational Support	3.88	0.70	.01	.13*	-.10	.01	.71	1	
7. Perceived PO Fit	3.80	0.74	.00	.23**	-.03	-.02	.72**	.66**	1
8. CSR – Moral Obligation	4.81	1.17	-.08	.07	.04	-.02	.33**	.44**	.43**
9. CSR – Identity	4.42	1.35	-.12*	.01	-.01	.17**	.30**	.36**	.29**
10. Family RV	3.99	0.76	.09	.04	.01	.10	.30**	.35**	.33**
11. Leisure RV	3.56	0.75	-.03	.04	.11	-.04	.19**	.18**	.17**
12. Volunteer RV	3.64	0.73	-.02*	-.02	-.04	.15**	.15**	.16**	.15**
13. Occupational RV	3.08	0.91	-.02	.07	-.07	.28**	.26**	.36**	.30**
14. Materialism	3.16	0.89	.13*	-.03	.02	.13*	.05	.09	.10
15. ex[b]	0.53	0.50	.08	.06	-.03	-.17**	.06	.02	-.11
16. Race[b]	0.70	0.46	-.10	-.02	.05	-.16**	.03	.02	.06
17. Education	4.53	2.18	-.07	.03	-.03	-.09	.03	-.02	.02
18. Marital Status[b]	0.33	0.47	.02	.07	-.11	-.12*	.10	.09	.09
19. Income	3.00	2.13	-.01	-.03	-.13*	.02	.02	-.00	.04
20. Employment Status[b]	0.44	0.50	-.03	-.03	.03	-.07	.05	.02	-.05
21. Volunteer Habits[b]	0.60	0.49	-.02	.02	-.09	.08	.03	.07	.08

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

[a]Variables were dummy coded: 1=statement present, 0=no statement

[b]Dummy coded (Sex: 1=males, 0=females; Race: 1=Caucasian/White, 2=nonwhite; Marital Status: 1=married, 0=not married; Employment Status: 1=employed, 0=unemployed; Volunteer habits: 1=engages on volunteer activities at least once a week, 0=no volunteer activities/irregular engagement)

Table 3-1: cont.

Variable	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
8. CSR – Moral Obligation	1								
9. CSR – Identity	.62**	1							
10. Family RV	.26**	.17**	1						
11. Leisure RV	.34**	.26**	.14*	1					
12. Volunteer RV	.45**	.49**	.04	.33*	1				
13. Occupational RV	.43**	.35**	.16**	.26	.41	1			
14. Materialism	.30**	.28**	.04	.39*	.27	.40	1		
15. Sex[b]	-.08	-.04	-.06	.13	.03	.05	.08*	1	
16. Race[b]	-.09	-.05	.03	-.07	-.13	-.21	-.13**	.05	1
17. Education	.02	.10	.03	-.01	-.03	-.09	-.08	.02	-.01
18. Marital Status[b]	.05	.01	.18**	.03	.05	.03	-.03*	.03	-.01
19. Income	.06	.01	.05	.08	.15	.07*	.09*	.05	-.02
20. Employment Status[b]	.07	.14*	-.02	.11	.17	.05	.10	.10	-.04
21. Volunteer Habits[b]	.18**	.03	-.01	.06	.48	.17	.15	-.04	-.06

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
WLB = work-life balance, CSR = corporate social responsibility, RV = reward values
[a]Variables were dummy coded: 1=statement present, 0=no statement
[b]Dummy coded (Sex: 1=males, 0=females; Race: 1=Caucasian/White, 2=nonwhite; Marital Status: 1=married, 0=not married; Employment Status: 1=employed, 0=unemployed; Volunteer habits: 1=engages on volunteer activities at least once a week, 0=no volunteer activities/irregular engagement)

Table 3-1: cont.

Variable	17	18	19	20	21
17. Education	1				
18. Marital Status[b]	.14	1			
19. Income	.26	.27	1		
20. Employment Status[b]	.36	.14	.24*	1	
21. Volunteer Habits[b]	-.01	.01**	.02**	.08	1

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
b Dummy coded (Marital Status: 1=married, 0=not married; Employment Status: 1=employed, 0=unemployed; Volunteer habits: 1=engages on volunteer activities at least once a week, 0=no volunteer activities/irregular engagement

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

CFA was conducted in AMOS to determine the adequacy of the measurement model for the multi-item measures used in the study. The models provided a relatively poor fit. The full model included all possible variables of interest to be studied (Figure 3-1, Table 3-2). Though the χ^2 (944, N=296) = 2378.92, p<.01 – fits within the recommended 3 to 1 ratio of chi-squared to degrees of freedom, the majority of the goodness of fit indices were outside the minimum expectations for goodness of fit: CFI – .85, NNFI – .83, SRMR – .08, and RMSEA – .07 (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

The second model which contained only the hypothesized variables (Figure 3-2, Table 3-3) was a poor fit as well, thought slightly less so than the full model. The majority of the goodness of fit indices were again just outside the recommendations guidelines: χ^2 (160, N=296) = 509.09, p<.01, CFI – .92, NNFI – .91, SRMR – .08, and RMSEA – .09 (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

Though latent variables (and their manifest variables) were removed based on the modification indices provided in the AMOS output (from the full down to the hypothesized model), the models never approached a good fit. This may be due to the lack of normality in the sample. Also, the sample size may be too small, perhaps with a larger size, the model could have reached minimum acceptability.

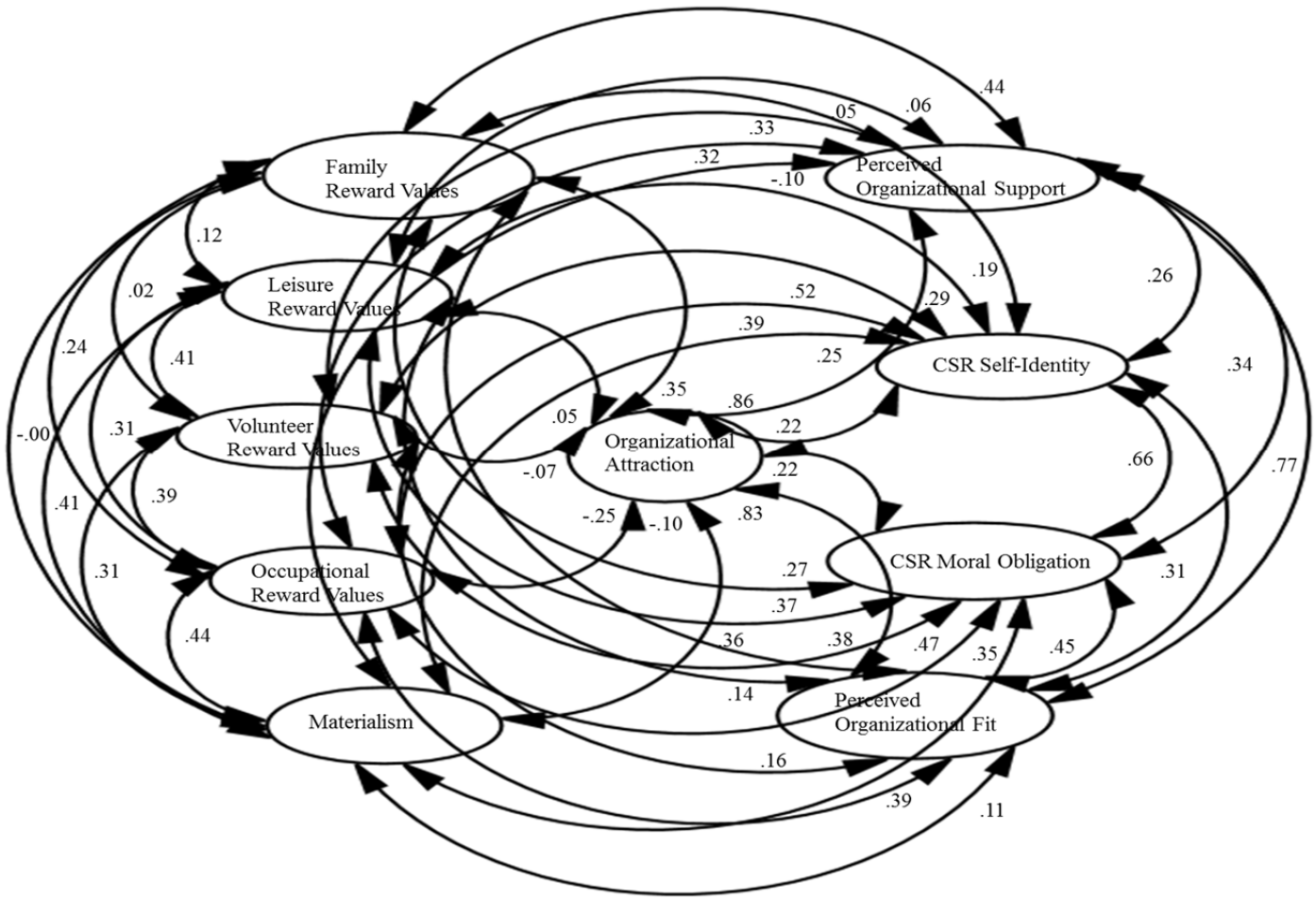


Figure 3-1 CFA Measurement Model (Full Model) with Standardized Parameter Estimates Reported

Table 3-2: Standardized Parameter Estimates of CFA Measurement Model (Full)

Latent Variable	Attract[a]	Support[b]	POF[c]	CSR (MO)[d]	CSR (I)[e]
Items Measured					
Attract1	.74				
Attract2	.64				
Attract3	.84				
Attract4	.79				
Attract5	.83				
POS1		.74			
POS2		.52			
POS3		.78			
POS4		.87			
POS5		.89			
POF1			.86		
POF2			.88		
POF3			.91		
CSR_MO1				.80	
CSR_MO2				.73	
CSR_MO3				.89	
CSR_MO4				.81	
CSR_I1					.88
CSR_I2					.88
CSR_I3					.95

[a]Organizational Attraction
[b]Perceived Organizational Support
[c]Perceived Organizational Fit
[d]Corporate Social Responsibility (Moral Obligation)
[e]Corporate Social responsibility (Self-Identity)

Table 3-2: cont.

Latent Variable	Mat[f]	FRV[g]	LRV[h]	VRV[i]	ORV[j]
Items Measured					
Mat_S1	.74				
Mat_S2	.76				
Mat_C1	.81				
Mat_C2	.80				
Mat_H1	.72				
Mat_H2	.63				
Family1		.72			
Family2		.55			
Family3		.84			
Family4		.73			
Family5		.68			
Family6		.76			
Leisure1			.52		
Leisure2			.76		
Leisure3			.63		
Leisure4			.79		
Leisure5			.76		
Volunteer1				.71	
Volunteer2				.84	
Volunteer3				.86	
Volunteer1				.90	
Volunteer4				.81	
Work1					.65
Work2					.63
Work4					.77
Work5					.76

[f]Materialism
[g]Family Reward Values
[h]Leisure Reward Valuesi
[h]Volunteer Reward Values
[j]Occupational Reward Values

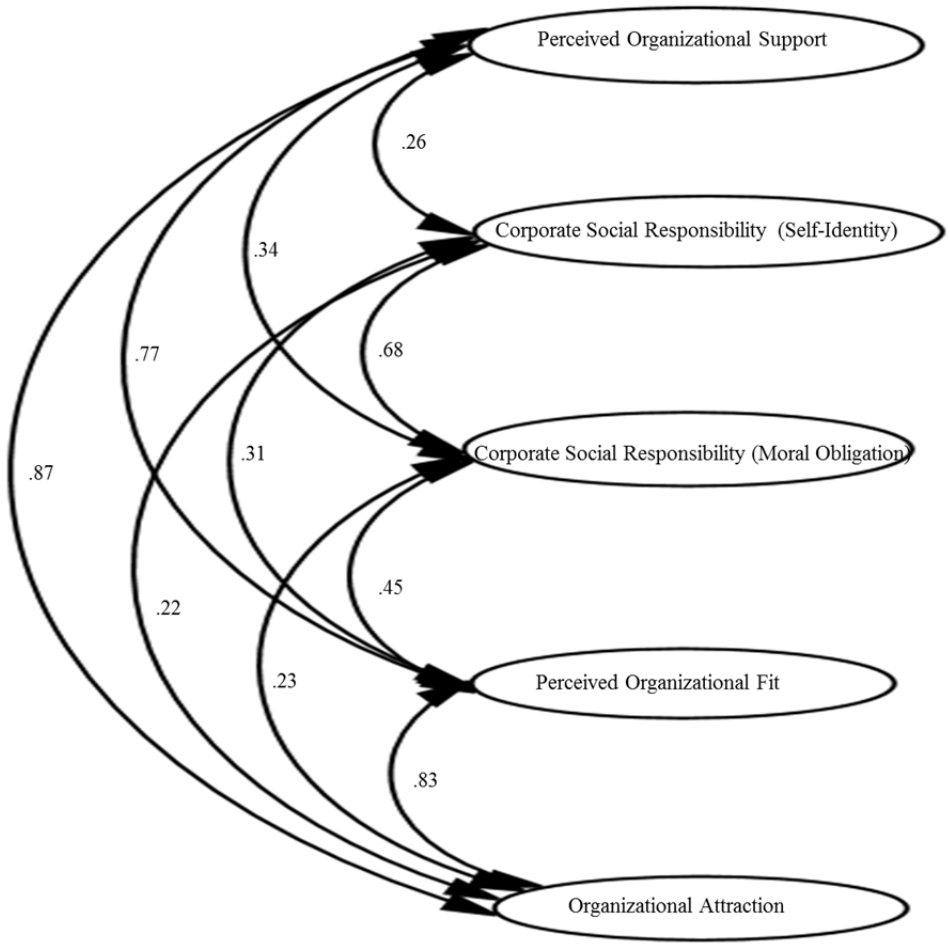


Figure 3-2: CFA Measurement Model (Hypothesized Model) with Standardized Parameter Estimates Reported

Table 3-3: Standardized Parameter Estimates of CFA Measurement Model

(Hypothesized Model)

Latent Variable	Attract[a]	Support[b]	POF[c]	CSR (MO)[d]	CSR (I)[e]
Items Measured					
Attract1	.74				
Attract2	.64				
Attract3	.84				
Attract4	.79				
Attract5	.83				
POS1		.73			
POS2		.51			
POS3		.78			
POS4		.87			
POS5		.89			
POF1			.86		
POF2			.88		
POF3			.90		
CSR_MO1				.79	
CSR_MO2				.73	
CSR_MO3				.89	
CSR_MO4				.81	
CSR_I1					.88
CSR_I2					.88
CSR_I3					.95

[a]Organizational Attraction
[b]Perceived Organizational Support
[c]Perceived Organizational Fit
[d]Corporate Social Responsibility (Moral Obligation)
[e]Corporate Social responsibility (Self-Identity)

Manipulation Checks

The manipulation checks were then analyzed. To test the compensation level effect, participants were asked: "On a scale of 1 (much worse than other firms) to 5 (much better than other firms) how would you rate Caxxi Corp's pay relative to other firms in the industry?" Those who received a pay/benefit statement rated this item significantly higher [$F(1,295) = 5.62$, $p < .05$] then those who did not. Further, subjects did not rate either the corporate social responsibility [$F(1,295) = 1.19$, $p > .05$] nor work-life balance [$F(1,295) = 0.38$, $p > .05$] manipulation check question as significantly different.

To measure work-life balance initiatives, participants were asked: "On a scale of 1 (much worse than other firms) to 5 (much better than other firms) how would you rate Caxxi Corp's promotion of work-life balance opportunities for its employees?" Participants who received the work-life balance statement rated it significantly higher [$F(1, 295) = 14.31$, $p < .01$] than those who did not receive the statement. As before, participant did not rate the other two variables of interest, pay [$F(1, 295) = 3.32$, $p > .05$] and corporate social responsibility [$F(1, 295) = 0.02$, $p > .05$], as significantly different.

Lastly, the corporate social responsibility check was measured using "On a scale of 1 (much worse than other firms) to 5 (much better than other firms) how would you rate Caxxi Corp's contribution to the communities in which it does business?" Those who received the corporate social responsibility statement rated

the company significantly higher [$F(1,295) = 9.80$, $p<.01$] than those who did not receive the statement. Again, participants did not rate the other two conditions, pay [$F(1,295) = 1.80$, $p>.05$] and work-life balance initiatives [$F(1,295) = 0.02$, $p>.05$], as significantly different. We can thus conclude that the manipulations did work, those that received the statements rated the company as above average for that industry.

Hypotheses Tests

The hypotheses were tested in SPSS using a 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA and the Hayes's PROCESS macros for mediated and moderated regression. Results of the ANOVA testing hypothesis 1, 2, and 3, are presented first, following by the interaction tests for the ANOVA. Following this, mediation and moderated results are discussed.

Hypothesis 1 stated that applicants would be more attracted to companies offering above average pay than those offering average pay. Results of the ANOVA indicated that this hypotheses was not supported [$F(1, 295) = .82$, $p>.05$]. There was not a significant difference in the scores for presence of a pay statement ($M= 3.98$, $SD= .75$) and no pay statement ($M= 3.90$, $SD= .66$) conditions, indicating that those who did receive statements of high pay were no more attracted to the organization than those that did not receive the statements.

Hypothesis 2 stated that applicants would be more attracted to organizations with a work-life balance statement than those without work-life

balance statements. The main effect of work-life balance statement was significant [$F(1, 295) = 11.26$, $p<.01$]. Participants who received a work-life balance statement rated the organization as more attractive (M= 4.11, SD= .59) than did those who were no exposed to a work-life balance statement (M= 3.84, SD= .75), supporting hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 stated that participants would find organizations more attractive when they were exposed to a corporate social responsibility statement than when they were not. Results of the ANOVA indicated that the main effect of CSR statement was significant [$F(1,295) = 6.70$, $p>.01$]. A significant difference in the scores for presence of a corporate social responsibility statement (M= 3.86, SD= .75) and no corporate social responsibility statement (M= 4.02, SD= .66) conditions, indicating that the presence of a corporate social responsibility statement actually decreased attraction to the organization. Thus a significant relationship was found, but in the opposite direction as hypothesized.

Next, all possible interactions between the independent variables were examined with the 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA. None of the two-way interactions were found to be significant: Pay x Work-Life Balance [$F(1,295) = 0.08$, $p>.05$], Pay x Corporate Social responsibility [$F(1,295) = 0.93$, $p>.05$], and Work-Life Balance x Corporate Social Responsibility [$F(1,295) = 0.02$, $p>.05$]. Lastly, the three-way interaction (Pay x Work-Life Balance x Corporate Social Responsibility) was also not significant, $F(2, 294)= .51$, $p>.05$).

Next the moderated and mediated hypotheses were tested using Hayes's PROCESS macros. The PROCESS macros allows for testing both simple and complex moderation, mediation, and moderated mediation analyses in SPSS. It uses bootstrapping, which do not require the assumption of normality. In the moderation analyses it test the significance of conditional effects. In the mediated analyses, PROCESS tests the direct effect as well as the conditional indirect effects. For the moderated mediation models the indirect effects are examined at three levels of the moderator (one standard deviation above the mean, at the mean, and one standard deviation below the mean). The terms are also mean-centered for the analyses (Hayes, 2013; Preacher, Rucker & Hayes, 2007).

The moderating effect of age on pay level and organizational attraction was tested. In the regressions certain variables were controlled for: level of education, income level, race, and marital status. None of these variables was found to affect the relationships of the independent variables on the mediators or to directly affect the dependent variable. Sex was also controlled for across all analyses, and was found only to be a significant predictor of anticipated organizational support (the mediator hypothesized in the work-life-balance-attraction relationship), and will be discussed within that section. This interaction effect of age and the level of pay did not predict organizational attractiveness ($b= -.01$, $p>.05$, CIs: -.04 to .04), thus hypothesis 1a was not supported.

As hypothesis 2 was supported, hypothesis 2a - anticipated organizational support would mediate the relationship between the presence of a WLB statement and organizational attractiveness – was examined. Using the PROCESS macro (Model 4), the results indicate a significant overall model (R^2=.06, p<.01). The indirect effect was found to be significant (indirect effect: .30; CIs .02 to .61, p<.05), supporting hypothesis 2a. Preacher and Kelley (2011) argue for the further examination of the effect size using κ^2, or the "proportion of the maximum possible indirect effect that could have occurred, had the constituent effects been as large as the design and data permitted (p.14)." This method, due to the bootstrapping process, accounts for samples size and is not affected by violations of normality or use of a binary variable. The effect was significant [κ^2= .1059, p<.05, CIs .0241 to .1887], with a moderate (medium) effect size (Preacher & Kelley, 2011). This indicates that the presence of a work-life balance statement increased the perceptions of organizational support, which was associated with increased attraction to the organization.

Three control variables (sex, family reward values, and occupational reward value) also predicted perceived organizational support (Sex: b=-.759, p<.01, CI: -1.273 to -.245; Family Values: b=.142, p<.01, CIs .078 to .204; Occupational Values: b=.265, p,>01, CIs .144 to .387). This indicates that those who rated family reward values and/or occupation reward values as more important to them, also perceived the organizations in general as more supportive.

Thus, these were examined further. Each variable was examined as a moderator of the wok-life balance and perceived organizational support relationship. None of the interactions of these variables with presence of a work-life balance statement were found to be significant (Sex: b= .03, p>.05; Family Values: b= -.09, p>.05; Occupational Values: b= -.14, p>.05) predictors of perceived organizational support.

Hypothesis 2b stated that the relationship between presence of a work-life balance statement and perceived organizational support will be stronger for younger applicants than older applicants. Hayes's PROCESS first stage moderated mediation model (model 7) was used to analyze this relationship, which was not significant (b= -.02, p>.05), failing to support hypothesis 2b. As an exploratory analysis, the moderation effect of age was moved to the second stage (model 14), looking at the possible relationship between perceived organization support and organizational attraction. This too was non-significant (b= -.01, p>.05).

The final set of hypotheses pertained to the relationships with corporate social responsibility. Using Hayes's Model 4 to test the mediating effect of PO fit on the relationship between corporate social responsibility and organizational attractiveness, hypothesis H3a was not supported as the confidence interval for the indirect effect included zero (indirect effects: -.090, CIs -.4651 to .2663). In

other words, PO fit did not mediate the relationship between corporate social responsibility and organizational attraction.

Next, hypothesis 3b suggested that the more important community involvement is to an applicant, the greater the perceived fit when a corporate social responsibility statement was present. Both moral obligation and identity were tested as moderators of the corporate social responsibility and organizational attraction relationship. Neither interaction effect was found to be significant (Moral Obligation: b= -.02, p>.05; Identity: b= .11, p>.05), however a main effect was found for moral obligation on PO fit (b= .1903, p<.01, CI .1165 to .2641) but not identity (b= .02, p>.05). This indicates that those who indicated that they felt they had a moral responsibility rated PO fit higher regardless of the condition.

Hypothesis 3c proposed that younger applicants would be more attracted to organizations with a corporate social responsibility statement than older applicants. Using Hayes's basic moderation model (Model 1), age was examined as a moderator of the corporate social responsibility and organizational attraction relationship. The interaction was not found to be significant (b= -.01, p>.05), nor was the main effect (b= -.003, p>.05). This indicates that age did not influence the relationship between presence of a corporate social responsibility statement and organizational attraction – thus, not supporting hypothesis 3c.

Lastly, hypothesis H3d – that younger applicants would rate perceived PO fit higher when a corporate social responsibility statement was present than older

applicants - was tested. Age was examined as a moderator of the corporate social responsibility-PO fit relationship. The interaction was not found to be significant (b= -.02, p>.05). The main effect of age on PO fit was also not significant (b=-.00, p>.05), indicating that age did not relate to the perception of fit with the organization, nor did it moderate the corporate social responsibility statement-organizational attraction relationship. Thus, hypothesis 3d was not supported.

As none of the hypotheses for corporate social responsibility were either found not to be significant or in the expected direction, a few exploratory hypotheses were performed, in order to perhaps better understand the data. First, employment status was examined as a possible moderator. Perhaps those who did not have a job did not find corporate social responsibility to be attractive – for example, if they thought "why help others when I am not even employed?" However, employment status (employed vs. unemployed) did not moderate the relationship between the presence of a corporate social responsibility statement and organizational attraction (b= .52, p>.05), nor did it moderate the relationship between the presence of a corporate social responsibility statement and PO fit (b= .37, p>.05). No main effect of employment status was found for either organizational attraction or PO fit (Attraction: b=.24, p>.05; PO fit: b= -.28, p>.05).

A second exploratory analysis examined the potential moderating effect of currently engaging in volunteer work. The variable "How many hours a week do

you engage in volunteer activities" was dummy coded for engagement in volunteer activities (1=yes, 0=no). This was examined as a moderator of the relationship between presence of a corporate social responsibility statement and both PO fit and organizational attraction. Again, there was not a significant interaction in predicting either the mediator or the dependent variable (PO fit: b= .20, p>.05; Attraction: b=.49, p>.05). Engagement in volunteering also did not have a significant main effect on either of these variables (PO fit: .31, p>.05; Attraction: b= -.28, p>.05).

A third exploratory analysis examined age as a moderator of the link between PO fit and organizational attraction, given the main effect of PO fit on organizational attraction was identified (b= .728, p<.01, CIs .6483 to .8077). Age was inversely coded by year of birth, thus younger participants would be the higher numerical values (i.e. 1987) than older participants (i.e. 1953). The overall model was significant (R^2= .53, p<.01). Both the interaction effect (b=.0067, p<.05, CIs .0003 to .0130), and main effect of age on organizational attraction were significant (b= -.017, p<.05, CIs -.0327 to -.0021). The conditional effects, (one standard deviation above the mean, at the mean, and one standard deviation below the mean) were all significant (Table 3-4); however, the magnitude of the relationship between PO fit and organizational attraction differed based on age. The significant positive relationship between PO fit and organizational attraction was stronger among younger participants than among older participants. This

effect was particularly pronounced at low levels of PO fit, which were more strongly associated with low attraction among older than younger participants (see Figure 3-3).

Table 3-4: Moderating Effect of Year of Birth on Perceived PO Fit and Organizational Attraction

Predictor	b	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	18.44**	.30	17.8416	19.0398
Year of Birth	-.02*	.01	-.0327	-.0021
PO Fit	.74**	.04	.6606	.8132
Interaction (YR x POF)	.01*	.01	.0003	.0130
R^2	.53**			
	Indirect Effects	SE	LLCI	ULCI
-1 SD Year of Birth (-12.74)	.6521	.04	.5700	.7343
Mean Year of Birth (0.00)	.7369	.04	.6606	.8132
1 SD Year of Birth (12.74)	.8216	.07	.6869	.9564

N = 296; Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported; Bootstrap sample = 1,000; LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

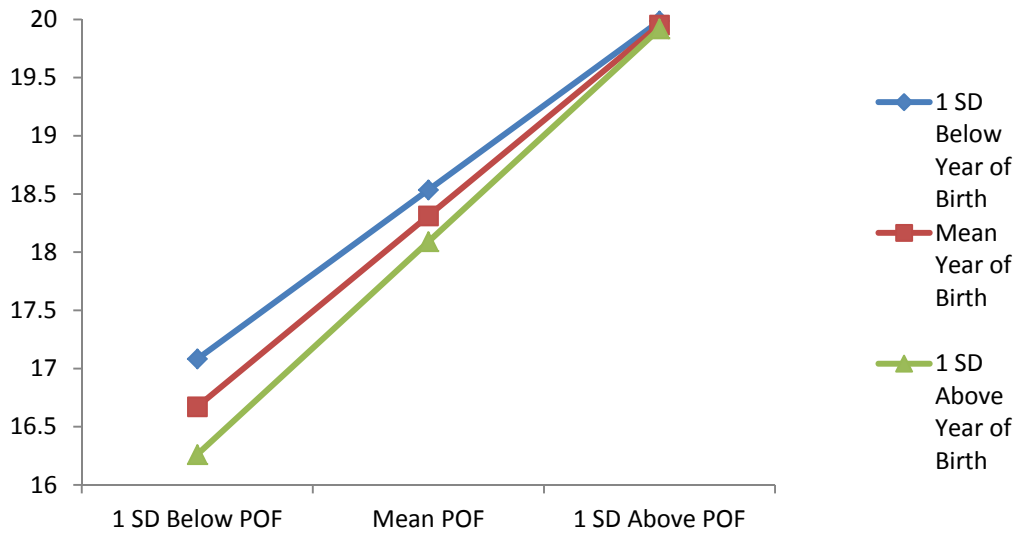


Figure 3-3: Interaction Effect of Year of Birth on Perceived PO Fit and Organizational Attraction

Chapter 4

Discussion

The goal of the current study was to examine the idea that workers of varying ages would be attracted to different types of employers. This idea emerged from the literature that suggests that, because of exposure to different generational life events, workers of different ages have distinct work values. I examined the role of age in the relationship between particular instrumental (pay) and symbolic (work-life balance policies, corporate social responsibility policies) attributes and organizational attraction. Specifically, I examined the degree to which pay, work-life balance statements and corporate social responsibility statements impacted the attraction to an organization at varying levels of age.

Pay Level

Findings regarding the effect of the instrumental attribute pay were at odds with most of the research findings in previous studies. Many past studies have found not only that high pay increases attraction to organizations (Cable & Judge, 1994; Harold & Ployhart, 2008; Jatmiko, 2004; Wayne & Casper, 2012), but have also suggested that pay is more important for younger individuals (Ingram & Bellenger, 1983; Bellenger et al, 1984; Twenge et al, 2012; Hansen & Leuty, 2012). Ingram and Bellenger (1983) also found that people making less money rated companies offering higher pay as more attractive, so this sample – with

nearly 40% of the sample making less than $25,000 a year should have found a company offering above industry pay levels to be more attractive.

This relationship between pay level and organizational attraction, however, was not significant in this study. This may be due to the nature of how the study was designed, Participants were told they were evaluating a company that was being considered for a "Best of…" list in which all companies had to meet at least average industry standards for all factors – including pay. Thus, although there was not a significant difference in attraction to the organization between those offering average and above average pay, a comparison of below average and average pay levels may have yielded different findings. Thus, although pay may be an important factor in job choice, after a certain level of "adequate pay" is reached, it may be less important. In fact, some research has found that pay was less important than other job or organizational characteristics in predicting attraction (Aiman-Smith et al, 2001) and job pursuit outcomes (Chapman et al, 2005).

Work-Life Balance Policies

With respect to the general relationship between the symbolic attribute of work-life policy and organizational attraction, results were consistent with most of the findings in the literature. The presence of work-life balance statements increases attraction to organizations (Wayne & Casper, 2012; Nadler et al, 2010). Further, past research has found that the relationship between the presence of

work-life balance policies and organizational attraction is mediated by perceived organizational support (Butts et al, 2013; Casper & Buffardi, 2004), such that when work-life balance statements are present, organizations are perceived as more supportive, and thus, more attractive.

However, counter to hypotheses, the moderating effect of age on the relationship between presence of a work-life balance statement, perceived organizational support and organizational attraction was not significant. In the generational literature, there has been considerable discussion of the idea that younger individuals desire and expect organizations to offer policies that allow them to maximize their time in both the work and home domains, suggesting that these younger workers should be more drawn to organizations offering work-life policies than are workers of older generations (Smola & Sutton, 2002; Carless & Wintle, 2007; Whinghter, 2009; Twenge et al, 2010; Ehrhart et al, 2012). However, neither the relationship of work-life balance policies with perceived support nor with organizational attraction was moderated by age, consistent with literature suggesting generational differences in work values may be overstated (Deal et al, 2010; Gentry et al, 2011). Instead, work-life balance policies may be important to many people of all different ages. Thus, suggestions that the younger generations desire or expect work-life balance more than older generations may stem from assumptions and anecdotes (Buhler, 2008; Carver & Candela, 2008;

Frandsen, 2008) rather than evidence of actual or perceived differences (Roberto & Biggan, 2014).

These findings that work-life policies tend to be universally appealing rather than appealing just to those of a certain group has precedent in the literature. Casper and Buffardi (2004) found that work-life policies were related to higher job pursuit intentions among all participants, irrespective of their family status or level of work-family conflict. Wayne and Casper (2012) found that even those who did not have family responsibilities rated organizations offering family-friendly polices as more attractive. This finding may reflect the fact that work-life policies serve as a symbol to applicants that the organization would care about them and support them (Butts et al., 2013; Casper & Harris, 2008), and this feeling of being cared about and supported may be something that appeals to most people.

An interesting finding emerged while examining the work-life balance hypotheses. Three control variables (Sex, Family Reward Values, and Occupational reward Values) were found to be directly related to perceived organizational support, although none of these variables interacted with work-life balance policies in predicting perceived organizational support. This finding indicates that those participants who rated family reward values and/or occupation reward values as important to them perceived the organization as more supportive, regardless of which condition they were in. People have a tendency to

unconsciously (Hoyle, 1993) project their own sense of self onto the referent entity in a comparison relationship increasing attraction to that entity (Byrne, 1971). Since these values were important to the participants, they may have projected these attributes onto the organization. The design of the study (a "Best of" list) may also have increased the likelihood that the participants believed that the organization might value the things they value – either family life or occupational life - even if it was unstated since it was considered the "best."

Similarly, women in general tended to perceive organizations as more supportive than did men, regardless of the condition they viewed. This may be due to the socialization of women into their expected prescribed gender roles. Women are often socialized to work in caretaking jobs that are perceived as "appropriate" for their gender (Eagly, 2012), and thus, they may project this caring nature onto the organizations they consider working for. Women are also socialized to be more accommodating and accepting of what is offered to them relative to men, which may predispose them to perceive any employer in a positive light. Consistent with this, research suggests that women may believe they should just be grateful to have a job regardless of what it offers, whereas men are more likely to believe that they are entitled to more from their employer (Kalantari, 2012). For example, female students expect to earn less than what their male counterparts expect, and women are less likely to try or expect to negotiate for higher salaries (Kaman & Hartel, 1994).

Corporate Social Responsibility Policy

The last set of hypotheses looked at the symbolic attribute of corporate social responsibility policies. It was hypothesized that the presence of a corporate social responsibility statement would be associated with higher organizational attraction. Although the relationship between CSR policy and attraction was significant, it was in the opposite direction of the hypothesis. That is, participants who viewed a corporate social responsibility statement actually rated the organization as less attractive than those who were not exposed to this statement.

To try to understand this counterintuitive relationship, employment status and volunteer engagement were examined as moderators of this relationship. With respect to employment status, I explored whether there might be backlash against corporate social responsibility policies from those who were unemployed -- they might be resentful that an organization would give out resources through corporate social responsibility, while they themselves were actively attempting to find a job that would provide personal resources. This seemed possible given more than half (56%) of the sample was unemployed. Employment status, however, was not found to moderate the corporate social responsibility - attraction relationship, refuting this notion of backlash against corporate social responsibility from the unemployed.

Next, the moderating effect of volunteer engagement on the corporate social responsibility -attraction relationship was also examined. It seemed

reasonable that those who engaged in volunteer work would find corporate social responsibility more appealing but that workers who had no interest in volunteering might fear that organizations offering corporate social responsibility would require them to volunteer, potentially making organizations embracing corporate social responsibility less desirable. The majority of participants (60%) said they volunteered at least 1 hour a week. However, volunteer status did not moderate the corporate social responsibility-attraction relationship and thus, does not explain the direction of the observed finding.

Some research has found that those applicants who believe they have many potential job opportunities are less influenced by the presence of socially responsibility behaviors of companies than those who feel they have fewer job options (Albinger & Freeman, 2000). Perhaps this sample, though they were looking for new jobs – may have felt that they potentially had several options. Mohr, Webb, and Harris (2001) examined the impact of corporate social responsibility behaviors of companies on consumer purchases and found that the majority of consumers who make purchasing decisions based on corporate social responsibility behaviors had higher socioeconomic status, higher education levels, and described themselves as politically liberal (Mohr et al, 2001). Though income and education were not significant predictors in the relationship between the presence of a corporate social responsibility statement and organizational attraction, 38% of the sample made less than $25,000 per year and 45% of the

sample had no college degree or vocational training certificate. Thus, the current sample may be comprised of people who are unlikely to find CSR an important value, given they had lower incomes and education than those who have been found to embrace CSR. Political orientation was not collected in this study, but that too could be affecting the results. The effect of corporate social responsibility on organizational attraction was not found to be mediated by PO fit, counter to expectations. Give findings for the main effect of corporate social responsibility on organizational attraction were counter to expectations, this was not surprising. Though two studies (Kim & Park, 2011; Jones et al, 2010) have found that that perceived PO fit mediated the relationship between corporate social responsibility statements and organizational attraction, perhaps more research is needed to determine the robustness of their findings. However, as with previous research (Rentsch & McEwen, 2002) this study did find that the greater the perceived PO fit, the greater the attraction to the organization.

There was not a significant relationship between the presence of a corporate social responsibility statement and PO fit. This suggests the presence of a corporate social responsibility statement may be a factor that fosters perceptions of fit only among people who place a high value on social responsibility. Thus, it is surprising that personal beliefs did not moderate the relationship between the presence of corporate social responsibility statements and perceived person-organization fit.

Age was not found to moderate the relationship between the presence of a corporate social responsibility statement and organizational attraction. Although anecdotal evidence often suggests that younger generations care more about corporate social responsibility and philanthropic endeavors than older generations (Carver & Condela, 2008; Zemke et al, 2008), Twenge and her colleagues (2012; 2010) have found that the younger generations do not place more emphasis on corporate social responsibility or philanthropic endeavors. Findings of the current study parallel those of Twenge et al (2012; 2010) by finding that age does not seem to be an important factor in attraction to CSR.

However, though age did not moderate the relationship between the presence of a corporate social responsibility statement and organizational attraction, it did, moderate the relationship between perceived PO fit and organizational attraction. The relationship between perceptions of PO fit and organizational attraction was stronger among younger individuals relative to older participants. This is most evident at low levels of fit where low perceptions of PO fit more strongly relate to reduced attraction among younger workers.

Consistent with this study's findings, Cennamo and Garnder (2008) found that younger generation employees who did not perceived good fit with their organization were less committed and reported an increase in desire to turnover as compared to older employees who also had low perceived fit but reported higher levels of commitment and less intention to turnover. This may be due to length of

time in which a person perceives he or she may have to remain in a company where they do not fit. Relative to younger employees, older employees/applicants may be too entrenched in their life experience, or what Cohen (1993) referred to as external investments (i.e., family, mortgage, etc.), to consider leaving or not joining an organization over the issue of perceived fit.

This finding implies that organizations may not be successful at recruiting younger applicants if they cannot express attributes that give the impression of good fit. Older workers may have been more prone to overlooking poor fit, but younger individuals do not seem willing to do so. Several popular books based in anecdotal observations have suggested that organizations, in order to attract the youngest generation, will need to adapt to their whims (Espinoza, Ukleja & Rusch, 2010; Elliot, 2009; Gravett & Throckmorton, 2007). This may be in some measure true. If younger applicants do not believe that the organization fits with their values/beliefs they may self-select out of the applicant pool, reducing the quantity and potentially the quality of applicants in the pool. Future research needs to focus on identifying what younger applicants want, need, and expect from businesses, because if companies cannot mirror these attributes they will be less successful in recruiting and ultimately retaining the younger workforce.

Implications for Theory and Practice

This study has several implications for both research and practice. The implications for research include the need to further examine the relationship

between the presence of a corporate social responsibility statement and organizational attraction. Though many past studies have that corporate social responsibly behaviors increased attraction to an organization (cites here), this study found an inverse relationship between the presence of a corporate social responsibility statement and organizational attraction. Perhaps the relationship is not as consistent across boundary conditions as past results might suggest. Some research is beginning to find that corporate social responsibility practices such as natural environment policies are less good predictors of attraction then they once were (Lis, 2012). Jatmiko (2004) postulated that natural environment policies may not be affecting attraction as greatly because it is en vogue to be "green." Perhaps, the American culture is moving towards expecting corporations to engage in these practices, and so offering these practices may not attract individuals, but not having them may discourage potential applicants from applying. This indicates that research needs to examine under what conditions does a corporate social responsibility statement really increase attraction to an organization? Possibility more interesting, under what conditions does it not? Maybe corporate social responsibility statements decrease or do not affect organizational attraction when economic times are poor (spending money on "frivolous" things), or maybe this issue is only relevant to large corporations and their industries, but not smaller ones like the restaurant industry where many are small, independently owned.

The lack of findings on age differences also has implications for research. Research on generational differences has been divided as to the degree to which generational differences truly exist. In this study, none of the hypothesized age-related differences were found. This lends credence the argument against generational differences. Perhaps the differences are not as pronounced as we might like to believe. Research needs to try to understand why so some empirical research finds differences, but more and more currant literature does not. Maybe the differences are not meaningful, or maybe we are not examining what the true differences are. Much of the research looks at difference values and behaviors, but little if any research examines why those values and beliefs may have developed. Generational research claims that certain events define any given generation, but maybe these events also create a fundamental shift in society that change behavior and values of the society as a whole. Older generations have the luxury to pick and choose the values, beliefs, and behaviors from before the shift, where younger generations are exposed only to the values and beliefs remaining in the aftermath of those events. Perhaps understanding this at a societal level, may help us understand this divide at the individual level.

These general lacks of findings on generation differences have implications for practice as well. There is evidence that practitioners believe generational differences exist in their workplace (some popular cites here to support this statement), even when research (including this study) is not finding it.

This may mean that practitioners are spending more time, money and effort dealing with problems that may not be as pervasive as believed. If managers believe these differences are manifesting themselves in the workplace, but research findings do not support this– then perhaps it is not the values and beliefs that are different, but rather another factor such as communication styles around technology. These issues may be resolved through diversity training programs that delve into the stereotypes people hold about others of different generations/ages. If employees can come to understand these differences, and why they hold the stereotypes, then the problems organizations are seeing may be minimized.

The only age difference found in this study was that younger individuals who perceived PO fit as lower were less likely to be attracted to an organization than older individuals. This also has real implications for practice. Organizations need to be attuned to whether or not younger applicants believe they fit with the values of the organization if they want to attract high quality applicants. They may need to spend more energy, time and effort making sure younger applicants feel like they belong during recruitment as the younger applicants may be less attracted to the company, and in turn less likely to join the organization or if they do – stay very long if they do not feel they fit. Where less effort may be spent assuring older applicants that they will fit with the company, as they more likely to be attracted and maybe even join the organization whether their perceived PO

fit is low or not. Their stage in life (i.e. having a mortgage, family, bills) may not allow them to be as choosey in which organizations they want to join, where younger individuals who have the luxury of being choosey may hold out for a company that they perceive better fit with.

Limitations and Future Research

There are some limitations to be considered in interpreting results of this study. One limitation is that the comparisons were between companies with average and above average levels of the policies examined, which speaks to the boundary conditions to which you might generalize study findings. The study was presented to participants such that the "companies" were being considered for a "Best of" list and so there were not lower end conditions (low pay, poor corporate social responsibility and work-life balance statements). Rynes, Schwab and Heneman (1983) found that when attributes of an organization do not vary considerably, those attributes may receive less weight in making decisions about the organization. Thus, a study that compared high versus low (below average) levels on the same policy may yield different findings. Future research should consider examining high, average, and low levels on these policies to examine differences.

The contrived experimental manipulations may also affect the external validity of the study. Though laboratory settings make it difficult to generalize findings, Chapman and colleagues (2005) found that the relationship between job

and organizational characteristics and organizational outcomes did not vary significantly between real job applicants and non-applicants. Further, they argued that laboratory research may be just as beneficial as real world observational studies in understanding the early stages of the application processes, including initial attraction to an organization (Chapman at el, 2005).

The sample only included those who were currently actively looking for a job. This sample may differ from the larger population in relation to their work expectations or what they desire from a company. Perhaps participants have left or want to leave their organizations due to dissatisfaction with company polices which, for them, may be an important aspect of attraction. For example, maybe they left or want to leave because their organization did not provide health insurance, and that is the biggest factor in being attracted to a new organization. The participants might have left or want to leave their organization because they have had a bad experience with one of these policies – maybe the organization was too focused on corporate social responsibility, and they do not an organization that stresses those polices. Future research should look at factors that would not only recruit applicants, but also help retain them within the organization.

There also is potential concern with using a third-party online data base source for participants. These participants are being "paid" for their answers, and relatively little at that. This may mean they could pay less attention and answer

more erratically than other groups of participants. In support of this idea, just fewer than 10% of participants were excluded from analysis for various reasons such as failure to answer the attention check question or inconsistent answering of reverse coded question. Thus, it is possible that poor quality of respondent data prevented me from finding some of the relationships that were hypothesized. However, many studies have been published in peer reviewed journals using the Qualtrics survey panels across several fields such as medical: The American Journal of Public Health (Sams, Rozier, & Wilder, 2013); psychology: Current Psychology (Monterro, Wilson, & Beyer, 2013) and business: Academy of Management Journal (Long, Bendersky, & Norrill, 2011). One positive feature of studies using online panels is that they seek out larger samples that are representative of the entire nation, increasing the generalizability of their findings, overcoming the poor response rates of standard mail surveys and convenience sampling of students. Researchers have suggested that results found using online panels such as these are expected to be similar as those solicited by other means (Verheyden, 2013).

Conclusion

Organizations want to attract the largest applicant pool possible in order to select the best of the talent pool (Turban & Cable, 2003). Even though the workforce is becoming more age-diverse, the impact of age differences may not be as crucial as some of the literature has suggested (Carver & Candela, 2008;

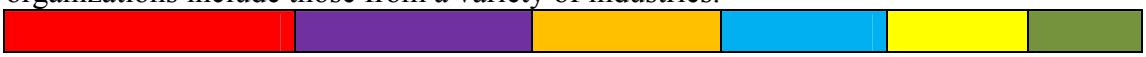
Kupperschmidt, 2000; Twenge, 2010; Twenge et al, 2010). For companies that want to attract high quality applicants, offering desirable benefits such as work-life balance polices seem to be effective in attracting many different applicants of varying ages.

Appendix A

Cover Story

Appendix A: Cover Story

The purpose of this research is to compile top 25 list of emerging organizations in the United States. Emerging companies are those that have been incorporated for less than 10 years that have fewer than 5,000 employees. The companies being considered as top emerging organizations include those from a variety of industries.



** Larger bars indicate larger number of companies in that industry being considered*

To choose organizations for inclusion in this top 25 emerging employers list, we surveyed 14,000 employees from 109 firms to gather information on employee perceptions of a variety of work environment characteristics that will be used to rank the best employers. One-third of an employer's score will be based on the employees' attitudes about management credibility, job satisfaction, and camaraderie. One-third will be based on information about pay and benefit programs as well as reports about hiring practices, methods of internal communication, training, recognition programs and diversity efforts. Finally, one-third will be based on outside opinions about which of these 25 companies would be most attractive to potential applicants. You are participating in this research in order to provide data which will be used to assess the attractiveness of each organization being considered for the top 25 emerging companies to people who might be applicants – that is, you are contributing an outside opinion for the final third of the ranking data. You will be asked to only evaluate one of the organizations being considered for the list. After reading the brief description of the organization as given by current employees, please rate how attractive you perceive the organization to be as an employer on a scale of 1 (not attractive at all) to 5 (very attractive). You will also be asked some general questions about your preferences in order to better categorize your responses.

By continuing to the next page, you are acknowledging that you are 18 years of age or over, and agree to participate in the research. Please use the forward and backward arrows at the bottom of the page to move through the survey, not the arrows at the top of your browser page.

Appendix A: [cont]

All organizations that are being considered for the top 25 have been identified as meeting, at a minimum, industry standards in three key areas: compensation, work-life balance initiatives, and corporate social responsibility. However, many of these organizations were noted to be far superior to industry standards on at least one of these factors. If the organization you are evaluating was noted by their employees for above average practices for one or more of three common practices, a box will be marked as in the example below. A box is also provided which depicts whether the organization is currently hiring.

✔	Potential for hire		Promotes work-life balance initiatives
✔	Offers above average compensation package		Active in Corporate Social Responsibility initiatives

So a company with the rating above is currently hiring, and offers pay and benefits above industry standards, *but* does *NOT* engaging in work-life balance initiatives or corporate social responsibility initiatives above what is typical for emerging employers.
Quotes from the employees' comments will also be included to help describe the policies of the organization in more detail. The quotes listed are representative examples of comments given by the employees of the company. Thus, if a company has been marked as exceeding industry standards, quotes from the employees' comments will be included for each area. For example:

> "It seems as if there is a new face around the office every week" (hiring)
>
> "… encourages those of us without recycling bins at home to bring our recycling to the office bins" (corporate social responsibility)

Employee comments should align with the indicated practices.

Appendix B

Manipulations

Appendix B: Manipulations – CSR Policy and High pay, no WLB policy

Company Name: Caxxi Corp

Number of employees: 1,274

Brief description:

This startup only has a turnover rate of 2.7%. With so many workers enjoying working at Caxxi, they recruit friends and relatives – with nearly 40% of new hires being referrals. Employees are encouraged to personalize their workstations; Caxxi will even offer a small stipend to do so. The last Friday of the month is Free Lunch Fridays, where managers serve a buffet lunch to all employees.

✔	Potential for hire		Promotes work-life balance initiatives
✔	Offers above average compensation package	✔	Active in Corporate Social Responsibility initiatives

Comments from a recent employee survey at Caxxi

"We're hiring like crazy right now, it seems every day there is someone new."
"I think we hired like 50 new people, just last year"
"We are paid yearly bonuses based on performance on top of the great base salary."
"The company makes sure pay and benefits are generous."
"Caxxi offers employees paid two month sabbatical to volunteer at a nonprofit organization or emergency site once every 18 months if they want"
"If an employee volunteers 24 documented hours for a charity of their choice, at the end of the year the company sends the charity a check for $200 dollars"

Appendix B: [cont] – CSR Policy, Average Pay, No WLB Policy

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"We don't work many weekends, but when we have to, to meet a deadline, Caxxi gives us a whole paid weekday day off to use anytime within a month, even if we only worked a half day on the weekend"
"Caxxi offers up to 5 extra days of vacation if an employee receives exemplary performance ratings on all factors two quarters in a row"

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Appendix C

Measures

Appendix C: Measures

Anticipated Organizational Support Measure – from: Casper and Buffardi (2004)

1.If I were working at this company, I would feel supported at work
2.This company does little to support its employees (r)
3.This company provides adequate support for its employees
4.This company treats its employees well
5.This company cares about its employees

Personal Beliefs about Corporate Social Responsibility Measure – from: Dennis et al (2009)

Moral Obligation

1. I have a moral obligation to ensure that my firm supports the local community.
2. Using the firm's resources to engage in philanthropy is morally right.
3. I have a moral obligation to ensure that my firm engages in philanthropy.
4. I have a moral obligation to ensure that my firm helps those in need.

Identity

1. I think of myself as a philanthropist.
2. I am very concerned with philanthropy.
3. Philanthropy is an important part of who I am.

Organizational Attraction Measure – from: Highhouse, Lievens, & Sinar (2003)

General attractiveness

1. For me, this company would be a good place to work.
2. I would not be interested in this company except as a last resort. (r)
3. This company is attractive to me as a place for employment.
4. I am interested in learning more about this company.
5. A job at this company is very appealing to me.

Value of Work-Life Roles – from: Amatea et al (1986)

Family Role Reward Value

1. Although having a family requires many sacrifices, the love and enjoyment of family are worth it all.
2. If I chose not to have a family, I would regret it.
3. It is important to me to feel I am (will be) a good family member.
4. I expect the major satisfactions in my life to come from my family.
5. My life would be empty if I never had a family.
6. Having a family I love is more important to me than anything else.

Leisure Role Reward Value

1. My life would seem empty if I did not have enough time to engage in leisure activities that are important to me.

2. Having adequate leisure time is the most important thing in my life.
3. I expect to put a lot of time and effort into building and maintaining a personal life during my leisure time.
4. Being happy with my personal leisure time is more important to me than anything else.
5. I expect the major satisfactions in my life to come from my activities I engage in during my leisure time.

Volunteer Role Reward Value

1. My life would seem empty if I did not have enough time to engage in volunteer activities that are important to me.
2. Having adequate time to volunteer is the most important thing in my life.
3. I expect my volunteering to give me more real satisfaction than anything else I do.
4. Being happy with my personal time to volunteer is more important to me than anything else.
5. I expect the major satisfactions in my life to come from the volunteer activities I engage in.

Occupational Role Reward Value

1. Having work/a career that is interesting and exciting to me is my most important life goal.
2. I expect my job/career to give me more real satisfaction than anything else I do.
3. Building a name and reputation for myself though work/a career is not one of my life goals (r)
4. It is important to me that I have a job/career in which I can achieve something of importance.
5. It is important to me to feel successful in my work/career

Materialism Scale – from: Richins (2004)

Success

1. I admire people who own expensive homes, cars, and clothes.
2. The things I own say a lot about how well I'm doing in life.

Centrality

1. Buying things gives me a lot of pleasure.
2. I like a lot of luxury in my life.

Happiness

1. My life would be better if I owned certain things I don't have.
2. I'd be happier if I could afford to buy more things.

Appendix D

Demographic Questions

Appendix D: Demographic Questions

1. Are you currently, or within the next 12 months will you be actively looking for new employment? Yes No

2. What year where you born in? _____

3. What is your sex? Male Female

4. Which of the following best describes your race?
   _____ American Indian/Native Alaskan
   _____ Asian/Pacific Islander
   _____ African American/Black
   _____ Caucasian/White
   _____ Hispanic/Latino
   _____ Multi-Racial or Other

**Question above will be given at the beginning of survey as "screening" questions.*

5. What is your highest level of education?
   _____ Less than high school
   _____ High school degree/GED
   _____ Some college or technical school
   _____ Trade/Technical/Vocational training
   _____ Associates degree
   _____ Bachelor's Degree
   _____ Some postgraduate work
   _____ Master's Degree
   _____ Professional Degree (ie. MD, JD)
   _____ PhD

6. What is your marital status?
   _____Single, never married
   _____ Single, living with a partner
   _____ Married/Domestic Partner
   _____ Separated
   _____ Divorced
   _____ Widowed

7. (hidden embedded question if they answer Married or living with partner) Which of the following best describes your partner's employment status?
   _____ Full Time
   _____ Part Time
   _____ Student (with employment)
   _____ Student (unemployed)
   _____ Unemployed
   _____ Disabled/Unable to work
8. How many children do you have? _____

9. (hidden embedded question if they answer any number but 0) How many children you have living at home? _____

10. (follow up embedded question) What are the ages of your children living at home? (please put the number of children you have for each age group)
_____ <2
_____ 3-5
_____ 6-10
_____11-13
_____14-18
_____ over 18

11. What is *your* current income level?
_____ $0 – 24,999
_____ $25,000 – 34,999
_____ $35,000 – 49,999
_____ $50,000 – 74,999
_____ $75,000 – 99,999
_____ $100,000 – 149,999
_____ Over $150,000
_____ Prefer not to answer

12. Please indicate which industry you are employed in:
_____ Advertising & Marketing
_____ Agriculture
_____ Airlines & Aerospace (including Defense)
_____ Automotive
_____ Business Support & Logistics
_____ Construction, Machinery and Homes
_____ Education
_____ Entertainment & Leisure
_____ Finance & Financial Services
_____ Food & Beverages
_____ Government
_____ Health Care & Pharmaceuticals
_____ Insurance
_____ Manufacturing
_____ Nonprofit
_____ Retail & Consumer Durables
_____ Real Estate
_____ Telecommunications, Technology, Internet & Electronics
_____ Utilities, Energy, and Extraction
_____ Other

13. Are you employed? Full-time Part-time not employed

14. How many years have you been employed at your current job? _____

15. How many years have you been employed full time? _____

16. What best describes your job?

_____ Accounting/Auditing
_____Administrative
_____Advertising/Marketing
_____Analyst
_____Art/Creative/Design
_____Business Development
_____Consulting
_____Customer Service
_____Distribution
_____Doctor
_____Educator (e.g. teacher, lecturer, professor)
_____Engineering
_____Finance
_____General Business
_____Health Care Provider (other than doctor or nurse)
_____Human Resources
_____Information Technology
_____Legal
_____Management
_____Manufacturing
_____Nurse
_____Production
_____Product Management
_____Project Management
_____Public Relations
_____Purchasing
_____Quality Assurance
_____Research
_____Sales
_____Science
_____Strategy/Planning
_____Supply Chain
_____Training
_____Writing
_____ Other

17. How many hours per week on average do you spend in each of the following activities? (please give an amount for each – for example: if you do not participate in religious activities then put a 0 next to that option)
    _____ Paid employment
    _____ School related work and responsibilities
    _____ Childcare responsibilities
    _____ Eldercare responsibilities
    _____ Household chores/responsibilities
    _____ Community service/volunteer work
    _____ Church/temple/religious organization
    _____ Leisure time

18. (hidden question if answer anything but 0 to community service). Please list any community service and/or volunteer activities you participate in. (open ended)

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Her area of research has focused on diversity – and has been presented at several national conferences for the Academy of Management and Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology. She has one publication in a peer reviewed journal. She was also invited to author a chapter in a handbook on generational differences in the workplace. A second book chapter with her advisor and another graduate student is currently under review.