

**WORKER ATTITUDES TOWARD PAY EQUITY:
JOB, UNION AND WOMEN'S EQUALITY FACTORS**

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March, 1993

**Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of MASTER of SCIENCE**

**Saint Mary's University
Halifax, Nova Scotia**



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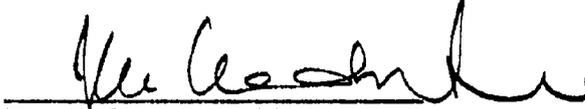
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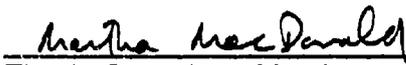
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ABSTRACT

This study examined workers' attitudes toward Pay Equity in relation to their perspective on job-related issues and union-related issues as well as their attitudes toward women in the work world. The data were collected through a survey of over 300 workers employed at two hospitals in Atlantic Canada. The Attitude Toward Pay Equity scale (ATPE), developed for the present study, factored into four subscales, Understanding and Support, Perceived Impact, Beliefs and Fairness. Although the psychometric qualities of the subscales were marginal at best, they were included to provide more detailed analyses. Caution should, therefore, be used in the interpretations.

The established relationships between job-related and union-related variables were replicated in this study (see Summer & Hendrix, 1991; Southwell, 1991). The ATPE scale revealed interesting information on the relations of workers' views of Pay Equity and their attitudes regarding their job, their Union and women's equality. As predicted, ATPE were positively related to wage equity and job satisfaction. The workers' views of Union service and their commitment to their Union were also related to Pay Equity attitudes. Both the workers' attitudes toward women in the workplace and their views on equality were related to ATPE. Only the workers' perceptions of equality in the workplace and their perceptions

of Union involvement in Pay Equity with the moderating effects of sex and age were significant predictors of ATPE in the exploratory regression analysis.

Single-item questions assessed the consequences of Pay Equity implementation and the results were encouraging in terms of the workers' reactions. Very few workers reported negative implementation effects on their jobs, their place of work or the views of the women's movement. Analyses also revealed that Pay Equity raises were associated with increased support for Pay Equity, increased job satisfaction, increased awareness of women's equality issues and changes in Union perceptions. Also, an increased support for the women's movement since Pay Equity was associated with Union attitudes indicating a link between the two philosophies.

The positive effects of Pay Equity, including the increased earnings, seem to outweigh the negative. Pay Equity will continue to affect the working lives of both men and women and will alter the parameters of female-dominated occupations, thus, continuing the need to understand workers' reactions to Pay Equity. Also, as union involvement appears to be tied with workers' attitudes toward programs such as Pay Equity, unions must clearly communicate their roles to their members.

The possibilities for future research are plentiful. More developmental research is needed to refine the ATPE scale. Both a qualitative approach and a longitudinal study are recommended to yield more information on workers' reactions to Pay Equity. Also, the relationship between unionization and Pay Equity or, more generally, feminist ideology should be pursued further.

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WORKER ATTITUDES TOWARD PAY EQUITY: JOB, UNION AND WOMEN'S EQUALITY FACTORS

The Feminization Of Poverty

In the last twenty years, the number of women working outside the home has increased dramatically. Between the years of 1966 and 1982, the female labour force increased by 119.4% while the male labour force increased by only 35.6% (Nova Scotia Advisory Council on the Status of Women [NSACSW], 1988). Although societal attitudes toward working women have improved somewhat during this time, they have not altered enough to end sex segregation and wage discrimination in the work place. NSACSW (1988) noted that women earn approximately 60 cents for every dollar earned by men, make up 75% of the workers earning minimum wage, are twice as likely as men to work part-time and represent the majority of Canadians living on or below the poverty line.

Women tend to be "crowded" into limited, traditionally female occupations. Seventy percent of working women are in clerical, sales, service and health occupations which, in turn, are also the lowest paying occupations - largely because they are dominated by women (NSACSW, 1988). These female dominated occupations are also characterized by few job benefits, little unionization and very few advancement opportunities (NSACSW, 1988). Thus, the majority of working women are "crowded" into low-status, low-paying, dead-end "job-ghettos".

Realistically, all of the statistics listed above are factual representations of the "feminization of poverty". The possibility of poverty is much more salient for women than men. Women are less able than men to afford decent clothing, food and housing, not to mention items desired but not necessities, because a woman's dollar is simply not worth as much as a man's. The feminization of poverty becomes a burden not only to women

but for every tax payer whose money must be spent on subsidizing social programs for women (NSACSW, 1988; Nova Scotia Federation of Labour, n.d. [NSFL]).

Pay Equity or more accurately, equal pay for work of equal worth, is a tangible solution to female wage discrimination. It does not purport to be the ultimate solution to the inequalities faced by women every day but attempts to be a step in that direction. In fact, Pay Equity has been estimated to reduce the wage gap by 15 to 20 percent, that is, to reduce the gap due to overt sex discrimination.

The Pay Equity Concept

The "equal pay for work of equal value" concept is the primary issue of concern when discussing Pay Equity or comparable worth. It allows a comparison to be made between two totally different jobs by determining the value or worth of the job (Patten, 1988). Jobs found to have the same value are required to be paid the same wage regardless of the sex of the worker.

Women's work is fundamentally different, although not less valuable, than men's work. Thus, by comparing work value or worth as opposed to work tasks, it is possible to eliminate much of the systematic sex discrimination found in the work place as well as increasing the wages of working women. Pay Equity is effective because it forces people to reexamine the types of work traditionally dismissed as not valuable and, therefore, not paid equitable wages (NSACSW, 1988).

"Value" is quantified through different types of job evaluations. The comparison between a female-dominated job and a male-dominated job is typically done on four levels: skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions. These levels are assigned weights and, in any given job evaluation, quantified and added together to a total value

given to a job. Jobs with the same numerical values are regarded as equal in worth and should be paid the same wage regardless of sex. Although this procedure might sound relatively simple there are a lot of biases and problems when applying the concept of comparable worth (See Cronshaw, 1991).

Job Evaluation.

The point-factor method is the preferred methodology for Pay Equity. It is done by breaking jobs down into parts and subsequently evaluating these parts as opposed to the whole job (Kelly, 1988). This method of job evaluation begins with the selection of the job compensation factors that represent what any given organization is paying for. These factors are then defined in such a way that they will incorporate the types of jobs specific to the organization under study. These factors are given weights (in percents) to indicate their relative importance to the organization and subsequently broken down into subfactors which represent a certain number of points. The total number of points for all of the subfactors add up to equal the factor weightings. Each factor in each job is then analyzed and awarded points, the sum of which represents its relative value to the organization (Kelly, 1988). Wages are assigned according to the job value.

While this explanation is rather superficial, it does indicate where subjectivity can enter into the process, i. e. , in the choice of factors and the weightings of these factors. Even when the factors and their weights are determined via policy-capturing methods, the results tend to reflect biases already imposed on the organization's wage structure.

Pay Equity in Nova Scotia

Proactive Pay Equity legislation forces employers to initiate programs in their establishments (NSFL). In Canada, Manitoba was the first province to legislate proactive Pay Equity. Nova Scotia, Ontario and Prince Edward Island have followed suit while taking advantage of the mistakes of the Manitoba legislation. These four provinces have legislated both proactive and complaint-based programs. The latter leaves the onus on the employee to complain about discriminatory situations.

All of the Canadian programs concern employees in the public sector. The Ontario legislation is presently the only one that specifically address the private sector as well (Cuneo, 1990). Although the province of Quebec also has Pay Equity legislation, it is similar to that of the federal government in that it is a complaint-based model (NSFL).

Nova Scotia's Pay Equity Act was introduced in 1989 and included three adjustment phases (Women's Research Centre, 1991). Phase 1 adjustments began in September, 1990 and were scheduled to be completed in four years. Phase 2 adjustments were scheduled to begin in September, 1991. However, in the Spring of that year, the provincial government in Nova Scotia presented their annual budget and the Public Sector Wage Restraint Bill (C160). This bill stated that public sector jobs would undergo a wage freeze regardless of the collected agreements negotiated in good faith. The budget also eliminated Pay Equity from the provincial budget even though the government had previously promised it to their employees. This announcement was, not surprisingly, met with outrage, and unions and women's groups began their protests.

In regard to the Pay Equity freeze, much lobbying was done to bring Pay Equity "back on board". Civil service unions had demonstrations demanding the reinstatement of Pay Equity. Likewise, public advertisements were sponsored by public sector unions

protesting the thwarted legislation. A civil service union had also presented their case against the budget in front of the Law Amendment Committee. Women's groups demanded their fair dues and threatened to take the government to court for sexual discrimination. Through this lobbying, Pay Equity was eventually reinstated in the summer of 1991, although adjustments due to begin in September were postponed until April of 1992.

Problems with Pay Equity

Arguments against Pay Equity.

There have been many arguments against Pay Equity legislation (Lutes & Rothchild, 1986). Some opponents argue that Pay Equity will result in higher labour cost which would bring about economic disasters. Others contend that women should switch jobs if they want more pay. The market argument states that the setting of wages is and should continue to be established through the process of supply and demand. Other arguments revolve around the methodology, that is, "you cannot compare apples and oranges" (Lutes & Rothchild, 1986). Most, if not all, of these arguments have been put forth without any direct evidence, and are essentially scare tactics. Most of the arguments are flawed in fact and logic (see Lutes & Rothchild, 1986) but they do add to the difficulties in implementing the legislation by creating less supportive environments in the workplace.

Legislative Problems.

The legislation itself is also problematic. While the concept of equal pay for work of equal value has been outwardly accepted, it has been transformed into what we know as Pay Equity. Cuneo (1990) noted that the essence of equal pay for work of equal value

runs against the interests of male capitalists. Thus, they have transformed the movement into a "passive revolution" by inserting loopholes or exemptions in strong proactive Pay Equity legislation so that many women do not qualify for Pay Equity adjustments (Cuneo, 1990). The following is a brief outline of a few of the loopholes which have drastically reduced the effectiveness of Pay Equity.

Under most legislative Pay Equity programs, only jobs dominated by a vast majority of women (60 or 70%) can be compared with jobs dominated by a vast majority of men in the same establishment and/or union bargaining unit. Thus, women in gender-neutral and male-dominated occupations who are earning less than their male counterparts cannot qualify for Pay Equity adjustments. Also, by lowering the numbers of men or women workers in particular jobs employers can avoid Pay Equity adjustments (Cuneo, 1990).

In most Pay Equity acts, comparisons of female-dominated and male-dominated jobs can be made only within the establishment, not between related establishments (Cuneo, 1990). Thus, women in female-dominated establishments are automatically disqualified for Pay Equity adjustments because there are no male-dominated comparison group. The Ontario Pay Equity Commission estimated that 50.6% of the women who should be covered by Pay Equity are disqualified by this loophole (Cuneo, 1990).

Although variations occur from province to province, different casual, part-time, irregular, non-seasonal, and temporary positions are excluded from Pay Equity acts. Similarly, incumbents in temporary training positions are also excluded (Cuneo, 1990).

Employers can also "red-circle" or downgrade male jobs and, thus freeze their wages and offer low rates of pay to new incumbents (Cuneo, 1990). By doing this, employers do not have to compare the wages of women's jobs to these higher wages as

they were deemed officially overpaid. Although most Pay Equity programs do not permit lowering wages to achieve equity, red-circling is permitted. Not only does red-circling decrease women's pay adjustments, but it also divides workers into competing groups.

In Canada, only the Ontario Pay Equity act presently extends to the private sector. Cuneo (1990) noted that most women are employed in the private sector; therefore, the vast majority of women are excluded from Pay Equity coverage.

Maximum limits, usually 1% of payroll, are placed on the size of annual Pay Equity settlements. Thus, the most underpaid women will most likely have to wait the longest for pay parity. Only the Nova Scotia act gave a maximum period of time for the adjustments to take place (Cuneo, 1990).

These and other loopholes have seriously undermined the essence of equal pay for work of equal value. Not only do they disqualify many women from potential Pay Equity adjustments (about 60%), they also weaken the labour-women's movement. By institutionalizing comparisons between male and female jobs and wages, gender divisions become more pronounced and men begin to blame their lack of success in the workforce on women (Cuneo, 1990). Also, Pay Equity acts pit women against women by disqualifying some. Thus, Pay Equity legislation is only a partial victory in the fight for equality (Cuneo, 1990).

Sex Biases in Job Evaluations.

Problems with Pay Equity also include biases in the job evaluations. It should be clarified that job evaluations do not evaluate jobs per se. Instead jobs are evaluated on the basis of the selected compensation factors (Patten, 1988). Although it is assumed that the compensation factors encompass all of the job characteristics, this is not always

true, especially of female-dominated occupations. Since job evaluations were originally designed to evaluate male-dominated occupations, they still contain biases against female-dominated occupations. Traditional job evaluation factors and/or the definitions of these factors often omit many of the duties performed in female-dominated jobs and put emphasis on the skills found in male-dominated jobs.

The possibilities of sex biases in job evaluations seem unlimited. Many women's job skills are overlooked when awarding points. Examples are rapid finger dexterity, protecting confidentiality, sitting for long periods of time and answering public complaints (Cuneo, 1990; NSACSW, 1988; Lewis, 1988). Other omitted aspects of female occupations are more invisible (NSACSW, 1988). For example, many jobs require that women be "courteous and pleasant". This aspect of the job is typically written off as behaving in a mannerly way, but often encompasses many duties including handling irate customers or patients. Also, many tasks are not thought of as job-related duties or are not recognized as special job skills but as "women's work or skills". The most obvious example is in caretaking occupations where nurturing is assumed to be an inherent tendency of women and thus not highly valued. Women themselves often do not value their own skills and they too disregard them in job descriptions. NSACSW (1988) felt that women's consciousness of their own value must be raised to achieve unbiased results (NSACSW, 1988).

Most researchers involved in weeding out these biases conclude that there is no such thing as a gender-neutral job evaluation. Even if such a system existed, it could be used in a biased way (Acker, 1987). Some women's groups fear job evaluations because of the possibility of legitimizing systematic wage discrimination based on gender and, therefore, advocate alternatives to Pay Equity (Lewis, 1988). Others still believe that Pay

Equity via job evaluations is a step in the right direction when possible sex biases are controlled (NSACSW, 1988). Even when biases against women are not weeded out, the results usually indicate that female-dominated jobs are undervalued and thus should be paid more (Madigan & Hoover, 1986).

Workers' Attitudes toward Pay Equity.

Many of the above problems with Pay Equity will impact on the workers' attitudes toward Pay Equity legislation, the effects that implementation will have on the worker and so forth. In fact, many opponents of Pay Equity have made assumptions regarding the negative effects on the workers and the workplace. In reality, very few studies have actually quantified these assumptions. The present study is an attempt to measure the workers' attitudes toward this legislation. Included in the present study are assessments of workers' attitudes toward the fairness of the legislation and implementation. Specifically, the study examined workers' perceptions of the above mentioned loopholes as well as the biases in job evaluation methodology with the Attitudes toward Pay Equity Scale (see method).

Three basic topics or factors have been included in the present study because of their probable associations with workers' attitudes toward Pay Equity. These included job-related, union-related and women's equality factors; the latter concentrates on individual attitudes toward women in the workplace. In other words, workers' attitudes toward their job, their union as well as their perceptions of women's roles in the workplace were expected to be related to their attitudes toward Pay Equity. The following are descriptions of the variables included in the study and how they might be related to Pay Equity attitudes.

Pay Equity as a Job-Related Issue

Several employee-focused areas of study have either been empirically linked or are intuitively related to Pay Equity. These include pay satisfaction, wage equity¹, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The following is a brief review of the literature on these topics as well as how they relate to Pay Equity.

Pay Satisfaction.

Various factors have been thought to influence people's perceptions of pay satisfaction (Berkowitz, Fraser, Treasure & Cochran, 1987). The most obvious factor is that of economic benefits, i.e., the workers' wage level significantly predicts how satisfied they are with their pay.

Also, fairness or equity often plays an important factor in determining pay satisfaction levels (Berkowitz et al., 1987). Employees are satisfied with their pay if they feel they are getting paid what they deserve. Likewise, another equity factor found to influence pay satisfaction is social comparison (Berkowitz et al., 1987). That is, people's satisfaction with their pay is related to the income of a group they compare it with. For example, if nurses compare their pay with that of doctor's, they will most likely be dissatisfied. This topic will be discussed in more detail below.

Intrinsic job rewards or job satisfaction also influence perceptions of pay satisfaction (Berkowitz et al., 1987). Workers often base their expectations of what they should get paid based on specific characteristics of their job. For example, if workers derive satisfaction from the content of their work, they may not have as great a need for

¹"wage equity" was used in this paper instead of "pay equity" so as not to confuse the reader with legislated Pay Equity.

external gratifiers (e.g. pay). The reverse could be true as well (Berkowitz et al., 1987). Job satisfaction is discussed in greater detail below.

Demographic variables including age, education, occupation and sex are also related to perceptions of pay satisfaction. Berkowitz et al. (1987) found that older employees tended to be more satisfied with their pay than younger employees. Likewise, Jackson and Grabski (1988) noted that older employees expected to, and usually did, earn more money than younger employees. On the other hand, McDonald and Southwell (1991) found that older employees were less satisfied with their pay than younger employees.

Educational levels have also been found to be related to pay satisfaction. Generally, high levels of education tend to be associated with pay dissatisfaction and perceptions of pay inequities (Berkowitz et al., 1987; McDonald & Southwell, 1991). Possibly, individuals with more education believe themselves to be more "valuable" and, therefore, worth more money than those with less education.

Occupational levels and income seem to be associated with pay satisfaction. Men in higher occupational levels were more dissatisfied with their pay than those in lower levels (Berkowitz et al., 1987). Individuals who earn higher incomes have been found to have a higher standard of what constitutes a "reasonable income" (Jackson & Grabski, 1988) and are often less satisfied with their pay (McDonald & Southwell, 1991). Berkowitz et al. (1987) also noted that individuals who had been unemployed at some time during their life were less satisfied with their pay than those who had not been unemployed.

Another demographic variable associated with pay satisfaction levels is the sex of the respondent. That is, women tend to be more satisfied with their pay than men, even

though they make significantly less money (Major & Forcey, 1985). This issue will be discussed in more detail below.

The relationships of pay satisfaction and these demographic variables will be tested in the present study. In this case, however, the occupational level will be substituted with the bargaining unit. Because of concerns with confidentiality, the respondents' job classifications were not collected. As a result, bargaining units, broader groupings of hospital jobs and the only occupational division collected, were utilized as job classification equivalents.

Wage Equity.

As previously noted, pay must be perceived as equitable before a person will be satisfied with it; thus, wage equity and pay satisfaction are intrinsically connected. Perceptions of wage equity are based on both distributive and procedural justice. That is, perceptions of fairness or equity depend on both the amounts of compensation received and the method used to determine the amounts of compensation (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). Folger & Konovsky (1989) also found that distributive justice explained twice as much variance in workers' pay satisfaction as procedural justice; however, the relationship between procedural justice and pay satisfaction was significant. Procedural justice is a better predictor of workers' attitudes towards authorities and institutions (e.g. organizational commitment) than distributive justice.

Lowe & Wittig (1989) argue that if the procedures used are viewed as fair, then the distribution of outcomes will also be viewed as fair, even if they are disadvantageous. Likewise, perceptions of outcome fairness are dependent on perceptions of procedural fairness for those whose outcomes are low. On the other hand, perceptions of outcomes

are perceived as fair regardless of the perceptions of the procedure when the outcomes are high (Greenberg, 1987 as cited in Lowe & Wittig, 1989). Obviously, self-interest seems to bias people's perceptions of justice (Hegtvedt, 1989).

A major premise of equity theory states that when an individual experiences inequity (i.e. ratio of outcomes to input is unequal compared to another), they will become distressed and, therefore, will either attempt to restore actual equity or change their perceptions to restore psychological equity (Jackson & Grabski, 1988). In other words, people can alter their beliefs about the outcomes they receive as a means of restoring equity. For example, Greenberg (1989) found that a theorized pay cut resulted in more value given to work environmental features of the job than monetary outcomes. Thus, perceptions of wage equity influence not only pay satisfaction but job satisfaction as well. These relationships between pay and job satisfaction and wage equity were also tested in the present study. The demographic variables of sex, age, education, occupation and income, reported to be related to pay satisfaction, were also examined in relation to wage equity. Bargaining units were used in place of occupational level because of the importance of confidentiality.

Job Satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is the result of several aspects of work life including the intrinsic nature of the work, the working conditions, financial rewards, relations with coworkers, likelihood of promotions and the resources to do the work (Evans & Nelson, 1989). Generally, people with high salaries and intrinsically interesting work are the most satisfied. However, most North Americans report that they are generally satisfied with

their jobs (Crosby, 1982). Individually, people determine job satisfaction by comparing the job traits they value with the traits rewarded in their organization (Evans & Nelson, 1989).

As noted earlier, individuals who receive less monetary rewards in their jobs tend to value other aspects of their work more highly than those who receive a fair wage (Greenberg, 1989). On the other hand, Summers & Hendrix (1991) found that pay satisfaction was a major component in determining job satisfaction. In turn, job satisfaction was strongly linked to organizational commitment.

Organizational Commitment.

Organizational commitment is defined as a strong desire to remain a member of the particular organization, a willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organization and a belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organization (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974). Together the elements of this definition represent the binding of an individual to the organization.

Generally, the more satisfied workers are with their pay and the more they perceive their pay as equitable, the more committed they are to the organization (Porter, et al., 1974; McDonald & Southwell, 1991). Summers & Hendrix (1991), testing a model of wage equity, found that perceived wage equity led to pay satisfaction which, in turn, interacted with job satisfaction and, finally led to organizational commitment. Because of the strong ties to pay satisfaction, wage equity and job satisfaction, organizational commitment is an important construct to include in a study that measures job-related attitudes. The present study attempted to replicate the relationships of organizational commitment with wage equity and job satisfaction.

Paradox of the Contented Female Worker.

As noted earlier, female workers differ from males on many job-related constructs, particularly those concerning pay. In 1987, Steel & Lovrich found that, although female workers' median annual income was only 40.8% of their male counterparts, women were statistically more satisfied with their pay than men. No differences were found in employees' attitudes towards pay as a motivator. That is, both men and women viewed salary increases and cash rewards as valuable work motivators (Steel & Lovrich, 1987). This finding has been termed the "paradox of the contented female worker" (Jackson & Grabski, 1988). Women generally have lower pay expectations than men, have lower standards of fair pay than men and expect less pay for their work than men. Women have also been found to work longer, do more work and do higher quality work than men for the same money. Jackson & Grabski (1988) suggested that these findings may reflect the experience of gender wage discrimination.

To explore this phenomenon, Major & Forcey (1985) examined women's and men's social comparison preferences and job evaluations when determining their perceptions of fair pay. Social comparison determination of equity are often to women's disadvantage as people prefer to maximize similarity in wage comparisons by using same-sex and same-job comparison groups. When women compare their pay to other women or to individuals in the same job (who are highly likely to be women), their wage standard is lower than when these wage comparisons included male workers. They also found that women felt that they deserved less pay than men and evaluated their work less positively than men. Major & Forcey (1985) concluded that women have learned, via environments where female-dominated jobs are paid less than male-dominated jobs and

female performance is evaluated less positively than male performance, to have low levels of pay standards.

Some women continue to believe that their income is secondary to their spouse's and, thus, may find their lower wages satisfactory. This idea is supported by Jackson & Grabski's (1988) finding that married subjects and parents recommended higher wages to male-dominated jobs and lower wages to female-dominated jobs than did single, childless subjects. Alternatively, married individuals and those with children may be more traditional in their attitudes toward gender roles than single and/or childless persons.

Low levels of pay satisfaction may also be an attempt to restore psychological equity (Dornstein, 1985). Since actual equity is not realized for many women workers, it makes sense that they would have lower standards of pay satisfaction in order to perceive their situation as equitable. Likewise, the relationship between work and pay may not be as strong for women as for men and, therefore, may be more susceptible to other influences (Jackson & Grabski, 1988). Women, in turn, perceive other factors such as pleasant coworkers as fair compensation for lower pay (Jackson, 1989).

Similarly, women tend to be as satisfied with their jobs as men (Major, 1989). As with pay satisfaction, women's job satisfaction is believed to be partially the result of low expectations and low rewards, especially for those in nonprofessional female-dominated occupations (Evans & Nelson, 1989).

The constructs of procedural and distributive justice are thought to be related to pay inequity. Since wages are determined via market factors such as supply and demand as well as employee contributions to the organization, pay should therefore be a product of the demand for one's skills in the labour force and the contributions one makes (i.e. productivity) in one's place of work. If this process is accepted by workers, the

procedures used to determine their pay would appear just. As a result, those who receive little (e.g. women) would not be dissatisfied (Hegtvedt, 1989).

With all these reasons why women tolerate pay inequities, one might wonder how Pay Equity ever got started and, in fact, why it is needed (Major, 1989). Through her research, Crosby (1982) found that while women were satisfied with their own situation, they were aware of and upset over the extent of discrimination faced by women in the work force. Likewise, those who experience group deprivation as opposed to individual deprivation were more likely to push for societal change like Pay Equity (Major, 1989).

The "paradox of the contented female worker" is likely to be challenged by Pay Equity. The basic premise of Pay Equity promotes comparisons of male-dominated and female-dominated occupations. It also advocates a just method of distributing wages and challenges existing methodologies. Thus, effects of Pay Equity such as changes in comparison groups, an increased perception of inequalities and changes in the methods by which wages are determined may result in changes in the levels of wage equity and pay satisfaction as well as impacting on job satisfaction and organizational commitment for both male and female workers.

These changes may also be related to support for Pay Equity legislation. For example, if workers believe that men are the primary breadwinners and women should continue to receive lower wages, legislation like Pay Equity may not be well supported. In turn, support for Pay Equity is assumed to be intrinsically tied to perceptions of women's role in society (Evans & Nelson, 1989). Also, if women believe they are being discriminated against as a group they would be more likely to support Pay Equity (Tougas & Veilleux, 1988).

Based on this research, the present study examined the different attitudes toward Pay Equity between women and men. The workers' attitudes toward Pay Equity were also expected to be related to their attitudes toward women's role in society, as well as how they viewed their current situation in the workplace. Specifically, both men and women who had traditional views of women's roles and/or did not feel women are being discriminated against at work would not be as supportive of Pay Equity. Sex differences in job and pay satisfaction levels and perceptions of wage equity as well as income were also explored. Demographic variables like parental and marital status, education and income were examined along with the workers' attitudes toward women's roles in society.

Job-Related Issues in Pay Equity.

To date very few studies have actually measured job-related constructs such as job satisfaction, wage equity and organizational commitment in relation to Pay Equity. Most discussions on Pay Equity have been concerned with abstract, theoretical and/or macroeconomic issues. While various job-related issues associated with Pay Equity programs have been the object of speculation, little research has gone into providing a systematic base of information to determine the accuracy of this speculation (Evans & Nelson, 1989; Lowe & Wittig, 1989).

The present study explores the relationship of pay satisfaction, job satisfaction, wage equity and organizational commitment with the workers' attitudes toward Pay Equity. Based on the only two studies that measured worker attitudes in relation to Pay Equity (Laurents, 1986; Evans & Nelson, 1989), positive correlations were predicted between each of these job-related variables and Pay Equity. These studies will be described next.

Laurents (1986) focused on the workers' reactions to Pay Equity. She used students to study the perceptions of wage equity, job and pay satisfaction and job performance before job evaluation, and before and after comparable worth adjustments. These variables were compared between female- and male-dominated job conditions and between male and female subjects. She found that overall equity, internal equity, external equity and individual equity were significantly higher for females than males after implementation of Pay Equity. Perceptions of overall and internal equity were significantly higher after implementation than prior to implementation for subjects in female-dominated occupations. No differences were found in general, job and pay satisfaction levels or in the quality or quantity of performance (Laurents, 1986).

Three major problems exist with Laurents' study: 1) the subjects were students, therefore, external validity is questionable, 2) the Pay Equity situation was created specifically for the research and was, therefore, artificial, which again brings questions to the study's external validity and 3) pay adjustments were made for all of the female-dominated jobs; therefore, no comparisons can be made between the reactions of women who received either small or no adjustments and those who receive more. Criticisms aside, this study is important to the exploration of attitudes during pay equity implementation.

Evans & Nelson (1989) examined psychological effects of Pay Equity implementation on Minnesota state employees. They telephoned approximately 500 employees and asked the respondents about their support for, knowledge about, receipt of and reactions to Pay Equity. Evans & Nelson (1989) found that an overwhelming majority of employees supported the concept of Pay Equity and that Pay Equity legislation was well-known to the employees. Interestingly, of the employees who actually received

Pay Equity raises, only 56.9% knew they had received one, 21.6% reported not having received one and, 21.6% reported never having heard of Pay Equity. Obviously, the contribution of Pay Equity to the women's movement is minimal if only half its beneficiaries are aware of their raises. They also found that, regardless of the support for the concept of Pay Equity, 36% of the respondents felt that Pay Equity implementation had caused problems in the workplace (Evans & Nelson, 1989).

This study also examined the impact of Pay Equity on job satisfaction. Evans & Nelson (1989) found that the most satisfied employees were those who had accurately known about their Pay Equity raises and the most dissatisfied employees were those who had known about the Pay Equity policy but not about their own raises. They concluded that increased expectations (i.e. knowledge about a new wage policy) and increased rewards (Pay Equity raises) increased job satisfaction. On the other hand, increased expectations and no rewards decreased job satisfaction. Some of the findings of Evans & Nelson's (1989) study are specific to unique factors. For example, impacts of the implementation were not advertised and notification to the employees consisted of changes in pay cheques which were not distinguished from regular pay raises. Other results, such as the respondents' knowledge of Pay Equity, may be generalized.

The Evans & Nelson (1989) study provides an important step in examining employee factors that may be affected by Pay Equity implementation. It is one of the first major studies to look at attitudes of workers affected by a Pay Equity program and, thus, provides a basis for comparison.

Comparisons of variables, such as job satisfaction and wage equity, similar to those made by Laurents (1986) and Evans & Nelson (1989) were made in the present study for participants who received Pay Equity adjustments and those who did not. They

were compared on their attitudes towards Pay Equity itself, job satisfaction, wage equity, pay satisfaction as well as union-related measures and those measuring their attitudes toward women's equality. Likewise, the respondents' satisfaction with the raise was also used as a comparison point in similar analyses. Finally, it was expected that most of the respondents in the present study, regardless of demographic characteristics, would understand the concept of Pay Equity.

Pay Equity as an Equality Issue

Pay Equity originated as a feminist attempt to decrease wage discrimination but has since been mutated by government policy makers who have devised programs that pit worker against worker by comparing job value (Cuneo, 1990). Thus, it is important to ascertain not only the financial effects of Pay Equity (e.g. Orazem & Mattila, 1989) but also the attitudes and reactions of the workers (Evans & Nelson, 1989). Many women's groups believe that Pay Equity will validate paying women lower wages than men (Lewis, 1989). Others believe it will be a catalyst for women to place a higher value on their work (NSACSW, 1988). Obviously, these outcomes could depend on whether or not Pay Equity raises were received, how large these adjustments were and whether expectations raised by the Pay Equity program were met.

Women's Attitudes toward Pay Equity.

Evans & Nelson (1989) reported that support for Pay Equity was highest among women in general, and those who supported the women's movement. Knowledge of Pay Equity was highest among workers with high levels of pay and education. Respondents who felt that Pay Equity created problems in the workplace did not support the women's

movement or Pay Equity and tended to be workers with 17 years or more tenure (Evans & Nelson, 1989).

Following Evans & Nelson (1989), the present study investigated whether Pay Equity implementation altered the workers' perceptions of their jobs, the atmosphere in which they worked or their perceptions of the women's movement. Comparisons were made between workers who received Pay Equity adjustments and those who did not. Comparisons of the personal variables and Pay Equity attitudes were also included.

In related work, Tougas & Veilleux (1988) examined various factors which impact on women's acceptance of affirmative action. They found that reactions to these programs were influenced by the intensity of identification with one's group, the collective deprivation experienced by women (i.e. perceived inequalities and feelings of dissatisfaction in the workplace), and the type of implementation (i.e. whether or not women were able to help themselves). These factors may also influence the development of women's responses to Pay Equity. For example, women may be more receptive towards Pay Equity if they have some input in the job evaluations and are aware of wage discrimination. Also, the identification with other women may have an impact on their support for Pay Equity. As well, knowledge of the legislative loopholes and inherent sex biases in Pay Equity legislation may also affect feelings of inequality and dissatisfaction in the workplace.

The modified version of the scale used by Tougas & Veilleux (1988) along with the work-related items from the Attitudes Toward Women scale (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1973) gauged the workers' attitudes toward women in the workforce.

Pay Equity as a Union-Related Issue

As with job-related concerns in Pay Equity, union-related issues have also been the object of speculation with little or no empirical evidence. Constructs such as union commitment and workers' perceptions of union power and service may be related to workers' attitudes toward Pay Equity. Workers' perceptions of the Union's attitude toward Pay Equity in their workplace may influence their attitudes. These perceptions may be based in the Union role in bringing Pay Equity to the workplace, support for it and, in the current case, the reinstatement of Pay Equity after its freeze in the Spring of 1991. These concerns are discussed further.

Union Commitment.

Union commitment has been defined in terms of four underlying factors: (1) loyalty to the union, (2) responsibility to the union, (3) willingness to work for the union and (4) belief in unionism (Gordon, Philpot, Burt, Thompson & Spiller, 1980). Loyalty to the union was characterized by a sense of pride in belonging to the union and an awareness of the benefits of unionization. Factor two, responsibility toward the union, measured the degree of willingness to meet the day-to-day duties of a union member. The willingness to work for the union factor entails the willingness of members to work for the union "above and beyond the call of duty". Factor four, belief in unionism, reflected members' belief in the concept of unionism (Gordon et al., 1980). Recent research has, however, lent support to a three-factor definition which excludes the belief in unionism factor (Kelloway, Catano & Southwell, 1992).

The construct of union commitment evolved from research on organizational commitment (Barling, Wade & Fullager, 1990). Originally, the two types of commitment

were believed to be parallel constructs. It is now thought that, while both union and organizational commitment have some predictors in common, the two constructs are quite dissimilar and should be treated as such (Barling et al., 1990).

Generally, union-related variables are better predictors of union commitment than work-related variables or personal characteristics (Southwell, 1991); for example, satisfaction with the union and the perceived power of the union predict union commitment (Southwell, 1991). Another antecedent of union commitment is perceived union service; that is, if members perceive the union as being instrumental in meeting their needs, they are more likely to be committed to the union (Thacker et al., 1990). Likewise, Chacko (1985) found that union member behaviour was strongly affected by the members' perceptions of, and attitudes toward, the union. Southwell (1991), however, did find that increased amounts of conflict experienced in the workplace and low levels of job satisfaction were associated with higher levels of union commitment.

Sex is the demographic variable most often examined in relation to union commitment, likely due to historically low levels of female participation in unions. Research shows that males express more responsibility to the union and are more willing to work for the union (Thacker et al., 1990). Females seem to have a higher degree of loyalty (Thacker et al., 1990). Southwell (1991) found that sex moderated the relationships between union commitment and antecedents such as perception of union service and union power, responsiveness to membership and union satisfaction.

The present study attempted to replicate some of the above findings, specifically the three-factor structure of the union commitment scale and the perception of union instrumentality, i.e., union service and power as antecedents of commitment. The relationships of organizational variables such as job satisfaction and wage equity to union

commitment were also examined. Sex was also expected to be an antecedent of union commitment. With respect to Pay Equity, given the role played by the union in establishing Pay Equity, i.e., one of instrumentality, positive attitudes toward Pay Equity and the union's role in its reinstatement were expected to predict union commitment.

Unionization and Pay Equity.

Many supporters of equality see unionization and collective bargaining as the means for women to realize their greatest economic gains (Lewis, 1988). As more and more women become represented by unions, the pressure for unions to promote policies, such as Pay Equity, advantageous to their female members increases (Cuneo, 1990). In Pay Equity, the union typically has the responsibility to negotiate the specific program(s) to be implemented. For example, the union has a say in which job evaluation system will be used, the schedule for the implementation of the program and so on (Weiner & Gunderson, 1990). While many unions support Pay Equity legislation, they are also concerned with the problems that Pay Equity could cause. Many unions have demanded that the principle of equal pay for work of equal value should be applied to the entire work force, that principles like seniority should be explicitly noted, and that Pay Equity adjustments should not come at the expense of lower wage increases for other workers (Weiner & Gunderson, 1990).

Unions have also served an important role in educating their members about Pay Equity (Weiner & Gunderson, 1990). This is important because Pay Equity is a complicated piece of legislation and, therefore, difficult to understand. Changes in the workplace can be threatening to many workers which may, in turn, affect the workers' attitudes toward their union. While many union members may support the concept of

equal pay for work of equal value, the realization that some workers are receiving pay raises and others are not may cause jealousy and/or be disruptive to union solidarity. Recently, one study indicated that the strategy used by the union to present the Pay Equity plan to its members will affect the workers' attitudes toward that plan (Evans & Nelson, 1989). The present study sought to measure these issues, including the extent to which the workers believed that their Union was committed to women's issues and the implementation of Pay Equity programs through negotiations and lobbying efforts. As noted earlier, the members' perceptions of union activity affects union commitment (Chacko, 1985). Therefore, the members' attitudes toward Pay Equity, their perceptions of the Pay Equity program and of their union's role in its implementation could very well influence the members' union commitment.

Hypotheses

A major goal of the present study was to assess factors that are related to worker attitudes toward Pay Equity. Based on previous research, a number of hypotheses were developed as noted in the above text. For convenience, these hypotheses are summarized and documented below. The hypotheses are also categorized into four groups: General Pay Equity, Job-Related, Union-Related and Equality-Related. These categories will also be used in presenting the results and discussing the findings.

1) General Pay Equity Hypotheses:

- a) Most respondents, regardless of demographic characteristics will understand the concept of Pay Equity (Evans & Nelson, 1989).
- b) The Attitudes Toward Pay Equity Scale measures at least three latent variables.
- c) Workers who are expecting Pay Equity raises will be more satisfied with their jobs and their pay than those not expecting raises (Evans & Nelson, 1989).

d) Workers who are expecting Pay Equity raises will have more positive Attitudes Toward Pay Equity than those not expecting raises.

e) Of those who received raises, the workers who are not satisfied with their raises will have more negative perceptions of Pay Equity than those who are satisfied.

2) Job-Related Hypotheses:

a) Attitudes Toward Pay Equity will be related to Wage Equity, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment (Evans & Nelson, 1989).

b) Wage Equity will be positively related to Pay and Job Satisfaction (Berkowitz et al., 1987).

c) Age, sex, educational level, bargaining unit and income will be predictors of Pay Satisfaction and Wage Equity (Berkowitz et al., 1987; Jackson & Grabski, 1988).

d) Wage Equity and Job Satisfaction will be positively related to Organizational Commitment (Summers & Hendrix, 1991).

3) Hypotheses related to Equality Issues:

a) Demographic variables including sex, education, income and tenure will be related to the workers' Attitudes Toward Pay Equity (Evans & Nelson, 1989).

b) Attitudes Toward Pay Equity will be related to Equality in the Workplace and Attitudes Toward Women for both male and female respondents (Evans & Nelson, 1989) in that those who have positive Pay Equity attitudes will perceive inequalities in the workplace and have liberal Attitudes Toward Women.

c) Responses to Attitudes Towards Women and Equality in the Work Force will be related to marital and parental status (Jackson & Grabski, 1988) and education, sex and income (Evans & Nelson, 1989).

4) Union-Related Hypotheses:

a) Union commitment and perceptions of union service and power will be predicted by Attitudes Toward Pay Equity, the perception of the Union's role in Pay Equity and the perception of the Union's role in its reinstatement.

b) Union commitment will be positively related to members' Perceptions of Union Service and perceptions of Union Power (Southwell, 1991).

c) The level and type of commitment to the Union will differ for male and female members (Barling et al., 1990; Southwell, 1991).

d) Union commitment will be predicted by perceptions of Wage Equity and Job Satisfaction (Southwell, 1991).

METHOD

Participants

In anticipation of a 30% to 40% response rate, 1,000 Nova Scotian hospital workers who were members of a civil service union were randomly selected for participation in the study. This sample was selected from eight different bargaining units from six Union locals in two separate hospitals in the Halifax-Dartmouth area, with a total population of 3389. Questionnaires, presented as Appendix A, were mailed to the homes of Union members during the second week of November, 1991. The questionnaires were accompanied by a cover letter from the president of the Union explaining the nature of the survey (Appendix B) along with a self-addressed, postage-paid return envelope. After the return of approximately 200 questionnaires around the original cut-off date of December 6, 1991, a reminder letter was sent to members. By the first week of January, 1992, 311 usable questionnaires were returned. As in Southwell's (1991) study, anonymity was ensured as no identification schemes were implemented and all questionnaires were identical.

At the time of the survey, Hospital 1 employed 25% of these workers and Hospital 2 employed 75%. As a result, 250 or 25% of the surveys were sent to workers from Hospital 1 and 750 or 75% were sent to workers from Hospital 2. In order to achieve a sample which closely approximated the population of Union workers in the two hospitals, the proportions of male and female workers per bargaining unit were calculated for each hospital. The number of workers sampled was determined by multiplying the proportions by the sample size. For example, approximately 70% of the Union workers at Hospital

2 were female. The total sample taken from there was 250, therefore, 175 (or 70% of 250) sampled workers were female. The percentage of females to males at Hospital 2 was 85% female and 15% male. (In order to sample enough male workers, the percentage sampled was 70% female and 30% male). Other numbers were altered when the numbers were so small it would be unlikely to receive sufficient responses. The sample per hospital and bargaining unit is presented in Appendix C.

Included in the sample were bargaining units from both hospitals that contained classifications which qualified for Pay Equity raises and several that did not. The bargaining units sampled were:

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1) Clerical (CL) | 2) Nursing Assistant (HSB) |
| 3) Lab Technician (HSA) | 4) Nurses (HSN) |
| 5) Maintenance (MOS) | 6) Counselling (PR) |
| 7) Laundry Services (SE) | 8) Technical (TE) |

Because of the importance of confidentiality, respondents' job titles were not collected. The only information collected regarding their jobs were bargaining units. As the bargaining units reflected the type of work the respondents performed, they were considered the equivalent of job classifications in subsequent analyses. The proportion of female and male workers in specific job categories within the bargaining units was a criterion which determined whether they qualified for Pay Equity raises (at least 60% female to qualify). Without the actual job titles, it was impossible to determine which respondents qualified for Pay Equity raises, as not all jobs in a given bargaining unit qualified. A gross estimate for subsequent analyses was determined by dividing the groups into bargaining units that were female-dominated and those that were not female-dominated by determining the percentage of females in a particular bargaining unit. Those that had 60% or more female members were considered to be female-dominated. This division is presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Female-Dominated and Non Female-Dominated Bargaining units for each Hospital.

HOSPITAL 1			HOSPITAL 2		
FEMALE-DOMINATED		NON FEMALE-DOMINATED	FEMALE-DOMINATED		NON FEMALE-DOMINATED
CL	SE	HSA	CL	HSN	MOS
HSB	TE	MOS	HSB	PR	SE
HSN		PR	HSA	TE	

Sample Distribution²

In total there were 311 usable questionnaires returned, a 31.1% response rate. The proportions of respondents per hospital and per bargaining unit were the same as in the original sample. Likewise, the sex ratio of the returned sample was equivalent to the original sample; 206 (68.0%) of the respondents were females and 97 (32.0%) were males. Over three-quarters (75.7% or 228) of the sample were between the ages of 25 to 44 years old. There was no age difference between male and female respondents ($X^2=2.66$; $p=.62$).

Over half of the respondents were married (60.5% or 179). Ninety respondents were single (30.4%) and only 21 were divorced or separated (7.1%). Over half of the respondents also had children (56.9% or 169).

The household incomes were relatively evenly distributed across the income categories. The exception to this was in the \$60,000 category, where 68 respondents (25.1%) had household incomes at this level.

2

Unless otherwise indicated, percentages do not include missing values.

Two hundred and sixty respondents (87.5%) were full-time employees and 37 (12.5%) were part-time. Most respondents (182 or 64.3%) had been a member of the union for at least ten years.

Out of the 207 respondents who identified their bargaining unit and union local, 76% or 159 were from Hospital 2 and 23.2% or 48 workers were from Hospital 1. This ratio also approximates the proportions of surveys distributed to each hospital (75% to Hospital 2; 25% to Hospital 1). However, only a third (33.4% or 104) of the total sample failed to answer this question; therefore, analyses including Union locals and bargaining units should be interpreted with caution.

TABLE 2

Summary of Demographic Variables for the Sample

VARIABLE	n	%
SEX OF RESPONDENT		
MALE	97	32.0
FEMALE	206	68.0
AGE OF RESPONDENT		
24 YEARS AND UNDER	11	3.7
25 TO 34 YEARS	113	37.5
35 TO 44 YEARS	115	38.2
45 TO 54 YEARS	51	16.9
55 TO 64 YEARS	11	3.7
EDUCATION LEVEL		
LESS THAN GRADE 9	1	.3
LESS THAN GRADE 12	25	8.4
GRADE 12 OR VOCATION	65	21.9
COMMUNITY COLLEGE	41	13.8
SOME UNIVERSITY	44	14.8
UNIVERSITY DEGREE	52	17.5
POST-GRADUATE STUDY	33	11.1
POST-GRADUATE DEGREE	12	4.0
OTHER	24	8.1
MARITAL STATUS		
SINGLE (UNMARRIED, LIVING ALONE)	65	22.0
SINGLE (LIVING WITH PARTNER)	25	8.4
MARRIED	179	60.5
DIVORCED/SEPARATED	2	7.1
WIDOWED	5	1.7
OTHER	1	.3
PARENTAL STATUS		
YES	169	56.9
NO	128	43.1
HOUSEHOLD INCOME		
\$8,000-13,999	4	1.4
\$14,000-19,999	6	2.2
\$20,000-22,999	23	8.5
\$23,000-25,999	15	5.5
\$26,000-29,999	11	4.1
\$30,000-34,999	25	9.2
\$35,000-39,999	36	13.3
\$40,000-44,999	34	12.5
\$45,000-49,999	21	7.7
\$50,000-59,999	28	10.3
\$60,000 AND OVER	68	25.1
EMPLOYMENT STATUS		
FULL TIME	260	87.5
PART TIME	37	12.5
LENGTH OF TIME IN UNION		
1-5 YEARS	103	36.4
6-10 YEARS	79	27.9
11-15 YEARS	48	17.0
16-20	53	18.7
PLANS ON LEAVING UNION		
YES	16	5.4
NO	234	78.5
UNSURE	48	16.1
HOSPITAL		
HOSPITAL 1	48	15.4
HOSPITAL 2	159	51.1
NO ANSWER	104	33.4

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire (Appendix A) consists of three sets of questions concerning Pay Equity issues, seven measurement scales, six implementation items and eleven demographic items. Except for demographics, implementation and job satisfaction, all items were measured on a five-point scale from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" and original scales were modified as needed to fit this measurement scheme. The items on the job satisfaction scale were measured on a five-point scale from "very satisfied" to "very dissatisfied". Factor analysis, using principal components and varimax rotation, was performed on each scale included in the questionnaire. More than one factor emerged only for the Attitudes Toward Pay Equity, Union Commitment and Attitudes Toward Women scales. Details on these factor structures are presented in describing the scale. Internal consistencies were also calculated for each scale and subscale. The sets of items and the scales used were as follows:

1. Attitudes Toward Pay Equity (ATPE) consisted of thirteen items (Q1-Q13) pertaining to the support for, knowledge of, perceived impact of and fairness of Pay Equity. Many of the questions regarding the first three components were taken from Evans & Nelson (1989) and where possible the original wording was preserved; however, some items were modified to fit the five-point scale used in the present study. The items regarding the fairness of Pay Equity are based on the issues and concerns of Pay Equity implementation such as the legislative loopholes and job evaluations.

Together the thirteen items in the Attitudes Toward Pay Equity scale had a reliability of 0.73. Four sub-scales emerged from the factor analysis accounting

for 51% of the total variance. Factor 1 appeared to assess understanding and support for Pay Equity (ATPE-U&S). Factor 2 described perceived impacts of Pay Equity in the workplace (ATPE-PI). Factor 3 included myths and misunderstandings about Pay Equity (ATPE-B). Factor 4 questioned the fairness of Pay Equity legislation for women (ATPE-F). In addition to only accounting for half of the variance, the reliabilities of these subscales were marginal at best, ranging from $r=.46$ to $r=.60$. The factor loadings, reliabilities and shared variance attributed to each factor are presented in Table 3. As this was an exploratory study, a decision was made to include the subscales in relevant analyses in addition to the scale as a whole. Caution, however, should be taken in the interpretation of results including the subscales.

2. Perception of Union Role in Pay Equity (PURPE) consisted of five items (Q14-Q18). These items were based on issues that often accompany Pay Equity implementation in unionized organizations (Weiner & Gunderson, 1990). A general commitment to women's issues, the perception that the union was responsible in bringing in Pay Equity, the negotiations of the specific Pay Equity program and the fears that Pay Equity will sacrifice general wage increases and the union principle of seniority were included in the scale. The reliability for this set was 0.73.

TABLE 3

Factors Matrix of the Items in Attitudes Toward Pay Equity Scale.

ITEMS ON PAY EQUITY SCALE	FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3	FACTOR4
UNDERSTANDING AND SUPPORT OF PAY EQUITY (ATPE-U&S)				
1. I have heard of Pay Equity and Understand what it is.	0.582			
5. Pay Equity is fair because it does not eliminate personal factors such as seniority and experience when calculating wage rates.	0.515			
7. Pay Equity will help women by decreasing wage discrimination due to sex.	0.646			
13. Overall, I feel that Pay Equity is a positive attempt toward equality for women.	0.768			
PERCEIVED IMPACT OF PAY EQUITY (ATPE-PI)				
8. Pay Equity will increase unemployment rates due to higher labour costs.		0.741		
9. Pay Equity will cause many problems in the workplace.		0.545		
12. Pay Equity will result in some reductions in salaries.		0.719		
PAY EQUITY BELIEFS (ATPE-B)				
2. If studies showed that the work of delivery van drivers and clerk typists required the same level of skill, training, responsibility and so forth, employers should pay these positions the same.			0.525	
3. Only women can get Pay Equity raises.			0.524	
4. Pay Equity will help women by providing opportunities for women to enter higher-paying, male-dominated positions.			0.558	
11. Pay Equity will encourage women to stay in traditional occupations.			0.500	
FAIRNESS OF PAY EQUITY (ATPE-F)				
6. Pay Equity legislation has so many loopholes and exemptions that many women do not qualify for adjustments.				0.862
10. The job evaluations used in Pay Equity are too biased against women to provide accurate results.				0.633
SHARED VARIANCE	18.9%	12.8%	10.1%	9.2%
SCALE RELIABILITY	0.59	0.52	0.46	0.60

3. Perception of Union Role in Pay Equity Reinstatement (PURR) was made up of five items (Q19-Q23) pertaining to the reinstatement of Pay Equity legislation in Nova Scotia. The Union lobbied to bring Pay Equity "back on board" and Pay Equity was eventually reinstated in the summer of 1991. This set of questions was developed in order to see how the members' viewed their Union's involvement in bringing Pay Equity back. The reliability was 0.88.

4. Equality in the Work Place (EWP) consisted of five items (Q24-Q28) taken from a study on women's collective deprivation in terms of their response to Affirmative Action which assessed workers' perceptions of women's current state of equality in the workplace (Tougas & Veilleux, 1988). Three questions dealt with perceived differences in the workforce between men and women with regard to salary, chances of being hired and promoted. The fourth question dealt with the affective component (Are you satisfied?) and the fifth measured the attitude toward improving women's circumstances. Questions were revised to fit a five-point scale and were modified so that they were geared for both men and women. The internal consistency of these items was 0.76.

5. Attitudes Toward Women (ATW) consisted of twelve items (Q29-Q40) concerning vocational, educational and intellectual activities. These twelve were chosen from twenty-five questions that included other aspects of social life such as sexual activities and dating (Spence et al., 1973) which were not considered relevant to the present study. Scores on the scale reflect the degree to which the respondent holds traditional or liberal views on the role of women. The scale was

also modified slightly by including "Neither Agree or Disagree" as a possible alternative whereas the original had only four possible response categories. In the present study, the reliability analysis on the modified Attitude toward Women Scale produced a coefficient of 0.85. Factor Analysis using principle component analysis with varimax rotation on Attitude toward Women produced three factors. The reliabilities were 0.77, 0.76 and 0.76, respectively; however, the factors appeared to be meaningless and were not given further consideration.

6. Perceptions of Wage Equity (WAGEEQ) consisted of eight items (Q41-Q48) measuring perceptions of wage equity. The Questions were taken from Lawler's (1981) "Items Concerning Pay" questionnaire. This scale assessed the internal, external and individual equity components of overall equity. The reliability for the present study was 0.94.

7. Union Commitment Scale (UCS) consisted of thirteen items (Q49-Q61). This scale was originally developed by Gordon et al. (1980) and was later modified by Kelloway et al. (1992). The modified scale was used in this study. The modified scale has been shown to be a valid and reliable measure of member association and involvement with the union (Kelloway et al., 1992) and consistently factors into three sub-scales: loyalty to union (UCSL; Q49-Q54), responsibility to union (UCSR; Q55-Q58) and willingness to work for the union (UCSWW; Q59-Q61). The present study replicated previous analyses. The reliability of overall Union commitment was 0.89 and the factors accounted for 75% of the total variance. For the three subscales, the reliabilities were: Loyalty, $r=0.91$, Responsibility, $r=0.76$ and

Willingness to Work, $r=0.85$. The factor loadings, reliabilities and shared variance of each factor is presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4

Factors Matrix of the Items in the Union Commitment Scale.

ITEMS ON UNION COMMITMENT SCALE	FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3
LOYALTY TO THE UNION (UCSL)			
49. I feel a sense of pride in being part of the UNION.	0.858		
50. Based on what I know and what I believe I can expect in the future, I plan to be a member of the UNION for the rest of the time I work.	0.789		
51. The record of the UNION is a good example of what dedicated people can get done.	0.858		
52. I talk up the UNION to my friends as a great union to belong to.	0.809		
53. There's a lot to be gained by joining the UNION.	0.872		
54. Deciding to join the UNION was a smart move on my part.	0.854		
RESPONSIBILITY TO THE UNION (UCSR)			
55. It is the duty of every worker to keep his/her ears open for information that might be useful to the UNION.		0.568	
56. It's every member's duty to support or help another worker to use the grievance procedure.		0.844	
57. It's every member's responsibility to see that the other members "live up to" the terms of the agreement.		0.779	
58. Every member must be willing to make the effort to file a grievance.		0.797	
WILLINGNESS TO WORK FOR THE UNION (UCSWW)			
59. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected of a member in order to make the UNION successful.			0.539
60. If asked, I would serve on a committee.			0.903
61. If asked I would run for elected office.			0.914
SHARED VARIANCE	52.1%	12.7%	10.6%
FACTOR RELIABILITY	0.91	0.76	0.85

8. Perception of Union (PERU) scale consisted of eight items (Chacko, 1985; Southwell, 1991). This scale is normally utilized as two subscales: Perception of Union Service (PERUS) which measures the unions role in labour relations, job security, working conditions and wages (Q66-Q69) and Perception of Union Power (PERUP) which evaluates the union's ability to have an impact on public election, laws and the employer (Q62-Q65). Reliability coefficients for Perception of the Union, as a whole, and for Perception of Union Service and Perception of Union Power were 0.90, 0.89 and 0.81, respectively.

9. Organizational Commitment scale (ORGCOM) consisted of nine items (Q70-Q78) that assess company commitment (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). All items were positively worded. The scale was modified from the original seven-point scale to the five-point scale for consistency. The scale has been reported as consistently yielding satisfactory internal reliability and convergent, predictor and discriminant validity (Barling et al., 1990). The reliability in the present study was 0.93.

10. Job Satisfaction Scale (JOBSAT) consisted of nine items (Q79-Q87) taken from a total of 17 items (Warr, Cook & Wall, 1979). Seven of these items measured satisfaction with the working conditions under which the job was performed, one measured Pay Satisfaction (Q82) and the ninth was an overall job satisfaction measure (Q87). Reliability for the scale was 0.89.

Demographic and Single Item Variables used in the study are as follows:

a) Pay Satisfaction (Q82) which was included in the job satisfaction scale and measured how satisfied workers were with their pay. A five-point scale, from very satisfied to very dissatisfied, was used for this item.

b) Received a Pay Equity Raise (Q88) asked respondents whether they received or were expecting to receive a Pay Equity raise. Respondents were given the choice of "yes," "no" or "unsure."

c) Satisfied with Pay Equity Raise (Q89) asked the respondents who answered "yes" to Q88, if they were satisfied with the amount of the raise. They could respond "yes," "no" or "unsure."

d) Expectation of Raise (Q90) asked respondents who answered "yes" to Q88, if their raise was "more than expected," "less than expected," "neither as you had no expectations" or "don't know."

e) Perception of Job (Q91) asked respondents if Pay Equity implementation affected their perception of their job. The choices were "more satisfying," "less satisfying," "no impact" or "don't know."

f) Atmosphere at Work (Q92) asked respondents if Pay Equity implementation affected the atmosphere in which they worked. The choices were "more friction/rivalry," "less friction/rivalry," "no impact" or "don't know."

g) Perception of Women's Movement (Q93) asked respondents if Pay Equity implementation affected their perception of the women's movement. The choices were "More supportive," "less supportive," "no impact" or "don't know."

The demographic variables included in the study were: sex, age, educational level, marital status, parental status, household income, employee status, union tenure, plans on leaving job, Union local and bargaining unit.

RESULTS

The variables used in this study were classified into five categories for easy reference. They are Pay Equity, Work-Related, Union-Related and Women's Equality measures as well as Personal variables. Refer to Table 5 for the classifications of each variable.

TABLE 5

Classification of Variables into Pay Equity, Work-Related, Women's Equality, Union-Related and Personal Variables.

PAY EQUITY VARIABLES	WORK-RELATED VARIABLES	EQUALITY VARIABLES	UNION-RELATED VARIABLES	PERSONAL VARIABLES	
Attitudes Toward Pay Equity	Wage Equity	Equality in the Work Place	Union Commitment	Sex	Income
Received Pay Equity Raise	Organizational Commitment	Attitudes toward Women	Perception of Union Power	Age	Employee Status
Satisfaction with Raise	Job Satisfaction		Perception of Union Service	Education	Time in Union
Expectation of Raise	Pay Satisfaction		Perception of Union Role in Pay Equity	Marital Status	Union Local
Perception of Job			Perception of Union Role in Reinstatement	Parental Status	Bargaining Unit
Atmosphere at Work				Leaving	
Perception of Women's Movement					

The zero-order correlations between these variables are presented in Table 6. Included in the table are the internal reliabilities of the scales and the means and standard deviations for the variables. The correlations are discussed, where appropriate, in relation to the various hypotheses.

General Pay Equity Results

Hypothesis 1a predicted that most respondents, regardless of demographic characteristics would understand the concept of Pay Equity. Responses to the ATPE scale were used to examine this hypothesis. Table 7 presents the frequency of responses, as percents, for each question in the ATPE scale. The questions are arranged according to the four factors that emerged for this scale.

On the whole, the data show that all respondents had a good knowledge of the Pay Equity concept. An inspection of Table 7 shows that over 70% of all respondents agreed or strongly agreed with items related to the understanding and support of Pay Equity with less than 15% disagreeing or strongly disagreeing. Respondents were less certain about the perceived impacts of Pay Equity. While 50% to 62% felt that Pay Equity would not have negative impacts, a large number were uncertain (22% to 36%) and 14% to 18% were foreseeing negative outcomes of the program. The respondents had correct beliefs about Pay Equity, generally agreeing or disagreeing appropriately with statements of myths and beliefs about Pay Equity (51% to 86%) except for the confusion that arose from the myth that Pay Equity was a vehicle by which women could enter male-dominated, higher paying jobs (55% agreed). The respondents were uncertain (37% to 50%) of the fairness of the Pay Equity process; only 13% to 25% felt either the legislation or the job evaluation process was fair.

TABLE 7

Responses to Items in the Attitudes Toward Pay Equity Scale

PAY EQUITY ATTITUDES QUESTIONS	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
UNDERSTANDING AND SUPPORT OF PAY EQUITY (ATPE-U&S)					
1. I have heard about Pay Equity and understand what it is.	34.0%	56.0%	1.5%	4.2%	1.3%
5. Pay Equity is fair because it does not eliminate personal factors such as seniority and experience when calculating wage rates.	20.5%	49.0%	15.6%	7.8%	7.1%
7. Pay Equity will help women by decreasing wage discrimination based on sex.	28.0%	55.6%	9.5%	3.9%	3.0%
13. Overall, I feel that Pay Equity is a positive attempt toward equality for women.	35.6%	52.1%	8.7%	2.6%	1.0%
PERCEIVED IMPACT OF PAY EQUITY (ATPE-PI)					
8. Pay Equity will increase unemployment rates due to higher labour costs.	2.3%	11.8%	35.9%	37.6%	12.4%
9. Pay Equity will cause many problems in the workplace.	4.9%	11.7%	21.8%	44.8%	16.9%
12. Pay Equity will result in some reductions in salaries.	0.7%	14.0%	30.0%	42.7%	12.7%
PAY EQUITY BELIEFS (ATPE-B)					
2. If studies showed that the work of delivery van drivers and clerk typists required the same level of skill, training, responsibility and so forth, employers should pay these positions the same.	47.6%	38.5%	7.1%	3.9%	2.9%
3. Only women can get Pay Equity raises.	3.9%	5.5%	13.2%	35.8%	41.6%
4. Pay Equity will help women by providing opportunities for women to enter higher-paying, male-dominated positions.	19.8%	35.4%	18.5%	15.9%	10.4%
11. Pay Equity will encourage women to stay in traditional occupations.	3.2%	20.1%	25.8%	40.5%	10.7%
FAIRNESS OF PAY EQUITY (ATPE-F)					
6. Pay Equity legislation has so many loopholes and exemptions that many women do not qualify for adjustments.	20.6%	29.7%	36.6%	10.8%	2.3%
10. The job evaluations used in Pay Equity are too biased against women to provide accurate results.	5.5%	15.3%	50.2%	24.1%	4.9%

The ATPE and its four subscales were related to various demographic variables including age, education, income, tenure and bargaining unit. These relationships are discussed below in the 'Women's Equality' section.

Hypothesis 1b predicted that the ATPE scale would factor into at least three subscales. The factor analysis, previously reported, showed four meaningful factors for the scale. However, the reliabilities of the scales were marginal at best, ranging from $r=0.46$ to $r=0.60$. Caution, therefore, should be taken when interpreting results including these subscales.

Hypothesis 1c predicted that workers who were expecting Pay Equity raises to be more satisfied with their jobs than those who were not expecting a Pay Equity raise. Fifty-four percent of the respondents received or were expecting to receive a raise. Of this group, 43% were not satisfied with their raise. Only 23% expressed satisfaction with their Pay Equity raise. The raise was also lower than expected in 44% of the cases where a raise had been granted.

With respect to overall job satisfaction, respondents who did receive a Pay Equity increase were more satisfied with their job than their co-workers who did not ($r=0.17$; $p<0.001$). They were also more likely to say that their job was more satisfying since Pay Equity was implemented in their workplace (Q91) than those who had not received a raise ($r=0.35$; $p<0.001$). There was no relationship between respondents' satisfaction with their pay and whether or not they received a Pay Equity raise ($r=0.10$; $p>0.01$).

Hypothesis 1d predicted that workers who were receiving Pay Equity raises would have more positive attitudes toward Pay Equity than those who were not. Respondents who received Pay Equity raises had more supporting attitudes on the ATPE scale than those who did not ($r=0.29$; $p<0.001$) as well as on each of the four subscales: ATPE-U&S ($r=0.21$; $p<0.001$); ATPE-PI ($r=0.18$; $p<0.001$); ATPE-B ($r=0.15$; $p<0.001$) and ATPE-F ($r=0.16$; $p<0.001$).

Hypothesis 1e stated that workers who received Pay Equity raises but were not satisfied with their raise or perceived it to be less than expected would have more negative attitudes toward Pay Equity than those who were satisfied and received what they expected. Of the 54% who received a raise, 43% were not satisfied with it compared to 35% who were satisfied and 23% who were still unsure. Also, 44% said the raise was lower than what they had expected; only 6% said the raise was higher than what they had expected and 38% were unsure. As reflected in the overall ATPE scale, workers who were satisfied with their raise were more supportive of Pay Equity ($r=0.20$; $p<0.01$). They also exhibited more understanding and support for Pay Equity ($r=0.21$; $p<0.01$) than respondents who were dissatisfied with their Pay Equity increase and were more likely to accept the fairness of the Pay Equity process ($r=0.20$; $p<0.01$). These groups did not differ with respect to the remaining two subscales.

Likewise, respondents whose raises were less than they expected were significantly less positive about Pay Equity than those whose raises were more than expected ($r=0.22$; $p<0.01$). Those whose raises were more than expected saw fewer negative impacts ($r=0.17$; $p<0.01$) and were more accepting of the fairness ($r=0.17$; $p<0.01$) than those whose raise was less than expected.

Job-Related Results

Four job-related variables, Wage Equity, Pay Satisfaction, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment, were linked to Pay Equity in a number of hypotheses. Each of these variables is first described before the results for specific hypotheses are presented.

Wage Equity. Perceptions of wage equity differed for various subgroups. Female workers were more likely than males to perceive their wages as equitable ($r=-0.25$; $p<0.001$). The older the worker ($r=-0.12$; $p<0.01$) and the longer they had been in the Union ($r=-0.17$; $p<0.001$), the less likely they were to perceive their wages as equitable. The greater the household income, the more likely the worker viewed their wages as equitable ($r=0.16$; $p<0.01$). Also, workers with children were less likely to perceive their wages as equitable than childless workers ($r=-0.12$; $p<0.01$).

There were no differences in perceptions of wage equity for workers who received Pay Equity adjustments and those who did not. However, of the workers who received raises, those who were not satisfied with the amount ($r=0.42$; $p<0.001$) and those who felt the raise was less than expected ($r=0.30$; $p<0.001$) were more likely to see their wages, in general, as inequitable.

Pay Satisfaction. The workers' satisfaction with their pay varied over different groups. Female workers ($r=-0.18$; $p<0.001$) and those with higher household incomes ($r=0.16$; $p<0.001$) were more satisfied with their pay than male workers and those with lower incomes. There was also a difference between the Union locals where clerical,

maintenance, counselling, service and technical workers from Hospital 2 were more satisfied with their pay than workers in Hospital 1 ($r=0.14$; $p<0.01$).

The level of pay satisfaction did not differ for workers who received Pay Equity raises and those who did not. However, satisfaction and fulfilled expectations with one's raise were related to pay satisfaction in that workers who were satisfied with their Pay Equity raise ($r=0.48$; $p<0.001$) or received more than they expected ($r=0.31$; $p<0.001$), were satisfied with their pay in general. Also, workers who felt that there was less friction and rivalry at work ($r=0.20$; $p<0.001$) and were more satisfied with their jobs ($r=0.13$; $p<0.01$) since Pay Equity were more satisfied with their pay than those who did not feel that way.

Organizational Commitment. There were no significant relationships between organizational commitment and any demographic variable. Likewise, workers who received Pay Equity raises did not differ in organizational commitment from those who did not. However, of those who received a Pay Equity raise, the ones satisfied with the amount were more committed to the organization than those unsatisfied ($r=0.22$; $p<0.001$). Also, workers who felt more satisfied with their jobs since Pay Equity expressed more commitment ($r=0.21$; $p<0.001$) as did those whose support for the women's movement increased ($r=0.16$; $p<0.01$).

Job Satisfaction. Respondents' sex, household income and bargaining unit were significantly related to job satisfaction. Female workers were more likely than males to be satisfied with their jobs ($r=-0.22$; $p<0.001$). The higher the level of household income, the more likely the worker was satisfied with their job ($r=0.17$; $p<0.001$). Also, job

satisfaction varied for bargaining units, with clerical workers having the highest level of satisfaction and nurses, counsellors and technical having the lowest levels of satisfaction ($r=-0.20$; $p<0.001$). Caution should be taken when interpreting the latter result as the sizes of the counselling and technical bargaining units were quite small.

As noted in Hypothesis 1c, respondents who received Pay Equity raises were more satisfied with their jobs than those who did not ($r=0.17$; $p<0.001$). Likewise, those who were satisfied with their raises ($r=0.26$; $p<0.001$) and received more than they expected ($r=0.20$; $p<0.01$) were also more satisfied with their jobs. Workers who felt that Pay Equity implementation would cause friction and rivalry ($r=0.15$; $p<0.01$) and decrease job satisfaction ($r=0.18$; $p<0.001$) were more dissatisfied with their jobs than those who did not.

Hypothesis 2a proposed that ATPE would be related to wage equity, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. These relationships were examined for the full ATPE scale as well as for each of its subscales. Inspection of the zero-order correlation coefficients in Table 8 show that ATPE was significantly related to wage equity ($r=0.16$; $p<0.001$) and job satisfaction ($r=0.16$; $p<0.001$) but not organizational commitment ($r=0.09$; $p>0.01$).

Workers' understanding and support for Pay Equity was related to their commitment to the organization for which they worked and their satisfaction with their Job. The more committed they were to the organization ($r=0.24$; $p<0.001$) and the more satisfied they were with their jobs ($r=0.23$; $p<0.001$), the more understanding and support they had for the concept of Pay Equity.

Conversely, the perceived impacts of Pay Equity were not related to any of the job-related variables and the beliefs the workers held about Pay Equity were not related

to their perceptions of wage equity or job satisfaction. However, workers who were committed to the organization for which they worked were more likely to have inaccurate beliefs about Pay Equity than those less committed ($r=-0.15$; $p<0.01$).

Workers who perceived their wages to be fair ($r=0.24$; $p<0.001$), were satisfied with their jobs ($r=0.18$; $p<0.001$) and were committed to the organization ($r=0.14$; $p<0.01$) were more likely to perceive Pay Equity as fair than those who were not.

TABLE 8

Zero-Order Correlations of Job-Related Variables and ATPE (and Subscales)

	ATPE	ATPE-U&S	ATPE-PI	ATPE-B	ATPE-F
WAGE EQUITY	+0.16**	+0.10	-0.04	+0.11	+0.24**
JOB SATISFACTION	+0.16**	+0.23**	+0.01	+0.01	+0.18**
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT	+0.09	+0.24**	+0.01	-0.15*	+0.14*

* $p<0.01$ ** $p<0.001$

Hypothesis 2b stated that wage equity would be positively related to both pay and job satisfaction. Both of these relationships were confirmed. Workers who perceived their wages to be just also were satisfied with their jobs ($r=0.39$; $p<0.001$) and their pay ($r=0.82$; $p<0.001$).

Hypothesis 2c stated that workers' age, sex, education, income and bargaining unit would predict their satisfaction with their pay and their perceptions of wage equity. To test this hypothesis, the predictor variables of age, sex, education, income and bargaining unit were included in two multiple regression analyses with either wage equity or pay

satisfaction as criterion variables. These demographic predictors explained 9.8% of the variance for Wage Equity ($F=3.60$, $df=5,165$; $p=0.004$) and 4.2% of the variance for Pay Satisfaction ($F=1.46$, $df=5,168$; $p=0.206$). Only Sex was a significant predictor on either variable with female workers perceiving their pay as more equitable and being more satisfied with their pay than male workers ($t=-3.92$; $p=0.000$; $t=2.18$; $p=0.042$, respectively). These regression analyses are presented in Table 9 and 10.

TABLE 9

Multiple Regression of Demographic Predictors of Wage Equity

Multiple R	.31348				
R Square	.09827				
Adjusted R Square	.07095				
Standard Error	7.54577				
Analysis of Variance					
	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square		
Regression	5	1023.87173	204.77435		
Residual	165	9394.86511	56.93858		
F =	3.59641	Signif F =	.0041**		
----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
INCOME	-.041382	.231018	-.014557	-.179	.8581
AGE	.048754	.677615	.005418	.072	.9427
BARGAIN UNIT	.311340	.348485	.067421	.893	.3729
SEX	-5.138730	1.311026	-.306013	-3.920	.0001**
EDUCATION	.233515	.316030	.059560	.739	.4610
(Constant)	32.725149	3.793794		8.626	.0000

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

TABLE 10

Multiple Regression of Demographic Predictors of Pay Satisfaction

Multiple R	.20393				
R Square	.04159				
Adjusted R Square	.01306				
Standard Error	1.12024				
Analysis of Variance					
	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square		
Regression	5	9.14832	1.82966		
Residual	168	210.62869	1.25493		
F =	1.45798	Signif F =	.2062		
----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
INCOME	-.020776	.033917	-.051031	-.613	.5410
AGE	.008111	.100342	.006220	.081	.9357
BARGAIN UNIT	.005424	.051234	.008167	.106	.9158
SEX	-.397164	.193685	-.164234	-2.051	.0419*
EDUCATION	-.023370	.046518	-.041328	-.502	.6160
(Constant)	4.299400	.554184		7.758	.0000

*p<0.05 **p<0.01

Hypothesis 2d predicted that wage equity and job satisfaction would be positively related to organizational commitment. Both expected relationships were confirmed. The more committed the workers were to their organization, the more likely they were to perceive their wages to be equitable ($r=0.27$; $p<0.001$) and to be satisfied with their jobs ($r=0.62$; $p<0.001$).

The Impact of Pay Equity. Single-item questions sought to assess the impact of Pay Equity implementation on the workers' perception of their job (Q91) and the atmosphere of the work environment (Q92). A majority of respondents felt that Pay Equity neither affected their perceptions of their job (54.7%) nor the atmosphere at work (54.3%). In both cases, roughly a fifth were unsure of the impact, with the remainder splitting between positive and negative options. When comparing the responses of workers who received Pay Equity raises and those who did not, differences were found in their perceptions of their work environment and their jobs after Pay Equity implementation. Specifically, more

workers who qualified for raises indicated that there was less friction and rivalry at their workplace ($r=0.22$; $p<0.001$) and that they were more satisfied with their job ($r=0.35$; $p<0.001$) since the implementation of Pay Equity. The same relationships held true for those who were satisfied with their raises and received what they expected in that the implementation of Pay Equity was related to increased job satisfaction ($r=0.31$, $p<0.001$; $r=0.35$, $p<0.001$, respectively) and decreased workplace rivalry ($r=0.26$, $p<0.001$; $r=0.20$; $p<0.01$, respectively).

Results related to Women's Equality

Along with demographic variables, Equality in the Workplace (EWP) and Attitudes Toward Women (ATW) were reviewed in the context of Pay Equity attitudes and implementation. Each of these two equality variables are first discussed before examining the findings relevant to the specific hypotheses.

Equality in the Workplace. Although further analysis showed that the five items included in this measure comprised a single construct, responses for each item are presented in Table 11 to offer a more complete view of the respondents' perception of workplace equality.

As can be seen, most Union members (74.6%) did not believe that men and women were paid equal wages. Fewer members did not think that women had the same chances as men of being hired (44.4%) or promoted (46.4%). However, most respondents were dissatisfied with women's present situation in the workforce (63.1%) and felt that the improvement of women's situation should be a priority (66.9%).

Responses to EWP differed across sex, education and income. Females were less likely than males to believe that women's present situation in the workplace was the same as men's ($r=0.20$; $p<0.001$). The same was true of more educated ($r=-0.28$; $p<0.001$) and better paid ($r=-0.14$; $p<0.01$) Union members as they both perceived women to be at a disadvantage in the workplace in terms of equal opportunity.

When comparing Pay Equity implementation items, it was noted that Union members who received Pay Equity raises were less likely to feel that women's situation at work was equal to men's than those who did not ($r=-0.20$; $p<0.001$). Of the workers who received adjustments, those who were satisfied with their raises were also more likely to be satisfied with women's situation in the workplace ($r=0.18$; $p<0.01$).

TABLE 11

Responses to Items in the Equality in the Workplace Scale

EQUALITY IN THE WORKPLACE QUESTIONS	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Overall, men and women in the workforce are paid equal wages.	2.9%	12.7%	9.7%	49.0%	25.6%
All things being equal, a man and a woman would have the same chance of being hired for a job.	15.5%	31.1%	9.1%	32.7%	11.7%
All things being equal, a man and a woman would have the same chance of promotion.	16.9%	29.9%	6.8%	34.7%	11.7%
I am satisfied with women's present situation in the work force.	3.6%	15.9%	17.5%	44.7%	18.4%
I believe that the improvement of women's situation should be a social priority.	23.4%	43.5%	23.4%	6.2%	3.6%

Attitudes toward Women. Union members appeared to have relatively liberal attitudes toward women's roles in society with the vast majority of responses (87.3%) at least agreed with statements indicating equal opportunities for women. As with EWP, ATW

differed across sex, education and income. Female ($r=-0.24$; $p<0.001$), more educated ($r=0.21$; $p<0.001$) and better paid ($r=0.21$; $p<0.001$) Union members had the most liberal attitudes toward women. Also, members who had plans to leave the Union were more likely to have liberal views of women's roles in the workplace ($r=0.18$; $p<0.001$). However, on closer inspection, female members were more likely than males to have plans to leave the Union ($r=-0.20$; $p<0.001$), thus explaining some of the divergence.

Workers who received Pay Equity raises tended to have more liberal attitudes toward women ($r=0.22$; $p<0.001$). Also, workers who had more liberal views on women's roles in the work world were more likely to have reported more support for the women's movement ($r=0.15$; $p<0.01$) and experienced more friction and rivalry in the workplace ($r=0.14$; $p<0.01$) since Pay Equity implementation.

Hypothesis 3a predicted that the demographic variables of sex, education, income and tenure would be related to ATPE. Other demographic variables were examined for possible relationships and the correlations are presented in Table 12. Comparisons of respondents' ATPE were made between males and females and no sex difference for the overall scale were revealed ($r=-0.05$; $p>0.01$). However, the overall scale was related to education, income and union tenure. The higher the respondent's level of education ($r=0.13$; $p<0.01$) and the more money they made ($r=0.16$; $p<0.01$), the more positive their attitudes were toward Pay Equity. On the other hand, the longer the respondent had been a member of the Union, the more negative their Attitudes were toward Pay Equity ($r=-0.12$; $p<0.01$).

The four subscales of Pay Equity were also related to demographic variables. Workers' understanding and support varied across bargaining units ($r=-0.17$; $p<0.01$) with

clerical and service workers having more and counselling workers having less understanding and support for Pay Equity than the other workers. The beliefs respondents held about Pay Equity were related to their household income ($r=0.15$; $p<0.01$) and their education ($r=0.22$; $p<0.001$) in that people who had more education and made more money held more positive beliefs than those with lower levels of education and income. Workers' perceptions of the fairness of Pay Equity were related to their age ($r=-0.15$; $p<0.001$) and union tenure ($r=-0.27$; $p<0.001$) in that the younger the respondent and the less union service they had, the more they thought Pay Equity was fair. No sex differences existed between males and females on the subscales.

TABLE 12

Zero-Order Correlations of Demographic Variables and ATPE and Subscales

	ATPE	ATPE-U&S	ATPE-PI	ATPE-B	ATPE-F
SEX	-.05	-.05	-.07	+.01	-.02
EDUCATION	+.13*	+.04	+.02	+.22**	+.03
INCOME	+.16*	+.06	+.12	+.15*	+.04
TENURE	-.12*	-.03	+.06	-.11	-.27**
AGE	-.08	+.06	-.04	-.10	-.15**
BARGUNIT	+.00	-.17*	+.08	+.01	+.08

* $P<.01$ and ** $P<.001$

Hypothesis 3b stated that workers' perceptions of equality in the workplace and their attitudes toward women would be related to their attitudes toward Pay Equity. The correlations between ATPE and both EWP and ATW were examined and are presented in Table 13. The ATPE and all of the Subscales except ATPE-F were significantly related to ATW. Workers who held liberal attitudes toward women's roles in the workplace, tended to be more positive about Pay Equity in general than those with more conservative

views ($r=0.40$; $p<0.001$). Those with liberal views also were more supportive of ($r=0.40$; $p<0.001$), predicted fewer negative impacts from ($r=0.33$; $p<0.001$) and held more accurate beliefs about Pay Equity ($r=0.23$; $p<0.001$).

All of the relationships between ATPE (and its subscales) and EWP were significant. Workers who believed that women were at a disadvantage in the workplace because of unfair practices were more positive about Pay Equity as a whole ($r=-0.16$; $p<0.001$). Those perceived unequal treatment of men and women in the workforce also had more understanding and support for Pay Equity ($r=-0.18$; $p<0.001$), did not predict negative impacts from Pay Equity implementation ($r=-0.15$; $p<0.01$) and held accurate beliefs about Pay Equity ($r=-0.13$; $p<0.01$). However, they were less likely to perceive Pay Equity as a fair program ($r=0.13$; $p<0.01$).

TABLE 13

Zero-Order Correlations of ATPE and Subscales and ATW and EWP.

	ATPE	ATPE-U&S	ATPE-PI	ATPE-B	ATPE-F
ATW	+.40**	+.40**	+.33**	+.23**	-.00
EWP	-.16**	-.18**	-.15*	-.13*	+.13*

* $P<.01$ and ** $P<.001$

Hypothesis 3c predicted that the workers' attitudes toward women and their perceptions of equality in the workplace were related to their sex, attained level of education, household income and marital and parental status. The correlations of ATW and EWP with sex, education, income, marital and parental status were examined and are presented in Table 14. Only sex, education and income were significantly related to the two scales in that females, ($r=-0.24$; $p<0.001$), more educated ($r=0.21$; $p<0.001$) and higher paid members ($r=0.21$; $p<0.001$) were more likely to have liberal attitudes toward women's

roles at work. Likewise, females ($r=0.20$; $p<0.001$) and those with more education ($r=-0.28$; $p<0.001$) and higher incomes ($r=-0.14$; $p<0.01$) were more likely to perceive women's situation in the workplace as unequal to that of men's.

TABLE 14

Zero-Order correlation of ATW and EWP with Demographic Variables

	ATTITUDE TOWARD WOMEN	EQUALITY IN WORK PLACE
SEX	-.24**	+.20**
EDUCATION	+.21**	-.28**
INCOME	+.21**	-.14*
MARITAL STATUS	+.00	+.02
PARENTAL STATUS	+.09	+.02

* $P<.01$ and ** $P<.001$

Effect of Pay Equity. A single item question sought to examine the impact of Pay Equity implementation on workers' perception of the women's movement (Q93). Over a third of the respondents (37.6%) felt more supportive of the women's movement as a result of Pay Equity implementation (Q93). Only 3.9% actually felt less supportive. However, over half (54%) felt that Pay Equity had either no impact or did not know what its impact was. When comparing worker's perceptions of the women's movement between those who received a raise and those who did not, a significant difference was found in that those who received a raise were more supportive of the women's movement ($r=0.25$; $p<0.001$). Likewise, workers who were satisfied with their Pay Equity raise ($r=0.19$; $p<0.01$) and received at least what they expected ($r=0.28$; $p<0.001$) also expressed more support for the women's movement since Pay Equity.

There also appeared to be a relationship between increased support for the women's movement since Pay Equity implementation and support for the Union. Specifically, workers who noted increased support for the women's movement had more positive attitudes toward their Union and were more supportive of their Union's involvement in Pay Equity. This relationship is further detailed the Union section below.

Union-Related Results

Five measurement scales, Perceptions of the Union Role in Pay Equity (PURPE), Perceptions of the Union Role in the Reinstatement of Pay Equity (PURR), Union Commitment (UCS) (and its three subscales), the Perception of Union Service (PERUS) and the Perception of Union Power (PERUP) were used to study the relationships of union variables with Pay Equity. Each of the variables are reviewed before discussing the specific union-related hypotheses.

Union Role in Pay Equity. Responses for each item in this measure are presented in Table 15 to more clearly demonstrate the respondents views. Many Union members were unsure or had no view on the Union's role in Pay Equity; between 27.5% and 53.7% of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with questions in this scale. However, of the remaining respondents, most answered all questions positively in terms of Union support. In other words, most of the members felt the Union was an essential force in bringing the Pay Equity program in the workforce without detrimental effects on union principles.

The workers' perceptions of the Union's role in Pay Equity were examined across the demographic variables. Age, parental status and union tenure were related to the perceptions of the Union's role in Pay Equity. Older workers ($r=0.18$; $p<0.001$) with more time in the Union ($r=0.14$; $p<0.01$) and workers with children ($r=0.12$; $p<0.01$) were more likely to see the Union's role in Pay Equity as beneficial.

Comparisons were also made between those who received Pay Equity raises and those who did not; although the difference was not quite significant ($r=0.11$; $p>0.01$), workers who received Pay Equity raises were slightly more supportive of the Union's involvement in Pay Equity than workers who did not. Also, those who experienced increased job satisfaction ($r=0.25$; $p<0.001$) and less workplace friction ($r=0.16$; $p<0.01$) since Pay Equity held more supportive views of the Union's involvement in Pay Equity. Workers who were more supportive of the women's movement since the implementation of Pay Equity (Q93) were more likely to feel that the Union's role in Pay Equity was a positive one ($r=0.28$; $p<0.001$). It should be noted that increased support for the women's movement was positively related to most of Union variables examined.

TABLE 15

Responses to Items in the Perception of the Union's Role in Pay Equity Scale

UNION'S ROLE IN PAY EQUITY QUESTIONS	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
14 Union is committed to women's issues.	14.6%	48.2%	27.8%	6.8%	2.6%
15 Union instrumental in bringing Pay Equity legislation to workplace.	14.9%	46.6%	27.5%	8.4%	2.6%
16 Union made positive contributions in Pay Equity negotiations.	11.0%	49.0%	32.3%	4.8%	2.9%
17 Union has sacrificed future wage increases.	2.3%	12.7%	53.7%	24.1%	7.2%
18 Pay Equity will interfere with seniority-based wages	2.3%	7.5%	35.1%	45.8%	9.4%

Union Role in Reinstatement of Pay Equity. The responses for this item were also broken down per item and are presented in Table 16. A majority (63.3%) believed that the Union lobbying was essential to the reinstatement of Pay Equity. They believed that the demonstrations (54.7%), public advertisements (59.9%) and participation in the legislative process (54.0%) were all instrumental in the reinstatement. An overwhelming majority (90.4%) of the respondents believed the reinstatement of Pay Equity was "a good thing." There was, however, a significant minority of respondents, ranging from 32.1% to 42.8%, who were unsure of the Union's contribution to the reinstatement of Pay Equity.

TABLE 16

Responses to Items in the Perception of the Union's Role in Reinstatement of Pay Equity Scale

UNION'S ROLE IN THE REINSTATEMENT QUESTIONS	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
19.Reinstatement of Pay Equity is a good thing.	37.5%	53.4%	6.1%	1.6%	1.3%
20.Demonstrations by Union were instrumental in the reinstatement of Pay Equity.	13.6%	41.1%	39.2%	4.5%	1.6%
21.Public Ads sponsored by Union were important in bringing Pay Equity back on board.	13.0%	46.9%	33.6%	4.9%	1.6%
22.Intervention by Union at Law Amendment Committee was important in the reinstatement.	11.8%	42.2%	42.8%	2.0%	1.3%
23.Overall, Union lobbying was essential in bringing Pay Equity back.	15.6%	47.7%	32.1%	3.6%	1.0%

There were significant relationships for the workers' perceptions of the Union's role in the reinstatement with age, parental status, union tenure and education. As with the perceptions of the Union's role in Pay Equity, older workers ($r=0.18$; $p<0.001$) with more time in the Union ($r=0.13$; $p<0.01$) and workers with children ($r=0.12$; $p<0.01$) were more likely to feel the Union was instrumental in the reinstatement of Pay Equity.

Conversely, workers with more education ($r=-0.13$; $p<0.01$) were less likely to view the Union's role positively.

Comparisons were made between those who received Pay Equity raises and those who did not in terms of their perceptions of the Union role in the reinstatement of Pay Equity. Significantly more respondents who received raises felt that the Union was responsible for the reinstatement ($r=0.14$; $p<0.01$). The workers' perceptions of the Union's role in bringing Pay Equity back on board was also related to perceived changes resulting from Pay Equity implementation as measured in single item questions (Q91, Q92 & Q93). Specifically, workers who felt that Pay Equity implementation made their jobs more satisfying ($r=0.22$; $p<0.001$), their workplace more peaceful ($r=0.16$; $p<0.01$) and increased their support for the women's movement ($r=0.27$; $p<0.001$) were more likely to feel that the Union was instrumental in the reinstatement of Pay Equity.

Union Commitment. The workers' commitment to the Union varied across demographic variables. Union commitment was related to the sex of the worker, their educational level and tenure in the union. Men were more committed to the Union than females ($r=0.18$; $p<0.001$). The more educated the Union member, the less committed they were ($r=-0.27$; $p<0.001$). The longer the respondent had been a member of Union, the more committed they were ($r=0.14$; $p<0.01$).

Union Commitment also differed for members who received Pay Equity raises in that they were less committed than those who did not receive raises ($r=-0.14$; $p<0.01$). Also, the more committed the member was to the Union, the more likely they were to have increased their support for the women's movement (Q93) as a result of Pay Equity implementation ($r=0.22$; $p<0.001$).

The three UCS subscales were also examined. Union loyalty varied with sex, age, education, income and union tenure. Males rated higher in Union loyalty than females ($r=0.12$; $p<0.01$). Older members ($r=0.16$; $p<0.001$) with more tenure ($r=0.14$; $p<0.01$) scored higher in loyalty than younger, newer members. Members with less education ($r=-0.28$; $p<0.001$) and lower household incomes ($r=-0.13$; $p<0.01$) scored higher in loyalty than those with more.

Members who received Pay Equity raises did not differ in their loyalty to the Union from those who did not. However, those who felt that Pay Equity had increased their support for the women's movement (Q93) were rated higher in loyalty than those who did not ($r=0.19$; $p<0.001$).

When comparing demographic variables with the members' sense of responsibility to the Union, the members' level of education was the only demographic variable found to be related, with the more educated members expressing less responsibility to the Union than those with less education ($r=-0.21$; $p<0.001$).

The members' responsibility was also examined across the Pay Equity implementation variables. Union members who received Pay Equity adjustments expressed less responsibility than those who did not receive adjustments ($r=-0.12$; $p<0.01$). Members who were more supportive of the women's movement after Pay Equity implementation (Q93) expressed more responsibility toward the Union ($r=0.14$; $p<0.01$).

The workers' willingness to work for the Union was also examined across the demographic and Pay Equity implementation variables. The sex of the Union member and their level of education were related to their willingness to work for the Union. Males were more willing than females to work for the Union ($r=0.27$; $p<0.001$). The more education respondents had, the less willing they were to work ($r=-0.16$; $p<0.001$).

Willingness to work for the Union was not related to whether or not workers received a Pay Equity raise. However, members who felt more supportive of the women's movement as a result of Pay Equity implementation (Q93) were also more willing to work for the Union than those who were less supportive or did not change ($r=0.19$; $p<0.001$).

Perception of Union Service. Of all of the demographic variables, only the members' educational level was related to their perceptions of Union service. Workers with less education were more likely to agree that the services offered by the Union were beneficial than members with more education ($r=-0.20$; $p<0.001$).

Pay Equity implementation variables were compared and increased support for the women's movement as a result of Pay Equity (Q93) was found to be related to PERUS in that workers whose support increased were more likely to perceive the Unions's services to be satisfactory ($r=0.28$; $p<0.001$). Also, those who were more satisfied with their jobs since Pay Equity expressed a more positive perception of Union service ($r=0.16$; $p<0.01$).

Perception of Union Power. Comparisons with demographic variables revealed that the members' educational level and household income were related to PERUP. More educated members ($r=-0.20$; $p<0.001$) and those who made more money ($r=-0.13$; $p<0.01$) were more likely to believe that the Union was powerful than less educated or poorer members.

There were no differences in PERUP between those who received Pay Equity raises and those who did not. However, workers who felt more satisfied with their jobs

($r=0.17$; $p<0.001$) and were more supportive of the women's movement ($r=0.28$; $p<0.001$) since Pay Equity expressed more satisfaction with the Union's powers.

Hypothesis 4a stated that Attitudes toward Pay Equity, Perceptions of the Union's role in Pay Equity and Perceptions of the Union's Role in Reinstatement would predict Union Commitment and Perceptions of Union Power and Perceptions of Union Service. To test this, ATPE, PURPE and PURR were included as predictor variables against each of the criterion variables, UCS, PERUS and PERUP. However, multicollinearity existed between the latter two predictor variables, therefore, separate analyses were done for each.

The union criterion variables were significantly predicted in all of the resulting regression equations. Between 9.6% to 34.9% of the total variance was explained. UCS and PERUS had more variability accounted for than PERUP. Both PURPE and PURR were significant predictor variables of all three of the union variables included in the analyses. However, ATPE only significantly predicted PERUS ($t=2.31$; $p=0.02$) when paired with PURR. Thus, while the workers' perceptions of the Union's role in Pay Equity and the reinstatement of Pay Equity positively predict their commitment to the Union, their attitudes toward Pay Equity are not as critical in terms of their commitment. A summary of these regression analyses are presented in Tables 17 to 22.

TABLE 17

Multiple Regression of the Pay Equity Predictors of Union Commitment

Multiple R	.52106				
R Square	.27150				
Adjusted R Square	.26577				
Standard Error	7.65573				
Analysis of Variance					
	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square		
Regression	2	5548.26368	2774.13184		
Residual	254	14886.98590	58.61018		
F =	47.33174	Signif F =	.0000**		
----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
PURPE	1.678051	.177748	.551699	9.441	.0000**
ATPE	-.162485	.100197	-.094767	-1.622	.1061
(Constant)	18.618240	3.064898		6.075	.0000

TABLE 18

Multiple Regression of the Pay Equity Predictors of Union Commitment

Multiple R	.51431				
R Square	.26452				
Adjusted R Square	.25870				
Standard Error	7.46794				
Analysis of Variance					
	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square		
Regression	2	5074.61188	2537.30594		
Residual	253	14109.85296	55.77017		
F =	45.49575	Signif F =	.0000**		
----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
PURR	1.437925	.156583	.520708	9.183	.0000**
ATPE	-.037200	.095707	-.022040	-.389	.6978
(Constant)	19.327122	3.001619		6.439	.0000

TABLE 19

Multiple Regression of the Pay Equity Predictors of Perception of Union Power

Multiple R	.31774				
R Square	.10096				
Adjusted R Square	.09388				
Standard Error	2.57344				
Analysis of Variance					
	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square		
Regression	2	188.89682	94.44841		
Residual	254	1682.13820	6.62259		
F =	14.26155	Signif F =	.0000**		
----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
PURPE	.318064	.059749	.345589	5.323	.0000**
ATPE	-.058468	.033681	-.112697	-1.736	.0838
(Constant)	9.724932	1.030252		9.439	.0000

*p<.05 **p<.01

TABLE 20

Multiple Regression of the Pay Equity Predictors of Perception of Union Power

Multiple R	.30963				
R Square	.09587				
Adjusted R Square	.08873				
Standard Error	2.54453				
Analysis of Variance					
	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square		
Regression	2	173.69953	86.84977		
Residual	253	1538.07781	6.07462		
F =	13.41389	Signif F =	.0000**		
----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
PURR	.274985	.053152	.324033	5.154	.0000**
ATPE	-.036152	.032610	-.069697	-1.109	.2686
(Constant)	9.889371	1.022731		9.670	.0000

TABLE 21

Multiple Regression of the Pay Equity Predictors of Perception of Union Service

Multiple R	.59054				
R Square	.34874				
Adjusted R Square	.34361				
Standard Error	2.66112				
Analysis of Variance					
	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square		
Regression	2	963.18628	481.59314		
Residual	254	1798.71255	7.08155		
F =	68.00678	Signif F =	.0000**		
----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
PURR	.633488	.061785	.566528	10.253	.0000**
ATPE	.034468	.034828	.054683	.990	.3233
(Constant)	.644603	1.065353		.605	.5457

TABLE 22

Multiple Regression of the Pay Equity Predictors of Perception of Union Service

Multiple R	.55982				
R Square	.31340				
Adjusted R Square	.30797				
Standard Error	2.67360				
Analysis of Variance					
	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square		
Regression	2	825.46498	412.73249		
Residual	253	1808.47252	7.14811		
F =	57.74006	Signif F =	.0000**		
----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
PURR	.519251	.056058	.507466	9.263	.0000**
ATPE	.079254	.034264	.126722	2.313	.0215*
(Constant)	1.229837	1.074608		1.144	.2535

*p<0.05 **p<0.01

The zero-order correlations between the ATPE subscales and the union variables were examined and are presented in Table 23. Workers' understanding and support of Pay Equity was significantly related to all UCS subscales as well as both PERUP and PERUS. Workers who expressed an understanding and support for Pay Equity were also more likely to be more committed to the Union ($r=0.25$; $p<0.001$) and, in particular, convey more Union loyalty ($r=0.19$; $p<0.001$), Union responsibility ($r=0.20$; $p<0.001$) and be more willing to work for the Union ($r=0.19$; $p<0.001$). Workers who perceived the Union to be powerful ($r=0.16$; $p<0.001$) and its service to its members to be satisfactory ($r=0.38$; $p<0.001$) were also more likely to express understanding of and support toward Pay Equity.

Workers' perceived impact of Pay Equity was significantly correlated with all union variables except UCSR and PERUP. Thus, workers whose perceptions of Pay Equity's impact were positive tended to be more committed to the Union in general ($r=0.20$; $p<0.001$) and in terms of loyalty ($r=0.17$; $p<0.001$) and willingness to work ($r=0.21$; $p<0.001$) as well as being more likely to perceive the Union's services to its members as satisfactory ($r=0.20$; $p<0.001$).

Respondents' beliefs about Pay Equity were negatively correlated with PERUP and UCS and all of its subscales except willingness to work. Union members who held positive beliefs about Pay Equity were likely to express less overall commitment to the Union ($r=-0.12$; $p<0.01$), less responsibility to the Union ($r=-0.12$; $p<0.01$) and less loyalty to the Union ($r=-0.14$; $p<0.01$). Holding negative views of Pay Equity also corresponded to perceiving the Union as powerful ($r=-0.13$; $p<0.01$).

The perceived fairness of Pay Equity was negatively correlated with responsibility to the Union; no other relationship was significant. Thus, workers who did not perceive

Pay Equity as a fair policy, expressed more responsibility to the Union than those who perceived it as fair ($r=-0.15$; $p<0.001$).

TABLE 23

Zero-order Correlations of Pay Equity Subscales and Union Variables

	UCS	UCSR	UCSL	UCSWW	PERUS	PERUP
ATPE	+.13*	+.03	+.10	+.14*	+.28**	+.05
ATPE-U&S	+.25**	+.20**	+.19**	+.19**	+.38**	+.16**
ATPE-PI	+.20**	+.11	+.17**	+.20**	+.20**	+.03
ATPE-B	-.12*	-.12*	-.14*	-.02	+.02	-.13*
ATPE-F	-.08	-.15**	-.03	-.06	+.06	+.05

* $P<.01$ AND ** $P<.001$

Hypothesis 4b predicted that the workers' commitment to the Union would be positively related to both their perceptions of Union service and their perceptions of Union power. The zero-order correlations were examined are presented in Table 24. The relationships between UCS and its three subscales with PERUS and PERUP were supported. Workers who perceived the Union to be powerful and its services to be satisfactory, were more committed to the Union than those with less positive perceptions. The former also expressed more loyalty and responsibility to the Union and were more willing to work for the Union. Satisfactory perceptions of service was a better indication of Union commitment, on all levels, than was power. Workers' perceptions of Union service and power were more strongly related to their loyalty to the Union than any other component of commitment.

TABLE 24

Zero-Order Correlations of Union-Related Variables

	UNION COMMITMENT	LOYALTY TO UNION	RESPONSIF'LITY TO UNION	WILLING TO WORK
PERCEPTION OF UNION SERVICE	+.68**	+.74**	+.45**	+.39**
PERCEPTION OF UNION POWER	+.50**	+.55**	+.34**	+.30**

* P<.01 AND ** P.001

Hypothesis 4c expected to find male and female workers differing on their levels of Union commitment and the type of commitment they expressed. T-tests performed to test this hypothesis confirmed these relationships. Male workers had more overall Union commitment than female workers ($t=-3.10$, $df=280$; $p=0.002$ two-tailed). There were also sex differences in the UCS subscales: males expressed more loyalty to the Union ($t=-1.99$, $df=291$; $p=0.048$ two-tailed) and were more willing to work for the Union ($t=-4.84$, $df=296$; $p=0.000$) than females. However, there were no sex differences in the workers' level of responsibility to the Union.

Hypothesis 4d stated that wage equity and job satisfaction would be predictors of Union commitment. To test this hypothesis, WAGEEQ and JOBSAT were included as predictor variables in regression analyses with Union commitment and all three subscales. The results of the analyses are presented in Tables 25 to 28. Neither of the two job-related variables were significant predictors of Union commitment individually ($t=-0.09$, $p=0.374$; $t=847$, $p=0.40$, respectively) or together ($F=0.546$, $df=2,274$; $p=0.58$). Not surprisingly then, the variance accounted for was nominal (0.3%). Similar results were found for the

loyalty and responsibility subscales where only 1.1% and 0.3%, respectively, of the variance was explained by WAGEEQ and JOBSAT. However, the explained variance of the willingness to work subscale was significant ($F=4.36$, $df=2,274$; $p=0.01$) with job satisfaction ($t=-2.64$; $p=0.01$) negatively predicting willingness to work for the Union. Wage equity was not a significant contributor in this analysis ($t=-0.20$; $p=0.84$). Thus, workers who are not satisfied with their job are willing to work for their Union. Perceptions of a fair wage and job satisfaction were not factors in workers' overall commitment to the Union or to the responsibility and loyalty they feel to the Union.

TABLE 25

Multiple Regression of Job-Related Predictors of Union Commitment

Multiple R .06297
 R Square .00397
 Adjusted R Square -.00330
 Standard Error 9.00873

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	2	88.53675	44.26838
Residual	274	22237.05892	81.15715

F = .54546 Signif F = .5802

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
JOBSAT	-.074569	.083741	-.058195	-.890	.3740
WAGEEQ	.063858	.075374	.055369	.847	.3976
(Constant)	34.407588	2.333535		14.745	.0000

TABLE 26

Multiple Regression of Job-Related Predictors of Responsibility to Union

Multiple R	.05496		
R Square	.00302		
Adjusted R Square	-.00426		
Standard Error	2.76146		
Analysis of Variance			
	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	2	6.33116	3.16558
Residual	274	2089.43780	7.62569
F =	.41512	Signif F =	.6607

----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
JOBSAT	-.022713	.025669	-.057853	-.885	.3770
WAGEEQ	.003251	.023105	.009199	.141	.8882
(Constant)	9.503416	.715304		13.286	.0000

TABLE 27

Multiple Regression of Job-Related Predictors of Loyalty to Union

Multiple R	.10309		
R Square	.01063		
Adjusted R Square	.00341		
Standard Error	5.27907		
Analysis of Variance			
	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	2	82.02093	41.01046
Residual	274	7635.97907	27.86854
F =	1.47157	Signif F =	.2314

----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
JOBSAT	.012163	.049072	.016144	.248	.8044
WAGEEQ	.064948	.044169	.095777	1.470	.1425
(Constant)	13.954921	1.367439		10.205	.0000

TABLE 28

Multiple Regression of Job-Related Predictors of Willingness to Work for the Union

Multiple R	.17564		
R Square	.03085		
Adjusted R Square	.02377		
Standard Error	2.60721		
Analysis of Variance			
	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	2	59.28508	29.64254
Residual	274	1862.52720	6.79754
F =	4.36077	Signif F =	.0137*

----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
JOBSAT	-.064019	.024235	-.170290	-2.642	.0087**
WAGEEQ	-.004340	.021814	-.012825	-.199	.8425
(Constant)	10.949252	.675347		16.213	.0000

*p<.05 **p<.01

Exploratory Analysis

Since this was one of the first studies to comprehensively examine variables related to Pay Equity, exploratory analyses were carried out on the data set to determine those variables which predicted ATPE. The predictors consisted of demographic, job-related, equality and union-related variables. These variables were entered into the regression equation in blocks in the above given order. Within the union-related block, PERUS and PURR were deleted from the analysis because of their multicollinearity with PERUP and UCS, and PURPE, respectively. Similarly, ORGCOM was dropped for the job-related block because of its relation to JOBSAT, and parental status was excluded in the demographic variables block because of its close relationship with marital status. The regression analyses are presented in Tables 29 to 32.

By themselves, none of the demographic variables significantly predicted ATPE and the amount of variance explained (7%) was not significant ($F=0.87$; $p=0.56$). Thus, the personal characteristics of the workers were not predictive factors in their ATPE. The same was true when the job-related Block was entered; demographic and job-related variables did not significantly predict ATPE ($F=1.0$; $p=0.44$) and explained only 10% of the total variance. However, the sex of the respondent was approaching significance ($t=1.88$; $p=0.06$). After entering Block 3, equality variables, 32% of the variance was explained ($F=3.52$; $p=0.00$). Workers' attitudes toward women ($t=5.50$; $p=0.00$) and sex ($t=2.61$; $p=0.01$) were significant predictors of ATPE. Both the employee's status (full or part time) and the Union local were approaching significance ($t=-1.88$, $p=0.06$; $t=1.79$, $p=0.08$, respectively). In the final equation, 50.7% of the total variance was explained by all four blocks of variables ($F=6.11$; $p=0.00$). Worker's attitudes toward women ($t=4.78$; $p=0.00$) and their sex ($t=2.22$; $p=0.03$) continued to be significant predictors in the regression

equation and their perception of the Union's role in Pay Equity ($t=5.88$; $p=0.00$) and age ($t=2.02$; $p=0.05$) also significantly predicted ATPE. Employee status and Union local continued to approach significance in this analysis.

TABLE 29

Multiple Regression of Demographic Predictors of ATPE

Multiple R .27352
 R Square .07481
 Adjusted R Square -.01085
 Standard Error 5.42007

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	10	256.54853	25.65485
Residual	108	3172.72878	29.37712

F = .87329 Signif F = .5604

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
----------	---	------	------	---	-------

BLOCK 1 - DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

BARGUNIT	.057464	.322950	.017116	.178	.8591
EDUC	.127734	.273642	.047273	.467	.6416
TIME	.037965	.093704	.044274	.405	.6862
MARITAL	.268657	.573026	.047566	.469	.6401
SEX	1.678666	1.168439	.145789	1.437	.1537
LEAVE	.907386	1.247547	.071276	.727	.4686
LOCAL	.238223	.172860	.141012	1.378	.1710
EMPLSTAT	-1.859322	1.624602	-.118157	-1.144	.2550
INCOME	-.358334	.238581	-.159592	-1.502	.1360
AGE	.393460	.703980	.060039	.559	.5774
(Constant)	25.192185	5.396454		4.668	.0000

TABLE 30

Multiple Regression of Demographic and Job-Related Predictors of ATPE

Multiple R	.32057
R Square	.10276
Adjusted R Square	.00119
Standard Error	5.38758

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	12	352.40119	29.36677
Residual	106	3076.87612	29.02713

F = 1.01170 Signif F = .4436

----- Variables in the Equation -----
 Variable B SE B Beta T Sig T

BLOCK 1 - DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

BARGUNIT	.072905	.329843	.021714	.221	.8255
EDUC	.104328	.273091	.038611	.382	.7032
TIME	.010341	.094381	.012060	.110	.9130
MARITAL	.232301	.573758	.041129	.405	.6864
SEX	2.269405	1.208975	.197093	1.877	.0632
LEAVE	.588687	1.253342	.046242	.470	.6395
LOCAL	.199388	.175060	.118025	1.139	.2573
EMPLSTAT	-2.052736	1.618959	-.130448	-1.268	.2076
INCOME	-.330429	.241921	-.147164	-1.366	.1749
AGE	.521124	.703357	.079520	.741	.4604

BLOCK 2 - JOB-RELATED VARIABLES

JOBSAT	.060287	.082825	.080246	.728	.4683
WAGEEQ	.087232	.075581	.129533	1.154	.2510
(Constant)	21.665297	5.978132		3.624	.0004

TABLE 31

Multiple Regression of Demographic, Job-Related and Equality Predictors of ATPE

Multiple R .56715
 R Square .32166
 Adjusted R Square .23034
 Standard Error 4.72943

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	14	1103.05731	78.78981
Residual	104	2326.22000	22.36750

F = 3.52251 Signif F = .0001**

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
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BLOCK 1 - DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

BARGUNIT	.137895	.291226	.041071	.473	.6369
EDUC	.029662	.242823	.010978	.122	.9030
TIME	.040159	.083535	.046832	.481	.6317
MARITAL	-.001980	.505908	-3.506E-04	-.004	.9969
SEX	2.810301	1.076059	.244069	2.612	.0103*
LEAVE	-.251743	1.121203	-.019775	-.225	.8228
LOCAL	.276202	.154245	.163494	1.791	.0763
EMPLSTAT	-2.679465	1.425798	-.170275	-1.879	.0630
INCOME	-.204566	.213621	-.091108	-.958	.3405
AGE	.491496	.624545	.074999	.787	.4331

BLOCK 2 - JOB-RELATED VARIABLES

JOBSAT	.067348	.072915	.089644	.924	.3578
WAGEEQ	.049419	.066808	.073382	.740	.4611

BLOCK 3 - EQUALITY VARIABLES

ATW	.478647	.086972	.500874	5.503	.0000**
EWP	.053897	.128451	.039533	.420	.6756
(Constant)	11.524042	5.734906		2.009	.0471

*p<0.05 **p<0.01

TABLE 32

Multiple Regression of Demographic, Job-Related, Equality and Union-Related Predictors of ATPE

Multiple R .71205
 R Square .50702
 Adjusted R Square .42404
 Standard Error 4.09126

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	17	1738.69761	102.27633
Residual	101	1690.57970	16.73841

F = 6.11028 Signif F = .0000**

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
<u>BLOCK 1 - DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES</u>					
BARGUNIT	.268492	.252849	.079969	1.062	.2908
EDUC	-.072412	.213496	-.026799	-.339	.7352
TIME	.060707	.072988	.070795	.832	.4075
MARITAL	.063811	.438158	.011298	.146	.8845
SEX	2.282346	1.028616	.198217	2.219	.0287*
LEAVE	-1.006551	.990032	-.079066	-1.017	.3117
LOCAL	.232417	.133704	.137576	1.738	.0852
EMPLSTAT	-2.334292	1.242475	-.148340	-1.879	.0632
INCOME	-.208581	.191047	-.092896	-1.092	.2775
AGE	1.110729	.549907	.169489	2.020	.0460*
<u>BLOCK 2 - JOB-RELATED VARIABLES</u>					
JOBSAT	.028799	.068257	.038333	.422	.6740
WAGEEQ	.064375	.058094	.095592	1.108	.2704
<u>BLOCK 3 - EQUALITY VARIABLES</u>					
ATW	.372549	.077893	.389849	4.783	.0000**
EW2	.099338	.115909	.072864	.857	.3935
<u>BLOCK 4 - UNION VARIABLES</u>					
PERUP	.023355	.191444	.010959	.122	.9031
PURPE	1.076669	.183247	.563161	5.875	.0000**
UCS	-.110263	.069172	-.173624	-1.594	.1141
(Constant)	5.388719	5.123409		1.052	.2954

*p<0.05 **p<0.01

DISCUSSION

This discussion is organized around findings and outcomes of the hypotheses in each of the four sections, Pay Equity, Job-Related, Women's Equality and Union-Related. The results are then tied together on a more global level and summarized. The limitations of the study and the suggestions for future research are also outlined.

Discussion of Pay Equity Results

The Attitudes Toward Pay Equity scale, developed for the present study, factored into four meaningful subscales: Understanding and Support for Pay Equity, Perceived Impact of Pay Equity, Pay Equity Beliefs and the Fairness of Pay Equity. These subscales reflected the three themes previously addressed by the Evans & Nelson (1989) study, namely, support, knowledge and perceived impact. Questions concerning the sex biases in job evaluations (NSACSW, 1988) and the loopholes in Pay Equity legislation (Cuneo, 1990) comprised a Fairness factor.

While the data from the scale provided useful information, its psychometric properties were somewhat questionable. The internal reliability of the scale itself proved stable but, three of the four subscales were not quite reliable. Only 51% of the variance was explained by the four factors, suggesting that there are other influences on the Union members' attitudes toward Pay Equity. Additional developmental research on the ATPE scale is, therefore needed.

As in the Evans and Nelson (1989) study, the majority of workers had heard of Pay Equity and understood the basic Pay Equity concept. However, there were differences

between various personal characteristics. It remains to be seen whether those differences reflect a lower understanding of Pay Equity or a disagreement with it.

While most workers held positive attitudes toward Pay Equity in general, they were more uncertain in their perceptions of the impacts of Pay Equity and the fairness of the process. The perceptions of the workers also varied across subgroups. Clerical and service workers had a better understanding and more support for Pay Equity than other workers. This compared with Evans and Nelson's (1989) findings. As a group, clerical workers would be greatly affected by Pay Equity implementation and, as a result, one would expect them to have strong understanding and support.

The workers' beliefs differed across education and income categories with those having more education and higher income levels holding the most accurate beliefs. Specifically, more educated members and/or those with higher incomes had more in-depth information regarding the policy in that they knew that both men and women could qualify for raises, that Pay Equity does not encourage women to enter male-dominated occupations and would not promote women to stay in traditional occupations. This too replicates Evans and Nelson's results. As Pay Equity is a fairly complicated legislation, it is not surprising that workers with more education had the most accurate beliefs. Also, younger members were more likely than older ones to accept Pay Equity at face value and perceive it as a fair policy. As in Evans & Nelson's (1989) work, personal variables were poor predictors of the worker's perceived impacts of Pay Equity.

It was assumed at the outset of this study that Union members who received or were expecting Pay Equity adjustments would be more satisfied with their jobs than those who did not. Evans & Nelson (1989) found that employees who knew that they received an increase had the highest job satisfaction, whereas those who had known about Pay

Equity, but not about their own increases were the most dissatisfied. Likewise, workers in the present study who received adjustments were more satisfied with their jobs. Similarly, those with raises were more likely to say that their jobs were more satisfying because of Pay Equity. In Evans & Nelson's terms, this suggests that the increased expectations and increased awards also increased job satisfaction. This issue will be discussed further in the job-related section.

Not surprisingly, workers who received raises also had more positive attitudes toward Pay Equity. The results indicated that workers who received an adjustment had a better understanding and more support for Pay Equity, did not think that Pay Equity would have a negative impact on the workplace, did not agree with myths regarding Pay Equity and felt Pay Equity was fair. Thus, it appears that the rewards of Pay Equity overshadowed any possible misgivings about the policy. This follows the logic of distributive justice (Folger & Konovsky, 1989) where procedures are more likely to be perceived as fair if outcomes are advantageous.

Since Pay Equity is a watered-down version of equal pay for jobs of equal value, many loopholes exist in the legislation and difficulties exist in the implementation process that make it less beneficial to women (Cuneo, 1990). As a result, Lewis (1988) worried that many Pay Equity raises would be too small. In turn, this could legitimize the lower wages paid to female-dominated jobs and, thus, encourage women to feel that their jobs were worth less than those of men's. However, in this study, almost half of the workers who received a raise were not satisfied with the amount and had expected more. The level of satisfaction was related to workers' perceptions of Pay Equity in that workers who were satisfied with their Pay Equity raise were more understanding and supportive of Pay Equity and were more likely to believe that Pay Equity was fair than those unsatisfied with

their raise. Likewise, workers who had received more than expected had confidence in the fairness of Pay Equity. Thus, workers who received unsatisfactory Pay Equity raises questioned Pay Equity instead of accepting the low raise as befitting their job value. This follows the logic put forth by Lowe and Wittig (1989) and Hegtvædt (1989), where people respond negatively to unfair procedures when outcomes are low, whereas, if outcomes are fairly high, the unfair procedure is tolerated. In this case, the workers who viewed the outcome of Pay Equity to be low, questioned the validity of their raise and therefore, the process by which it was determined. While this finding is reassuring in terms of discounting Lewis' fears of low pay becoming legitimized, one must realize that these results do not measure any long-term effects of low Pay Equity raises.

Discussion of Job-Related Results

The standard relationships between the job-related constructs of job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, wage equity and organizational behaviour documented in previous studies (e.g. Summer & Hendrix, 1991) were replicated in the present study. As found by Berkowitz et al. (1987), workers in the present study perceived their wages as equitable when they were satisfied with their pay and their job was, at least, somewhat satisfying.

In related analyses, organizational commitment was found to be significantly related to wage equity and job satisfaction. The above two findings support the model developed by Summer & Hendrix (1991) where wage equity led to pay satisfaction which, in turn, led to job satisfaction and finally organizational commitment. While the model itself was not tested in the present study, the relationships held true.

Previous studies (Berkowitz et al., 1987; McDonald & Southwell, 1991) found that age, sex, educational level, income and occupational level were related to the above

mentioned job-related variables. When examining the non-predictive relationships in the present study, sex, age and income were related to wage equity and income with pay satisfaction. As found by McDonald & Southwell (1991), older workers tended to perceive their wages as inequitable while workers with higher household incomes were more likely to view their wages as equitable and were more satisfied with their pay.

As expected (Jackson & Grabski, 1988), male workers were less satisfied with their pay than female workers and were more likely to disagree with the notion that their pay was equitable. Conversely, in the study by McDonald & Southwell (1991), there was no difference in the levels of pay satisfaction and wage equity for male and female workers. This is particularly interesting as the two studies sampled workers from the same population. It is possible then that the introduction of Pay Equity has increased female workers' positive perceptions of their pay to the point where a significant difference was detectable between males and female.

In the regression analyses, however, only sex was found to be an important factor in predicting levels of wage equity and pay satisfaction. It appears then that the variance in pay satisfaction and wage equity accounted for by the sex of the worker is the same as that for age and income.

In general, the workers did not perceive their wages as equitable but were satisfied with their jobs and were committed to the organization. As is found in most studies of job satisfaction (see Evans & Nelson, 1989), the workers' satisfaction with their jobs varied, with those in higher income categories being more satisfied. Satisfaction differed among bargaining units, with clerical workers having the most job satisfaction and nurses, counsellors and technical staff having the lowest.

The sex of the worker was also a factor in job satisfaction. Female workers were more satisfied in their jobs. This result was consistent with that from earlier studies (e.g. Major, 1989) where female workers tend to be more satisfied with their jobs than males.

However, the data was not an example of the 'paradox of the contented female worker' (Jackson & Grabski, 1988). While the female workers in this study were more satisfied with their pay and their jobs and were more likely to see their pay as equitable, they were also better educated and made more money than the male respondents. Thus, it appears that the contented female worker is not only a paradox, but also applies to women who work in institutions where female workers make more money on average than male workers. Looking at previous studies (Jackson & Grabski, 1988) from another perspective, one could build a theory of the 'discontented male worker' as regardless of their circumstances, male workers seem harder to please than female workers in terms of job characteristics. Thus, interpretations of the male-female differences in their attitudes toward their job and their pay should not solely be trying to explain women's low expectations in the workplace (Jackson & Grabski, 1988; Major & Forcey, 1985) but why men's expectations are so high.

In future studies, it would be interesting to know if social comparison groups differ for paradoxically and justly satisfied female workers. Generally workers compare the wages of same-sex and same-job groups as a means to determine equity (Major & Forcey, 1985). For women, this usually means that women's wage standard than when male workers were included. However, in this study female workers would have a higher wage standard if they compared their income with that of other female workers than if males were included. Knowing the comparison groups of highly paid female workers would aid in the interpretations of male and female perceptions of fair pay.

The relationships of the workers' attitudes toward Pay Equity with job-related constructs were also examined. While Pay Equity has been criticized because of the possible effects on the workers and the workplace (see Lutes & Rothchild, 1986), most of the workers in this study did not feel that the implementation of Pay Equity increased or decreased the level of friction or rivalry at work. The majority of workers also reported that Pay Equity did not change their perception of their job. Thus, the general consensus in the present sample was more of a perceived lack of side effects from the Pay Equity program than any negative impacts on the workplace. Of course, possible effects may be more subtle than measured by direct questioning and/or may take longer to take effect.

Workers' attitudes toward Pay Equity were related to their perceptions of their job, their pay and their place of work. Workers who understood Pay Equity and felt it was a positive attempt at equality for women, were more satisfied with their job and were more committed to the organization in which they worked. Conversely, workers who believed the myths about Pay Equity were also more committed to the organization they worked for. While it may appear contradictory to understand and support Pay Equity and yet believe the negative myths about Pay Equity, it would seem that these workers had a moderate understanding of Pay Equity but not enough to separate fact from fiction or to understand the basic concept of Pay Equity. As knowledge regarding changes in the workplace is a key factor in the reduction of feelings of job insecurity (Weiner & Gunderson, 1990), having a general understanding of Pay Equity was enough for workers to retain their satisfaction with their job and, thus, their commitment to the organization. Also, workers who were committed to the organization were more likely not to perceive inequalities for women in the work world, thus making them more susceptible to negative myths about equality-restoring programs.

The perceived fairness of Pay Equity was positively related to the workers' perceptions of wage equity, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Possibly, workers who have confidence in their corporate identity may also more blindly accept the programs endorsed by their organization.

While receiving a Pay Equity adjustment was not related to perceptions of wage equity, pay satisfaction or organizational commitment, workers who received raises were more satisfied with their jobs than those who did not. Likewise, those who received raises were more likely to say that their job was more satisfying as a result of Pay Equity implementation. This is consistent with the findings of Evans & Nelson (1989) and would indicate that the Pay Equity process changed the perceived "value" of jobs more so than the actual adjustment changed the perception of fair pay (Lewis, 1988). That is, the workers who qualified for Pay Equity increases were more satisfied with their jobs as they have increased in "value." This was further reinforced by the finding that workers who were not satisfied with their raise and felt it was lower than expected were not as satisfied with their jobs as those content with their raise. The Pay Equity adjustment was an implied message to the workers that their employers valued their jobs, a key component in job satisfaction (Evans & Nelson, 1989). On the other hand, the lack of an adjustment was associated with low job satisfaction, thus casting a shadow on this benefit of Pay Equity. As Pay Equity raises did not increase satisfaction with pay or perceptions of wage equity, their standards of what they deserve to be paid have remained the same and appear to be more related to the personal characteristics discussed earlier.

Of the workers who received a Pay Equity raise, those who were not satisfied with the amount and thought it was less than expected were also not satisfied with their general pay and perceived it to be inequitable. Thus, it appears that some individuals

perceived their jobs to be "worth" more than the amount indicated by their general pay and expected to be more fully recompensed through Pay Equity. While Lewis (1988) worried that unsatisfactory Pay Equity raises would decrease job value, based on the results represented here, it appears more likely that low raises have maintained perceptions of underpayment. Pay Equity implementation has, therefore, not pacified workers who perceived themselves to be underpaid.

Discussion of Women's Equality Results

In Evans & Nelson's (1989) study, demographic variables were related to the employees' attitudes toward Pay Equity. Specifically, females were more knowledgeable and more supportive of Pay Equity than males; workers in higher income brackets and job status were more knowledgeable about Pay Equity; and workers with 17 years or more of tenure perceived more negative impacts than newer workers. However, in the present study the relationships to Pay Equity attitudes differed. Most surprisingly, there were no differences between male and female respondents concerning their attitudes toward Pay Equity. As the male workers sampled here were not from stereotypical male trade Unions, it is feasible that their attitudes were not as traditional as those found in society as a whole. However, male and female workers did differ in terms of their attitudes toward women; thus, weakening this argument. Another possible explanation for this finding was that the members were educated about Pay Equity through the Union, therefore, decreasing the resistance to its implementation (Weiner & Gunderson, 1990). Other demographic variations were discussed above in the 'Pay Equity' section.

Many of the workers sampled felt that they were more supportive of the women's movement as a result of Pay Equity implementation. Thus, it appears that one of the

goals of Pay Equity, to increase support for the women's movement, was realized. In Evans and Nelson's study, only half of the workers who received Pay Equity raises knew they had received one, therefore minimizing Pay Equity's contribution to the women's movement.

Conversely, because the reality of Pay Equity was not as beneficial as equal pay for work of equal value indicates, Lewis (1988) expressed concern that workers who did not receive wage adjustments would lose faith in the women's movement. Her concerns were not without merit, as workers who did not receive Pay Equity adjustments were less likely to feel more supportive toward the women's movement as a result of Pay Equity. Thus, the true value of Pay Equity in the struggle for equality, both in terms of decreasing the wage gap (see Orazem & Mattila, 1989) and increasing support for the women's movement, is still questionable.

Attitudes toward women in the workplace were correlated with attitudes toward Pay Equity in that workers with traditional views of women were less likely to hold positive attitudes toward Pay Equity than workers who had more liberal attitudes. Specifically, the more liberal the respondents' views on women, the more likely they understood and supported Pay Equity, the more likely they felt that Pay Equity would not have negative repercussions and the more unlikely they were to believe the negative myths around Pay Equity. However, attitudes toward women's role in the work world were not related to the way the worker felt about how fair Pay Equity was. Evans & Nelson (1989) had similar results where respondents who did not think that the women's movement had gone far enough reported the most support for Pay Equity and those who thought it had gone too far, reported the most negative impacts of Pay Equity.

Likewise, the workers' views on women's equality in the workplace were also related to their attitudes on Pay Equity. Workers who felt that women were discriminated against in the workplace were more supportive of Pay Equity, were less likely to believe that Pay Equity's perceived impacts were negative and had more positive beliefs regarding Pay Equity than workers who felt that inequalities did not exist. These results follow those of Tougas & Veilleux's (1988) study on women's reaction to Affirmative Action. That is, perceptions of inequality between men and women are related to feelings of dissatisfaction which, in turn, leads to support for prosocial programs like Pay Equity. In the present study, however, these workers were also aware of the loopholes and biases in Pay Equity legislation resulting in many women not qualifying for adjustments. In other words, the workers who were aware of the inequalities faced by women in the workplace, were also aware of the inequalities in Pay Equity legislation.

Workers who were aware of the inequalities faced by women in the workplace also were more likely to have received a Pay Equity raise. This was not overly surprising as Pay Equity adjustments would be given to workers who were experiencing wage inequalities. However, of those receiving raises, those who were satisfied with the amount were less likely to report sex discrimination in the workplace. It would appear then that the workers who were aware of the sex discrimination in the workplace were more likely to be dissatisfied with the monetary outcomes of Pay Equity. As noted earlier, workers who appreciated the difficulties faced by women were also most likely to perceive Pay Equity as an unfair policy. Therefore, they understood the loopholes that undermined the raises they should have received based on the 'equal pay for work of equal value' principle and, as a result, were dissatisfied with the amount.

Other perceived repercussions of Pay Equity also appeared to be related to workers' stance on women's issues. Workers with more liberal attitudes towards women's roles in the workplace were, as a result of Pay Equity, more likely to show an increased support for the women's movement and to have experienced decreased friction in the workplace.

Jackson & Grabski (1988) found that married people and people with children had more traditional beliefs regarding women's issues than single and childless people in that the former were more likely to support paying male-dominated jobs a higher wage than female-dominated jobs. The present study failed to support this claim, as no relation between marital and/or parental status was found with the attitudes toward women's roles in society or the perceptions of equality in the workplace.

However, unlike the attitudes toward Pay Equity, there were differences between men and women in their attitudes towards women's role in the work world and equality in the workplace. Women were more likely than men to feel that inequality did, in fact, exist in the workplace, most likely because they were more likely to have experienced it. Men also had more traditional views regarding women's roles in society. This coincided with the normative data presented by Spence et al. (1973). It is not surprising that women have more liberal attitudes toward their roles in the work world as it is in their best interest to have them. It is also to men's advantage to believe that women should not compete with them in the workplace.

Discussion of Union-Related Results

Factor analysis supported the three-dimensional interpretation of Union Commitment that included Loyalty to the Union, Responsibility to the Union and

Willingness to Work for the Union (Kelloway et al., 1992). As in the recent work of Southwell (1991), these three factors clearly emerged as distinct constructs.

Southwell (1991) found that the sex of the respondent was a moderating variable for union commitment, in that male union members based their commitment on what the Union could do for them, whereas female members based commitment more on opinions of how the union was run. Although it was not possible to run a comparable analysis in the present study because of the exclusion of many union variables, the sex of the respondent was examined as a possible variable in commitment to the Union. The results indicated that male members tended to be more loyal and were more willing to work for the Union than female members. This is partially in conflict with results from Gordon et al. (1980) and Thacker et al. (1990) who found that female workers expressed more union loyalty, whereas male workers felt more responsible and to willing to work for their union.

Education, income and Union tenure were found to be related to the members' perceptions of the Union. More educated members reported less loyalty, less responsibility and less willingness to work for the Union and perceived the services offered by the Union to be less than satisfactory and their power to be questionable. Older workers with more tenure and those with lower household incomes were the most loyal to the Union. Workers with higher incomes were also likely to question the power of the Union. Southwell (1991) found similar results with the workers' sex, income, education, age and tenure being associated with their Union perceptions.

The relationships of Union commitment with other union-related measures were strong, as found in Southwell (1991). Members' perceptions of their Union services and the Union's power were positively related to Union commitment as a whole and to all of the subscales. In other words, the more positive workers' perception of the Union's

service and powers, the more committed they were to the Union, the more loyalty toward the Union they had, the more responsibilities they felt for the Union and the more willing they were to work for the Union. Both the workers' perceptions of service and perception of power were the most strongly associated with union loyalty. Therefore, if the Union is to build a loyal membership, the services and strengths should be well documented and should be compatible with member wants and needs.

The recent study by Southwell (1991) also found that job-related variables were not robust predictors of Union commitment. The present study supported such findings. Neither the workers' satisfaction with their job or their perception of wage equity predicted their overall commitment to the Union, their loyalty to the Union or their responsibility to the Union. However, the workers' willingness to work for the Union was influenced by their job satisfaction in that the less satisfied workers were with their job, the more willing they were to work for the Union. This is also consistent with Southwell's (1991) study. This result presents a quandary for unions: while a goal of unions is to improve conditions at work including wages, if they successfully accomplish this, their members would be more satisfied with their jobs and, therefore, less willing to work for their union.

The relationships of Pay Equity with the union-related variables were an important aspect of this research. Most members felt the Union was an essential force in the implementation of Pay Equity without detrimental effects to the Union as a whole. Likewise, the overwhelming majority of Union members thought the reinstatement of Pay Equity was a good thing and felt Union action was instrumental in bringing Pay Equity back. However, many members expressed an uncertainty in the Union's role in their Pay Equity program and its reinstatement, thus, indicating the Union's actions should be better communicated to its membership. In order to better capitalize on the service/commitment

relationship, the Union must clearly communicate these services provided to its members.

Weiner and Gunderson (1990) noted that the support for Pay Equity varies within Unions. In this study, older, long-time members were the most supportive of the Union's actions regarding the introduction of Pay Equity as well as its reinstatement. Also, more educated members approved of the Union's actions regarding the reinstatement of Pay Equity. The sex of the worker was not related to the views about the Union's role in Pay Equity negotiations and reinstatement.

The workers' perceptions of their Union were examined for their relationships with their attitudes toward Pay Equity. The workers' perceptions of the Union's role in Pay Equity implementation as well as the role in the reinstatement of Pay Equity significantly predicted the workers' commitment to the Union, perception of Union service and perception of Union power. Specifically, workers who believed that the Union was instrumental in bringing about a positive Pay Equity program and was essential in the reinstatement of Pay Equity were more committed to the Union than those who did not. Not surprisingly, the same group also had more positive perceptions of the Union's power and its service to its members. Perceptions of the Union's role in bringing in Pay Equity and its subsequent reinstatement were not as strongly tied to perceptions of Union power as they were to Union service and Union commitment. This makes intrinsic sense as Pay Equity itself is a service offered partially through the Union and, as noted earlier, the members' views of Union service are more closely linked to commitment than power.

However, the workers' attitudes toward Pay Equity in general was not a good predictor of these union variables. While Pay Equity attitudes predicted the workers' views of Union services, the perceptions of the Union's role in initiating Pay Equity explained the

same portion of variance. As a result, the workers' attitudes did not provide any new information.

In terms of maintaining positive Union perceptions, it seems important that workers had a basic understanding of Pay Equity and supported its intent. Workers with a better understanding of Pay Equity felt more responsibility, loyalty and willingness to work for their Union, and believed the Union to be powerful and service-oriented. Also, workers who felt that Pay Equity generated negative impacts in the workplace were not as loyal to the Union, were less willing to work for the Union and had more negative perceptions of Union services. As noted by Weiner & Gunderson (1990), it appears that Union members require a thorough understanding of programs offered by the Union in order to advocate them and, thus, remain happy with their Union.

However, workers who believed the common myths regarding the intents of Pay Equity felt more responsibility to the Union, had more Union loyalty and perceived the Union to be more powerful than those who did not hold such beliefs. Likewise, individuals who thought that Pay Equity was fair, felt less responsibility to the Union. While it is difficult to fully understand these results, it seems feasible that these relationships with responsibility may reflect an underlying factor. For instance, the lack of confidence in Pay Equity may be creating a conflict with the work situation which is associated with increased union commitment (Southwell, 1991).

The monetary outcomes of Pay Equity were also related to workers' commitment to the Union and their perceptions regarding the Union's role in both Pay Equity negotiations and its reinstatement. That is, workers who qualified for raises were more likely to feel that the Union brought about a positive Pay Equity program and was largely responsible for bringing Pay Equity back after the freeze. However, those who received

adjustments were less committed in that they felt less responsibility to the Union. These findings appear contradictory and are difficult to understand. It is possible that while an understanding of programs the Union is advocating and the roles it takes in fostering them are essential in maintaining union commitment, the benefits of these programs may not be attributed to the Union. Strengthening this suggestion, members tend to be more committed to their union when they see a need for it; however, once established, the commitment may decrease as the perceived need decreases. It would be interesting to know the commitment levels of respondents in Evans and Nelson's study as the union undermined their role in the policy and kept the workers uninformed to the point where the many members who received Pay Equity adjustments did not know they had done so. Future research should investigate the relationships between union-related variables and Pay Equity to more clearly comprehend these relations. Unions, however, should take note: not only is it essential that members know of their Union's role in various programs as they are being implemented, but to ensure continual commitment from their members, it is also imperative that the rank and file realize that the benefits of the program are a direct result of the Union's involvement.

It appears from the results that union attitudes were closely tied with the members' sense of the women's movement. Union members who reported being more supportive of the women's movement since Pay Equity implementation also held more positive views about the Union's role in Pay Equity negotiations and reinstatement, as well as feeling more commitment to the Union. Likewise, increased support for the women's movement was associated with perceptions of satisfactory Union service and Union power. Pay Equity then seems to have enabled the union members to link a feminist perspective to unionization by more closely integrating gender and work issues (Lewis, 1988). Said a

simpler way, the implementation of Pay Equity has encouraged Union members to also support the women's movement. The philosophies of these two movements are, in many ways, parallel, and their similar views are exemplified by Pay Equity (Weiner & Gunderson, 1990). That is, both ideologies support fairness and equity and oppose discrimination. Also, the idea that wages should not be determined solely by market forces is consistent with Pay Equity and traditional union philosophy (Lewis, 1988; Weiner & Gunderson, 1990). In terms of the benefits of Pay Equity programs, such an alliance is obviously very advantageous and an added bonus. Future studies should examine workers' support for the women's movement after Pay Equity implementation in non-unionized environments as well as those consisting of more "stereotypical male" occupations.

Limitations of the Study

It should be noted that the results of this study are only suggestive, not conclusive. While a longitudinal study measuring these attitudes before, during and after Pay Equity implementation is the ideal design of this type of study, the time factor and logistics of such a study were not feasible. A longitudinal design would have provided information regarding the reactions to Pay Equity implementation as it was happening instead of in retrospect. A cross-sectional, correlational study, such as this one, reveals a non-causal, snapshot picture of the attitudes of the sample. Another difficulty lies in the nature of survey studies; the responses might not really represent the workers' deeper feelings on the topics covered in the questionnaire (Smith & Glass, 1987).

Likewise, as in all self-administered survey designs, there is always the question; "Are the respondents who filled out the questionnaire different in some way from those

who did not?" As noted in Southwell's (1991) study, the questionnaire was long, with some 104 items. People were required to fill out the questionnaire on their own time and then to mail it back to the Union. Therefore, it is not illogical to suggest that the people who did respond were possibly more committed to the Union or had some particular interest in Pay Equity. Also, people who were totally unfamiliar with Pay Equity might not have filled out the questionnaire, thus biasing the results.

The population from which the sample was drawn may not be representative of many and caution should then be taken when making generalizations. Workers in the private sector could prove quite different in the attitudes expressed in this study. Also, the sex ratio and the wage differential between male and female workers in this study was not representative of most organizations, and, thus should not be ignored when making inferences.

In terms of Pay Equity itself, there was much left unsaid. As noted numerous times, Pay Equity is a complicated and controversial piece of legislation and this study could not possibly cover the entire scope of Pay Equity issues. Both Weiner & Gunderson's (1990) and Fudge & McDermott's (1991) books are excellent sources of Pay Equity in Canada and cover a broader scope of issues. Likewise, the findings are only partial interpretations of more global issues. For example, Lewis (1988 & 1991) expressed concerns that the job evaluation process will legitimize paying women lower wages than men. In the present study, the focus of this concern was on the risk that female workers would perceive their low raise as reflecting the fact that their jobs were not valued in society. Lewis also articulated fears that the biased results of job evaluations would be used as confirmation that these jobs should not be paid much. The present study only responds to the former concern.

Summary and Conclusions

The Attitude Toward Pay Equity scale revealed interesting information regarding the inter-relations of workers' views of Pay Equity and their attitudes regarding their job, their Union and their views of women's equality. In fact, all of the measures used in the study were related to overall Pay Equity attitudes, except organizational commitment and perceptions of Union power. It can, therefore, be assumed that Pay Equity touched job, union and personal aspects of the respondents' lives.

As indicated by the exploratory analysis, the most influential source in understanding workers' attitudes toward Pay Equity was their attitudes toward women's roles in the work world. That is, individuals who held liberal views of women were more likely to hold positive views of Pay Equity. Combined with the sex of the worker, which was a significant factor only if their stance on women's liberty was known, this explained 32% of the variance in attitudes toward Pay Equity. The workers' perceptions of the Union's role in Pay Equity also added to the equation, bringing the total explained variance to 51%. Neither the workers' job-related attitudes nor their personal characteristics other than sex were helpful in terms of predicting their attitudes toward Pay Equity. While it would be impossible to perfectly predict attitudes toward Pay Equity, almost half of the variance remains unaccounted for. Therefore, to understand more fully what characteristics influence people's attitudes toward Pay Equity, other measures and factors need to be examined.

With the existing information, it again was shown that it is essential that unions clearly communicate their roles in bringing programs to their members, as a clear understanding of union involvement among the rank and file appears to be tied with their overall attitudes toward that program. In the beginning stages of implementing Pay

Equity, both unions and employers can gauge its reception and the possible need to influence that reception by knowing the workers' views on women in the workplace.

However, the scale itself requires more developmental research to more fully capture people's perspectives. Pay Equity will continue to affect the working lives of both men and women and will alter the parameters of female-dominated occupations. For instance, if the Nova Scotia government lives up to its promises, Pay Equity will be implemented in the private sector. Thus, there is a continual need to understand workers' reactions to Pay Equity.

The results of the study are encouraging in terms of the workers' reactions to Pay Equity. For example, workers who received Pay Equity raises also have increased sense of job value, and the majority of workers reported no negative implementation effects on their jobs, their place of work or their views of the women's movement. Support for the women's movement increased somewhat as a result of Pay Equity, and was strongly tied to workers' attitudes toward their union. The latter finding suggested that Pay Equity has helped cement these two philosophies, and may possibly be strengthening union support among a group that is being increasingly represented by unions: women. A caution should be noted here as the agendas of unions and women's groups have historically differed (Lewis, 1988); therefore, these results might not be found in more traditional, private sector or trades-oriented unions.

Implications

It appears that Pay Equity is neither a great triumph nor a failure in terms of women's equality. Based on the results of the study, it was concluded that while a few of the fears put forth by women's rights activists (e.g. Lewis, 1988) were substantiated,

many were unfounded. Thus, the positive effects of Pay Equity, including the increased earnings, seem to outweigh the negative. One of the most powerful impacts of Pay Equity implementation is increased job satisfaction (Evans & Nelson, 1989). Not only is this finding a benefit of Pay Equity, but it also argues that money is an important job gratifier for women as well as men (Major & Grabski, 1988).

The possibilities for future research are plentiful. Besides the large base of material that should be collected on Pay Equity in general, more information is needed on Pay Equity's effects on the workers. A qualitative approach is recommended, as it would yield more in-depth analyses on workers' reactions to Pay Equity and how its implementation has touched aspects of their professional and personal lives. A longitudinal study is also advised, as it could verify the conclusions made in the present study. That is, a study measuring the attitudes of workers before, during and after Pay Equity could measure the changes in their attitudes and, therefore, could more accurately establish the existence of these relationships. To enable more generalization of the findings, it is important to study the attitudes of non-unionized and public-sector workers in terms of their attitudes toward Pay Equity. Also, the relationship between unionization and Pay Equity or, more generally, feminist ideology should be pursued further.

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Appendix A
Questionnaire

The following are things people might say, there are no right or wrong answers. Please indicate how you feel, that is whether you Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither Agree or Disagree (N), Disagree (D) or Strongly Disagree (SD) with the following statements.

This section contains statements which will allow you to express how you feel about Pay Equity:

- 1) I have heard about Pay Equity and understand what it is. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 2) If studies showed that the work of delivery van drivers and clerk typists required the same level of skill, training, responsibility and so forth, employers should pay these positions the same. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 3) Only women can get Pay Equity raises. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 4) Pay Equity will help women by providing opportunities for women to enter higher-paying, male-dominated positions. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 5) Pay Equity is fair because it does not eliminate personal factors such as seniority and experience when calculating wage rates. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 6) Pay Equity legislation has so many loopholes and exemptions that many women do not qualify for adjustments. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 7) Pay Equity will help women by decreasing wage discrimination based on sex. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 8) Pay Equity will increase unemployment rates due to higher labour costs. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 9) Pay Equity will cause many problems in the workplace. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 10) The job evaluations Used in Pay Equity are too biased against women to provide accurate results. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 11) Pay Equity will encourage women to stay in traditional occupations. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 12) Pay Equity will result in some reductions in salaries. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 13) Overall, I feel that Pay Equity is a positive attempt toward equality for women. SA...A...N...D...SD

This section contains statements which will allow you to express your beliefs about your UNION In regard to Pay Equity.

- 14) I believe that the UNION is committed to women's issues. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 15) I feel that the UNION was instrumental in bringing Pay Equity legislation to my work place. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 16) The UNION has made positive contributions in the negotiations of the specific Pay Equity program implemented at my workplace. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 17) The UNION has sacrificed future wage increases to finance Pay Equity raises. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 18) Pay Equity will interfere with the union principle of seniority-based wages. SA...A...N...D...SD

Although Pay Equity has been reinstated, the Public Sector Wage Restraint Bill (160) originally eliminated Pay Equity from the provincial budget. This section will allow you to express your views on the reinstatement of Pay Equity.

- 19) The reinstatement of Pay Equity is a good thing. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 20) The demonstrations organized by the UNION were instrumental in the reinstatement of Pay Equity. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 21) The public advertisements sponsored by the UNION were important in bringing Pay Equity "back on board". SA...A...N...D...SD
- 22) The intervention by the UNION at the Law Amendment Committee was a significant factor in restoring Pay Equity. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 23) Overall, the lobbying done by the UNION in support of Pay Equity was essential in bringing about it's reinstatement. SA...A...N...D...SD

This section contains statements which allow you to express how you feel about women in the workforce:

- 24) Overall, men and women in the work force are paid equal wages. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 25) All things being equal, a man and a woman would have the same chance of being hired for a job. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 26) All things being equal, a man and a woman would have the same chance for promotion in an organization. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 27) I am satisfied with women's present situation in the work force. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 28) I believe that the improvement of women's situation should be a social priority. SA...A...N...D...SD

This section contains statements which allow you to express how you feel about the role of women in society:

- 29) Women should take increasing responsibility for leadership in solving the intellectual and social problems of the day. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 30) Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 31) There should be a strict merit system in job appointment and promotion without regard to sex. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 32) Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 33) Women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 34) It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks. SA...A...N...D...SD

- 35) Women should be concerned with their duties of child-bearing and house tending, rather than with desires for professional and business careers. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 36) The intellectual leadership of the community should be largely in the hands of men. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 37) Economic and social freedom is worth far more to women than acceptance of the ideal femininity which has been set up by men. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 38) On the average, women should be regarded as less capable of contributing to economic production than are men. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 39) There are many job in which men should be given preference over women in being hired or promoted. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 40) Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades. SA...A...N...D...SD

This section contains statements which will allow you to express how you feel about your pay:

- 41) My pay is fair, considering what other people in this organization are paid. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 42) This organization pays a fair wage. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 43) My pay is fair for the kind of job I do. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 44) My pay is fair. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 45) All in all, my pay is about what it ought to be. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 46) Considering my skills and effort, I make a fair wage. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 47) My pay is fair, given what my coworkers make. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 48) My pay is fair, considering what other places in the area pay. SA...A...N...D...SD

This section contains statements which allow you to express your views on the UNION:

- 49) I feel a sense of pride in being part of this UNION. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 50) Based on what I know and what I believe I can expect in the future, I plan to be a member of the UNION for the rest of the time I work. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 51) The record of this UNION is a good example of what dedicated people can get done. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 52) I talk up the UNION to my friends as a great union to belong to. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 53) There's a lot to be gained by joining this UNION. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 54) Deciding to join this UNION was a smart move on my part. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 55) It is the duty of every worker to keep his/her ears open for information that might be useful to the UNION. SA...A...N...D...SD

- 56) It's every member's duty to support or help another worker to use the grievance procedure. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 57) It's every member's responsibility to see that the other members "live up to" the terms of the agreement. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 58) Every member must be willing to make the effort to file a grievance. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 59) I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected of a member in order to make the UNION successful. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 60) If asked I would serve on a committee. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 61) If asked I would run for elected office. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 62) The UNION has a lot of influence over who gets elected to public office. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 63) The UNION has a lot of influence over what laws are passed. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 64) The UNION is respected by the employer. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 65) The UNION has a lot to say about how the work place is run. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 66) The UNION protects workers against unfair actions by the employer. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 67) The UNION improves the job security of the members. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 68) The UNION improves the wages and working conditions of the members. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 69) The UNION gives members their money's worth for the dues they pay. SA...A...N...D...SD

This section contains statements which allow you to express your views on your place of work. Here, "organization" refers to the place you work.

- 70) I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 71) I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 72) I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 73) I find my values and the organization's values are very similar. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 74) I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 75) This organization really inspires me the very best in me in the way of job performance. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 76) I am extremely glad that I choose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 77) I really care about the fate of this organization. SA...A...N...D...SD
- 78) For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work. SA...A...N...D...SD

Indicate the degree to which you are Very Satisfied (VS), Satisfied (S), Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied (N), Dissatisfied (D) or Very Dissatisfied (VD) to the following statements which address your place of work:

- 79) The freedom to choose your own method of working. VS...S...N...D...VD
- 80) The reception you get for good work. VS...S...N...D...VD
- 81) The amount of responsibility you are given. VS...S...N...D...VD
- 82) Your rate of pay. VS...S...N...D...VD
- 83) Your opportunity to use your abilities. VS...S...N...D...VD
- 84) Your chance of promotion. VS...S...N...D...VD
- 85) The attention paid to the suggestions you make. VS...S...N...D...VD
- 86) The amount of variety in your job. VS...S...N...D...VD
- 87) Now, taking everything into consideration, how do you feel about your job as a whole. VS...S...N...D...VD

For this section, circle the appropriate response as applied to you.

- 88) I have received or am expecting a Pay Equity raise.
 (1) Yes (2) No (3) Unsure

If yes to the above statement:

- 89) Are you satisfied with the amount of the raise?
 (1) Yes (2) No (3) Unsure

- 90) Is the amount:
 (1) More than you expected?
 (2) Less than you expected?
 (3) Neither, as you had no prior expectations?

- 91) Do you think that the implementation of Pay Equity has or will affect your perception of your job?
 (1) More satisfying
 (2) Less satisfying
 (3) No impact
 (4) Don't know

- 92) Do you think that the implementation of Pay Equity has or will affect the atmosphere in which you work?
 (1) More friction/rivalry
 (2) Less friction/rivalry
 (3) No impact
 (4) Don't know

- 93) Do you think that the implementation of Pay Equity has or will affect your perception of the women's movement?
 (1) More supportive
 (2) Less supportive
 (3) No impact
 (4) Don't know

The next section contains personal questions. Remember, your answers will be mixed with other UNION members and cannot be traced back to you. If you are uncomfortable giving any of the requested information, feel free to omit that item(s).

Please circle the appropriate answer.

- 94) What sex are you? (1) Male (2) Female
- 95) How old are you? (1) 24 years and under (2) 25 to 34 years (3) 35 to 44 years (4) 45 to 54 years (5) 55 to 64 years (6) 65 years and over
- 96) What is the highest level of education you have completed?
(1) Less than Grade 9
(2) Less than Grade 12
(3) Grade 12 or Vocational training
(4) Community College
(5) Some University
(6) University Degree
(7) Post-graduate Study
(8) Post-graduate Degree
(9) Other (Please specify) _____
- 97) What is your marital status?
(1) Single (never married/living alone)
(2) Single (living with partner)
(3) Married
(4) Divorced/Separated
(5) Widowed
- 98) Do you have any children?
(1) Yes (2) No
- 99) For your household right now, including all that live there and share in the income, what is the total yearly income?
(1) Under \$5,000 (2) \$8,000 - 10,999 (3) \$11,000 - 13,999 (4) \$14,000 - 16,999 (5) \$17,000 - 19,999
(6) \$20,000 - 22,999 (7) \$23,000 - 25,999 (8) \$26,000 - 29,999 (9) \$30,000 - 34,999 (10) \$35,000 - 39,999
(11) \$40,000 - 44,999 (12) \$45,000 - 49,999 (13) \$50,000 - 59,999 (14) \$60,000 and over
- 100) Are you working full-time or part-time?
(1) Full Time (2) Part-time.
- 101) How long have you been a member of the UNION? _____
- 102) Are you planning on leaving the organization you work for in the immediate future?
(1) Yes (2) No (3) Unsure.
- 103) Which Local do you belong to: _____ (Please fill in)
- 104) Which Bargaining Unit do you belong to: _____ (Please fill in)

Appendix B

Cover letter

November 6, 1991

Dear Member:

Re: Survey

You have been randomly selected from our membership list that will assist the Union in determining the membership's feelings and opinions on some of our Union activity to date.

Consequently, the survey results will be utilized to assist us in analyzing our strategies for dealing with the employer. For this reason, it is important that you let us know how you feel about the Union's activities so that we will be better able to respond to the membership.

As in the case of past surveys, the survey questionnaire is designed so that the survey replies cannot be identified with any member. So please be assured that your identity and your involvement in the survey will be known only to you.

Please complete the questionnaire and forward to the Union Head Office in the envelope that is included. The envelope does not require postage. I would ask you to return the questionnaire prior to December 6, 1991. I look forward to your participation.

In solidarity,

President

Enclosures

Appendix C

**Samples of Male and Female Workers per
Bargaining Unit for Hospital 1**

	FEMALES	MALES	TOTAL
Clerical (CL) Local 12	28	4	32
Nursing Assistant (HSA) Local 12	21	23	44
Lab Technician (HSB) Local 12	9	4	13
Nurses (HSN) Local 12	53	8	61
Maintenance (MOS) Local 12	2	12	14
Counselors (PR) Local 12	7	4	11
Laundry/Service (SE) Local 12	48	17	65
Technical (TE) Local 12	7	3	10
TOTAL	175	75	250

Appendix D

Samples of Male and Female Workers Per
Bargaining Unit for Hospital 2

	FEMALES	MALES	TOTAL
Clerical (CL) Local 20	96	24	120
Nursing Assistant (HSA) Local 21	45	27	72
Lab Technician (HSB) Local 13	86	53	139
Nurses (HSN) Local 15	258	18	276
Maintenance (MOS) Local 19	2	32	34
Counselors (PR) Local 20	11	8	18
Laundry/Service (SE) Local 19	17	53	70
Technical (TE) Local 20	10	10	20
TOTAL	525	225	750