

**AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED
ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT FOR FAMILY FLEXIBILITY,
SUPERVISOR SUPPORT FOR FAMILY FLEXIBILITY, AND THE USE
OF FAMILY FRIENDLY BENEFITS**

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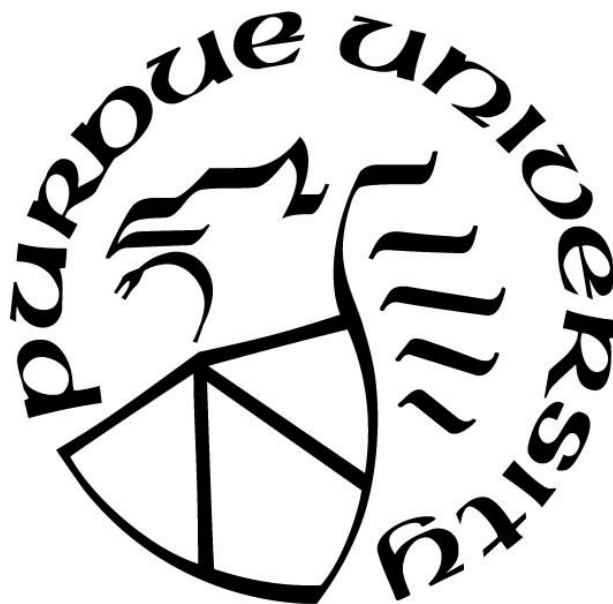
Ellen F. Smith

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**THE PURDUE UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL
STATEMENT OF COMMITTEE APPROVAL**

Dr. Margaret (Peggy) Stockdale, Chair

Department of Psychology

Dr. Evava Pietri

Department of Psychology

Dr. Jane Williams

Department of Psychology

Approved by:

Dr. Nicholas Grahame

Head of the Graduate Program

Dedicated to Pearle and Peter Smith...

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ABSTRACT

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Title: An Examination of the Relationship between Perceived Organizational Support for Family Flexibility, Supervisor Support for Family Flexibility, and the Use of Family Friendly Benefits

Major Professor: Margaret (Peggy) Stockdale

“Family-friendly” benefits and policies help employees manage competing work and family demands, and research has shown that these policies benefit both the employee and the organization (Saltzstein, Ting, & Saltzstein, 2001). However, researchers have noted that employees are not using these benefits for fear of being stigmatized (Williams et al., 2013). Thus, use of flexibility benefits entail an assessment of both its benefits and its risks.

The current study explores two possible configurations of the interplay between perceptions of organizational support for flexibility (FSOP) and supervisor support for flexibility on female employees’ requests to utilize FWAs. Drawing on signaling theory, this study examines whether FSOP mediates the relationship between supervisor support for family flexibility and benefit use. Additionally, supervisor support was hypothesized to moderate the relationship between FSOP and benefit use, such that positive supervisor support magnifies the positive impact of organizational support, whereas negative supervisor support suppresses the impact of organizational support on employees’ decisions to utilize FWAs. Furthermore, individual difference variables of supervisor/subordinate gender similarity, supervisor’s parental status, and supervisor’s own use of a flexible working arrangement were hypothesized to be positively related to perceptions of supervisor support for family flexibility.

These hypotheses were tested using a cross-sectional, cross-lagged design. Results from 630 men and women in a variety of organizations suggest that supervisor support plays a role in triggering flexible organizational support perceptions which in turn increase use of FWAs. Furthermore, supervisor's parental status was positively related to perceptions of supervisor support for family flexibility indicating that individual difference variables are important in relation to perceptions of support for family flexibility.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Employers today are offering a wide range of “family-friendly” benefits and policies such as telecommuting, job sharing, flextime, or parental leave options to help employees navigate the demands of work and family life (Saltzstein, Ting, & Saltzstein, 2001). Research has shown that these benefits reduces stress related to juggling competing responsibilities within the workplace and at home. However, there is also continued evidence that employees are not using these family friendly benefits for fear of being stigmatized (Williams, Blair-Loy, & Berdahl, 2013). These opposing effects of flexible work arrangements create a dilemma. Therefore, research is needed to understand under what conditions employees will experience the positive benefits and avoid the negative bias associated with flexible work arrangements. To date, a large number of studies have mainly focused on the availability of family-friendly benefits in relation to job-related outcomes such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction, while relatively few studies have examined the actual use of these benefits (Allen, 2001). The current study seeks to extend the existing literature by examining under what conditions individuals are more likely to use these family-friendly benefits.

Family-Friendly Benefits as a Response to the Changing Workforce

Over the past fifty years, both the composition of families and the workforce in the United States has changed considerably. The traditional family structure no longer includes the employed father and the stay-at home mother that was deeply rooted in American culture in previous decades (Weisberg & Galinsky, 2014). Weisberg and Galinsky (2014) noted that in 1963, approximately two thirds of U.S. families exhibited this traditional family structure. Today, only twenty percent of U.S. households are defined as traditional, with the other eighty

percent reflecting a variety of families such as single-parents, dual-income couples, childless couples, and same sex couples (Weisberg & Galinsky, 2014). The changing roles of both men and women within the home may be a potential cause of these demographic changes according to some researchers (Weisberg & Galinsky, 2014).

Surveys conducted over the past forty years (originally conducted by the National Science Foundation and since the 1990s by the Families and Work Institute) have suggested that women's participation in the labor force started to increase in the 1970s and has continued to increase since then (Weisberg & Galinsky, 2014). Due to their increased involvement in the workforce, women are also shouldering more of their family's financial burden. Research conducted by the Pew Research Center noted that "almost half of all households with children under the age of eighteen include mothers who are either the sole or primary source of income for their family" (Weisberg & Galinsky, 2014, p. 19.). Clearly, women's roles within the home has shifted considerably.

The role of men, and fathers in particular, has changed as well. In dual-income households with children, fathers spend more time taking care of their children than they did forty years ago (Weisberg & Galinsky, 2014). In addition, surveys indicate that men are also helping more with household responsibilities such as cooking and cleaning (Weisberg & Galinsky, 2014). However, despite these progressive changes women are still engaging in the majority of the work in most households (Weisberg & Galinsky, 2014).

These changes within the home are also reflected within the workforce. According to the Families and Work Institute, the makeup of the labor force has become increasingly more balanced with respect to gender, as well as becoming more racially and ethnically diverse (Weisberg & Galinsky, 2014). Employees are also experiencing new challenges when it comes

to family life. For example, research has found “17% of employees are providing care for a relative over the age of sixty-five” and this number is expected to increase over the next several decades (Weisberg & Galinsky, 2014, p. 23). Ultimately, these new challenges are placing employees under increased stress when it comes to balancing their competing roles at work and home (Saltzstein, Ting, & Saltzstein, 2001). Working women often face many challenges as they continue to be primary caretakers for their homes, children and/or elderly parents (Saltzstein et al., 2001). In addition, men in dual-career households often find themselves facing new stressors as they have assumed greater responsibility at home (Saltzstein et al., 2001).

In response to these changes within the home, as well as recognized stress on employees attributed to these demographic shifts, organizations have implemented “family-friendly benefits” and policies that address employees’ personal and family needs (Saltzstein, Ting, & Saltzstein, 2001). These policies often include options for employees such as flexible work hours, telecommuting (working from home), job sharing, compressed work weeks, and leaves of absence (Allen, 2001). Although many of these policies are aimed at helping individuals manage their work/family balance, some organizations have extended the use of flexible work arrangements to include professional development and community engagement opportunities (Williams et al., 2013).

Benefits of Family-Friendly Policies

Family-Friendly policies are aimed at alleviating some of the burden that employees face, but the implementation of these programs has several benefits not just for the employee, but for the organization as well (Butts, Casper, & Yang, 2012). Research has shown that more and more employees, specifically mothers, are looking for jobs with these “family-friendly” benefits (Weisberg & Galinsky, 2014). For the organization, these benefits allow the organization to

maintain a competitive position within the labor market, as well as attracting and retaining high quality employees (Allen, 2001). In addition, these policies also contribute to decreased turnover within the organization, as well as a boost in morale among employees (Allen, 2001). Further research has shown that employees that engage in these policies are more satisfied with their jobs and are more committed to the organization (Scandura & Lankau, 1997).

Although there are many advantages to the organization in employing these “family-friendly” benefits and policies, there are also several disadvantages. Among these disadvantages are the increased costs associated with offering these benefits, and difficulties with coordinating schedules and managing all employees on flexible work schedules (Scandura & Lankau, 1997). However, organizations have noted that the positive benefits of implementing these policies outweigh the costs (Scandura & Lankau, 1997). Ultimately, organizations are using these “family-friendly” policies as a means of attracting and retaining a diverse workforce, including women, for a variety of reasons but fundamentally because they perceive a business advantage to doing so.

Flexibility Bias and the Use of Flexible Work Arrangements

Although family-friendly programs and policies are well intentioned, research has shown that both women and men may be stigmatized for taking advantage of these options (Williams et al., 2013). The flexibility stigma bias refers to the concept that workers face discrimination from coworkers and employers when they choose to take part in a flexible work arrangement (Williams et al., 2013). Flexible work arrangements include telecommuting, flextime, sabbaticals, part-time work, compressed work weeks, and job-sharing. Additionally, research shows that some flexible work arrangements are more likely to create flexibility bias than others. Munsch, Ridgeway, and Williams (2014) noted that while there is a chance that both

telecommuting (i.e., working from home) and flextime arrangements will be met with discrimination, employees that take advantage of a telecommuting arrangement are more likely to experience flexibility bias than those using a flextime arrangement.

The flexibility stigma bias can have negative consequences for both employees and the organization as a whole. Research has shown that the flexibility stigma bias can actually lead to fewer promotions, lower performance evaluations, wage penalties, and even higher turnover rates (Williams et al., 2013). Furthermore, research has also shown that the consequences of the flexibility stigma bias differs by gender.

Men and women experience flexibility bias in different ways. Research has shown that men that choose to take part in flexible work arrangements due to caregiving responsibilities are often teased, put down, and excluded by their coworkers (Berdahl & Moon, 2013). This interpersonal discrimination is due in part to behavior that does not follow gender stereotypes upheld by society. Whereas the flexibility stigma bias for men is due to behavior that does not match traditional gender stereotypes, the flexibility bias for women is due to behavior that does play into these stereotypes (Williams et al., 2013). Requesting a flexible work arrangement makes women's caregiving role salient; thus, their status in the organization drops. Research has suggested that when women make their care-giving roles salient at work, they are triggering a "maternal wall bias." This "maternal wall bias" refers to the idea that mothers face distinct forms of bias that are triggered when a woman gets pregnant (Crosby, Williams, & Biernat, 2004). When women trigger the "maternal wall bias" by requesting flexible work arrangements, they often face negative consequences that are different than those encountered by men.

Whereas men experience the flexibility bias more in the form of interpersonal discrimination, women tend to experience flexibility bias in the form of formal discrimination.

Subtle formal discrimination is defined as a form of discrimination that is often unconscious in nature and has job related consequences often related to promotion and hiring decisions (Lindsey et al., 2015). Women that opt to take part in flexible work arrangements often experience subtle formal discrimination in the form of lower quality and less prestigious job assignments (Williams et al., 2013). In addition, studies have shown that these women are less likely to be promoted and are expected to perform at a much higher standard than women without children (Munsch, 2016).

Opposing Effects of Family-friendly Policies

These opposing positive and negative effects of flexible work arrangements creates a dilemma. On one hand, employees and their organizations should experience positive benefits from using flexible work arrangements; but on the other hand, people who use flexible work arrangements risk experiencing flexibility bias. Therefore, research is needed to understand under what conditions employees will experience the positive benefits and avoid the negative bias associated with flexible work arrangements. To date, a large number of studies have mainly focused on the availability of family-friendly benefits in relation to job-related outcomes, while relatively few studies have examined the actual use of these benefits (Allen, 2001). As a result, further research is needed to examine possible predictors of the use of family friendly benefits.

Organizational Support for Family Flexibility as a Predictor of Benefit Use

In order to combat the flexibility stigma bias in the use of flexible work arrangements, researchers have suggested the importance of work-family organizational culture, and perceived organizational support for family flexibility. Broadly defined, work-family culture is a “set of shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports

and values the integration of an employee's work and family life" (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999, p. 394). Work-family culture can manifest in a number of different ways throughout the organization. For example, work-family culture can be manifested through organizational policies that offer the use of family-friendly benefits, leadership behaviors that promote work life balance, or internally distributed communications that encourage family flexibility. Thompson et al. (1999, p. 394) note that "just as other aspects of an organization's culture, such as organizational values, have been shown to influence employee attitudes and behavior (e.g., Trice & Beyer, 1993), employees' perceptions about their organization's attitudes toward family flexibility would be expected to influence their decisions about whether to use work-family benefits."

Researchers suggest that work-family culture consists of multiple parts. The first component refers to organizational norms that employees prioritize their work life above their family life (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). For example, norms about how many hours employees should work in a given week, and norms about how employees are supposed to use their time are both important parts of organizational culture that have the potential to influence how employees behave in the workplace (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). These norms are often rooted in the work-devotion schema, which is based in the Protestant Work ethic, and suggests that employees should be devoted to work and should dedicate themselves to working long hours (Williams, Blair-Loy, & Berdahl, 2013).

Another aspect of work-family culture is related to institutional discrimination and career consequences that employees may face when using work-family benefits or prioritizing their family over their work (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Research has demonstrated that managerial advancement is positively related to working longer hours (Judge, Cable, Boudreau,

& Bretz, 1995), and taking a leave of absence in order to deal with issues at home leads to a subsequent decrease in performance ratings and number of promotions (Lyness & Judiesch, 2001). Work–family policies and programs may promote different ways of working, but there may be negative consequences for employees who take advantage of these programs if the organization’s culture still honors the traditional way of working (Perlow, 1995).

Managerial support of employee’s competing work and family responsibilities is another critical aspect of work-family culture (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Supervisors are key to ensuring the success of work–family policies and programs because they may be supportive of work family balance or they may support cultural norms that work should come before family and thus discourage employees from taking advantage of these benefits (Perlow, 1995; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Thus, there are at least three components that are critical for establishing a work-family culture within an organization.

However, Allen (2001, p.416) posited that “in addition to family supportive policies and family-supportive supervisors, it is critical to examine the global perceptions that employees form regarding the extent the organization is family-supportive”. Employee’s perceptions of support are important to examine because it is the employee’s perception of their organization’s climate, rather than the climate itself that influences employee’s attitudes and behaviors (James, Hater, Gent, & Bruni, 1978; James & Jones, 1974; James & McIntyre, 1996). Furthermore, employee’s perceptions of their organization may be unique from their perception that their supervisor is family supportiveness. Thus, Allen (2001, p. 416) defined family-supportive organizational perceptions (FSOP) as the “global perception that an organization as a whole is family supportive”.

Allen (2001) notes that flexible work does not necessarily create a more inclusive and supportive organizational culture, and as such employees who desire to use flexible policies risk being stigmatized. Lobel and Kossek (1996) posit that simply offering these policies does nothing to deal with employee concerns if they are not also met with a change in organizational norms and values surrounding the balance between an employee's work and personal lives. In support of this argument, research has revealed that employees' perceptions of organizational support for family demands are positively related to the use of flexible work arrangements (Allen, 2001).

Supervisor Support for Family Flexibility

Although research has examined broad organizational factors in relation to the use of flexible work arrangements, far less research has been conducted on managerial/ supervisor support for the use of flexible work arrangements (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Whereas organizational support for family-flexibility corresponds to the global perception of the family-supportiveness of an organization, supervisor support for family-flexibility corresponds to the degree to which supervisors themselves are supportive of employee's needs to balance their work and family demands (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Supervisor support for family flexibility is typically classified into two types: instrumental or emotional. Instrumental support refers to tangible support that is provided such as help with childcare/housekeeping, or financial help; whereas, emotional support refers to emotional support such as the offering of empathy, concern, trust, or encouragement (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999).

A recent meta-analysis noted that the average weighted correlation between family supportive organizational perceptions (FSOP) and work-family supervisor support is 0.32, ($p < .05$), suggesting that even though there is some overlap between the two constructs, they are

still distinguishable from one another (Kossek et al., 2011). It is important to make the distinction between organizational support for family flexibility and supervisor support for family flexibility because even in organizations that value a balance between work and family life, supervisors can still communicate to their subordinates that prioritizing family over work will have negative outcomes for both the employee and the organization (Rapoport & Bailyn, 1996). The finding that organizational support is correlated with the use of family friendly benefits may be rendered useless if the supervisor is not supportive of these policies, due to the fact that the employee's supervisor is typically the one that approves requests for flexible work arrangements and sets the tone for the employee's perceptions of the organizational climate for family flexibility.

Additionally, research suggests that both organizational support for family flexibility and supervisor support for family flexibility are important in predicting the use of flexible work arrangements (Allen, 2001). For example, supervisor support for family flexibility may predict the use of flexible work arrangements above and beyond organizational support for family flexibility. Employees who feel that their organization supports work/family balance and flexibility may be more likely to use a flexible work arrangement than those who do not perceive their organizations to be supportive. However, when employees also perceive their supervisors to be supportive of family flexibility, they will be even more likely to adopt the use of a flexible work arrangement.

Moreover, the relationship between supervisor support for family flexibility and benefit use may be explained by family supportive organizational perceptions. Signaling theory serves as a theoretical framework that may help to explain this relationship. Signaling theory indicates that employees make sense of their work environment by interpreting the signals they get from

their more immediate surroundings, e.g., their supervisors (Casper & Harris, 2008). If an employee perceives their supervisor as being supportive of family flexibility, they may also interpret their supervisor's support to mean that the organization is also supportive of family flexibility (Kossek et al., 2011). Employees that perceive high supervisor support for family flexibility would also perceive high organizational support for family flexibility and be more likely to use flexible work arrangements. Hence, family supportive organizational perceptions may serve as a mediator between supervisor support for family flexibility and benefit use.

Furthermore, supervisors typically are the ones to grant the use of flexible work arrangements and interact with their subordinates on a regular basis, more so than the top management. As such, supervisors directly influence employee's perceptions of overall organizational support for family flexibility. Supervisors may be inclined to form their own opinions about family flexibility regardless of whether their organization is supportive of family flexibility.

Agency theory may help to explain why some supervisors may not act in accordance with their organization. Well-known in the management literature, agency theory argues that in modern organizations supervisors act as agents of their employer and are tasked with carrying out the employer's wishes/demands (Bosse & Phillips, 2016). However, agency theory acknowledges that the goals of managers/supervisors are often not the same as the goals of the top management. Agency theory assumes "that employees are rational self-interested individuals" and "predicts that employees will be motivated to pursue their own interests, which may lead to deviant behavior when personal interests conflict with organizational interests" (Bosse & Phillips, 2016). Therefore, if the employer (organization) states that they hold family-supportive values, supervisors may or may not act in line with the organization's values. For

example, while their employer may promote the use of flexible working arrangements, the manager/supervisor may feel that allowing their subordinates to take part in a flexible working arrangement may interrupt productivity, which may in turn may affect the manager's own performance evaluations. Therefore, the manager/supervisor may not be supportive of family flexibility. Given this relationship, one might expect the relationship between perceived organizational support for family flexibility and use of flexible work arrangements to be lower when perceived supervisor support for family flexibility is low, and for the relationship to be strengthened when perceived supervisor support for family flexibility is high. Given the perceived importance of supervisor support for family flexibility in relation to benefit use, we offer three somewhat competing hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Perceived supervisor support adds incremental variance to the prediction of benefit use above the influence of family-supportive organizational perceptions.

Hypothesis 2: Family supportive organizational perceptions mediates the relationship between supervisor support for family flexibility and benefit use (Figure 1).

Hypothesis 3: Perceived supervisor support for family flexibility will moderate the relationship between family-supportive organizational perceptions (FSOP) and benefit use (Figure 2). As shown in Figure 3, the expected pattern is such that when perceived supervisor support is low, the relationship between organizational support and benefit use is weakened in comparison to conditions when perceived supervisor support is high.

Individual Differences and Supervisor Support for Family Flexibility

Research shows that supervisor individual differences may be at play when requesting the use of flexible work arrangements (Lambert, Marler, & Gueutal, 2008). For example, some supervisors may be supportive of family flexibility regardless of whether the organization as a

whole is supportive of family flexibility. Supervisor individual differences may explain why some supervisors are supportive of flexible work arrangement, whereas others are not.

Researchers use both relational demography and the similarity-attraction paradigm to explain some of these individual differences (Foley et al., 2006). Relational demography and the similarity-attraction paradigm suggest that the more similar an individual is demographically to a social unit, the more positive his or her workplace attitudes will be (Riordan, 2000). Research on supervisor-subordinate relationships suggest that relational demography and the similarity attraction-paradigm play an important part in determining supervisor support for family flexibility.

Research conducted by Foley, Linnehan, Greenhaus, and Weer (2006) supported the idea that supervisors are more likely to grant the use of flexible working arrangements to subordinates who are demographically similar to themselves. For example, supervisors who are the same gender as their subordinate may be more likely to support the use of flexible work arrangements because they feel a level of trust and similarity with their subordinate (Foley et al., 2006). When looking at the use of flexible work arrangements, individuals who are more similar to their subordinates may sympathize with their subordinates' work and family demands and may be more likely to grant the use of flexible work arrangements due to this similarity and attraction effect.

Whereas research has established that supervisors are more likely to provide support for family flexibility to subordinates who are similar in gender and similar in parental status (Basuil, Manegold, & Casper, 2016), research has failed to consider supervisor's own use of flexible work arrangements as a possible individual difference variable. For example, whether supervisors themselves have taken a flexible work arrangement may be another predictor of

whether the supervisor is supportive of family flexibility. Supervisors who have taken a flexible work arrangement themselves may be more likely to support family flexibility and the use of flexible work arrangements because they identify with their subordinates based upon this similarity. Given this gap in the literature, we argue that whether supervisors themselves have used a flexible work arrangement may be an important predictor of whether supervisors are supportive of family flexibility.

Hypothesis 4: Individual difference variables of supervisor/subordinate gender similarity, supervisor parental status, and whether supervisors themselves have used a flexible work arrangement, will be positively related to supervisor support for family flexibility.

In summation, the purpose of this study is to investigate under what conditions support for family flexibility leads to a greater use of family friendly benefits. Our findings may corroborate existing research that emphasizes the importance of family supportive organizational perceptions and supervisor support for family flexibility in relation to the use of family friendly benefits (Allen, 2001). However, this study also seeks to add to the existing literature by acknowledging the importance of both supervisor support for family flexibility, and organizational support for family flexibility, in relation to the use of family friendly benefits. Additionally, although research has noted the importance of supervisor support and organizational support for family flexibility in the use of family friendly benefits, this study will be among the first to empirically examine the relationship between organizational support for family flexibility, supervisor support for family flexibility, and the actual use of these benefits.

The results of this study carry important implications for employers. If our hypotheses are supported, it would suggest that in order for organizations to capitalize on the positive benefits associated with family-friendly policies, such as lower turnover and burnout rates, it is not

enough for organizations to just have these policies in place. The organization, and more importantly the supervisors, needs to be supportive of family flexibility in order for employees to use these policies.

CHAPTER 2: METHOD

Participants

Participants were recruited using a specialized panel from the online survey platform, TurkPrime. TurkPrime is a crowdsourcing, data acquisition platform that recruits participants from various online survey platforms (including but not limited to MTurk) to reach populations with particular characteristics. Participants were asked to complete the study at time 1, and then again four weeks after completion of the initial study at time 2. Because this study focused on support for family flexibility and the use of flexible working arrangements, only participants who were employed at least part-time for an organization, reported to a supervisor, worked for an organization that offered at least one flexible working arrangement, and had children and/or eldercare responsibilities were eligible to participate in the study.

Two methods were used to ensure that participants responded accurately and honestly to the questions. First, at the beginning of the study, participants were asked to respond to the inclusion criteria listed above (e.g. employment status, parental status, etc.) to confirm eligibility. Second, each participant's responses were reviewed for careless response patterns, such as selecting the same value for each item. Participants who did not meet the inclusion criteria or who appeared to have responded carelessly (80% of the time) were excluded from analysis. Twenty participants were excluded, leaving a sample size of 630 participants who completed the survey at Time 1, 286 participants that completed the survey at Time 2, and 241 participants that completed the survey at both time 1 and time 2. T-tests were conducted to compare the two samples on the demographic variables. The results of these t-tests indicated that there was not a

significant difference on sample characteristics between the Time 1 and Time 2 datasets (all p values $>.05$).

More than half of the participants were female (63%), with the remaining 37% participants being male. Most participants were White (75%), followed by Hispanic (12.7%), and Black/African American (11.8%). Participants ranged in age from 23 to 60 years, with an average age of 44.8 years. Additionally, participants were divided amongst working for small (30.7%), mid-size (41.1%) and large organizations (28.2%), with the largest percentage working for an organization that employed between 100 and 2500 employees.

Procedure

Participants were recruited from various online survey platforms (Survey Monkey, Mturk etc.) and asked to participate in a two-part study on support for family flexibility. Before participating in the study, participants were given a short study information sheet that outlined the study's purpose, procedure, risks/benefits, confidentiality, payment and contact information for the study administrators. The online survey contained measures of FSOP, Perceived supervisor support for family flexibility, as well as demographic questions. The FSOP and Supervisor Support measures were randomized, with the demographic questions always occurring at the end of the survey. The survey was identical between time 1 and time 2 and took approximately 15 minutes to complete. Four weeks after completion of the first wave of the survey, participants were contacted by TurkPrime and asked to take part in the second wave of the study.

Measures

The following scales are measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (7) "strongly agree."

Family-Supportive Organizational Perceptions

Allen's (2001) Family-Supportive Organizational Perception (FSOP) scale was used to measure family-supportive organizational perceptions among participants. The coefficient α for Allen's (2001) 14 FSOP item scale in this study was .90. Participants were asked to rate the extent to which each statement best reflected their beliefs of their organization as a whole. Sample items included, "Work should be the primary priority in a person's life" (reverse coded) and "Offering employees flexibility in completing their work is viewed as a strategic way of doing business."

Perceived Supervisor Support

A total of seven items were chosen to measure direct supervisor support for family flexibility. Four of these items were modified from Thomas and Ganster's (1995) Supervisor Support Scale, and three were taken from Clark's (2001) Supportive Supervision measure. The coefficient alpha for a combination of items from these scales was .705. Sample items include, "My supervisor acknowledges that I have obligations as a family member" and "My supervisor would juggle tasks or duties to accommodate my family responsibilities." Items are intended to take both emotional and instrumental support into account. Items were chosen from these scales to gain a more comprehensive view of supervisor support, rather than taking into account just emotional or instrumental support.

Use of Family-Friendly Policies

In line with Allen (2001), family-friendly benefit use was measured by providing participants with a list of five work-family policies: part-time schedules, telecommuting, reduced work hours, compressed work weeks, and flexible hours. Participants were instructed to identify the policies that are offered at their organization by checking the options available to them and will then be asked whether they have used any of these policies within the last two years.

Control Variables

Previous research on the use of flexible work arrangements has found that several demographic variables are related to the increased use of flexible work arrangements. Researchers have noted that married employees and employees with children are more likely to use flexible work arrangements than unmarried employees and employees without children due to their increased demands outside of work (Smith & Gardner, 2007). However, single parenthood could also be argued to be positively related to increased use of flexible work arrangements, as single parents also have increased work/family demands.

Furthermore, organizational tenure is also thought to influence whether employees choose to take a flexible work arrangement. In support of this argument, Smith and Gardner (2007) found that employee's organizational tenure, marital status, and number of children were in fact positively related to the use of flexible work arrangements. Given the link between these demographic variables and the use of flexible work arrangements, control variables of organizational tenure, marital status, and number of children were included in our analyses.

Statistical Analysis

The current study is both a cross-sectional design and a cross-lagged longitudinal design. All hypotheses were tested using all data from Time 1 and Time 2 as a cross-sectional design. Additionally, all hypotheses were tested in a cross-lagged design using the reduced data set consisting of participants who only responded to both survey time periods. In order to test the hypothesis that supervisor support for family flexibility adds incremental variance to the use of flexible work arrangements above and beyond organizational support for family flexibility, a multiple regression analysis was conducted. Control variables of number of children, marital status, organizational size, and tenure were included in the regression analyses.

To determine if family supportive organizational perceptions (FSOP) mediated the relationship between supervisor support for family flexibility and benefit use, we ran three mediation analyses utilizing Hayes' (2014) PROCESS model 4 with 10,000 bootstrap samples. PROCESS is a set of syntax created for use with the statistical program, SPSS, which allows for bootstrapping algorithms to estimate the indirect paths in a mediation statistical model. Using ordinary least squares regression, PROCESS estimates the a, b, and c' path coefficients and the direct, indirect, and total effects of the model. Additionally, the use of PROCESS model 4 allows for the use of bootstrapping confidence intervals. Bootstrapping samples are used to "generate an empirically derived representation of the sampling distribution of the indirect effect, which is then used for the construction of a confidence interval for ab " (Hayes, 2014, p. 98). Unlike the normal theory approach, bootstrapping does not assume that the shape of the sampling distribution of ab is normal, and as a result is able to produce inferences that are more accurate (Hayes, 2014).

Using Model 4, the model used to test for simple mediation in PROCESS, we ran three separate analyses in order to examine the relationship between FSOP, supervisor support for family flexibility, and benefit use concurrently at both time 1 and time 2, as well as longitudinally. Our first mediation analysis tested hypothesis 2 using data from only time 1, and the second mediation analysis tested hypothesis 2 using data from only time 2. Our third mediation analysis tested hypothesis 2 using supervisor support measured at time 1, and FSOP and benefit use measured at time 2, while controlling for benefit use at time 1.

To determine if perceived supervisor support for family flexibility moderates the relationship between family supportive organizational perceptions and use of flexible work arrangements, we conducted a series of moderation analyses using hierarchical multiple regression. Our first moderation analysis tested hypothesis 3 using data from only time 1, and the second moderation analysis tested hypothesis 3 using data from only time 2. Our third moderation analysis tested hypothesis 3 using FSOP measured at time 1, and supervisor support and benefit use measured at time 2, while controlling for benefit use at time 1. For analyses testing hypothesis 3 using only data at time 1 or time 2, supervisor support for family flexibility and FSOP were entered in Step 1, followed by the interaction term in Step 2. When testing this hypothesis using the longitudinal data, benefit use at time 1 was entered into Step 1, followed by supervisor support for family flexibility and FSOP in Step 2, and the interaction term in Step 3. Variables were mean centered to make them more interpretable. Analyses were originally conducted using the aforementioned control variables of tenure, marital status and number of children. However, none of the control variables were found to significantly impact the outcome variables, therefore results are reported without the inclusion of the control variables.

Lastly, in order to test whether individual difference variables of supervisor parental status, supervisor/subordinate gender similarity, and supervisor's own use of a flexible work arrangement predict supervisor support for family flexibility, a multiple regression analysis was conducted in SPSS. Independent variables of supervisor parental status, supervisor/subordinate gender similarity, and supervisor's own use of flexible work arrangements were regressed onto the dependent variable of supervisor support for family flexibility. Main effects of employee gender and supervisor gender were also tested. An alpha level of .05 was used for all hypothesis tests.

CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

First, the inter-correlations among variables were examined. Table 1 provides a summary of means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations among study variables. Supervisor support, FSOP, and benefit use were all positively correlated with one another. Additionally, organizational tenure was negatively related to supervisor support for family flexibility, FSOP, and benefit use. Additionally, chi-square and t-tests were conducted to determine whether the longitudinal sample was significantly different from the Time 1 sample in terms of sample characteristics. Results indicated that the longitudinal sample was not significantly different from the Time 1 sample (all p values $>.05$).

Test of Hypotheses

Supervisor Support Incrementally Predicting Benefit Use

Hypothesis 1 predicted that supervisor support for family flexibility adds incremental variance to the prediction of benefit use above the influence of family-supportive organizational perceptions. We found partial support for this hypothesis. Using data from only Time 1, when FSOP was entered into the regression model in Step 1, the effect was significant, $B=.036$, $t(628) = 3.69$, $p < .001$. However, when supervisor support was added to the model in Step 2, the effect was no longer significant, $B=.01$, $t(627) = .54$, $p > .05$ (see Table 2). When analyzing this hypothesis using the longitudinal dataset, this hypothesis was also not supported (see Table 4). Thus, indicating that supervisor support for family flexibility does not add incremental variance to the prediction of benefit use above the influence of family-supportive organizational perceptions.

However, when running the regression equation using data from only Time 2, we found that supervisor support for family flexibility did in fact provide incremental variance to the prediction of benefit use above and beyond FSOP (Table 3). When FSOP was entered into the regression model in Step 1, the effect was significant, $B=.04$, $t=2.23$, $p<.05$. Furthermore, when supervisor support was added to the model in Step 2, the effect was still significant with an R -squared change of .02. These results indicate that supervisor support for family flexibility may in fact add incremental variance to the prediction of benefit use above the influence of family-supportive organizational perceptions.

FSOP as a Mediator

Hypothesis 2 predicted that FSOP would mediate the relationship between supervisor support for family flexibility and benefit use. This hypothesis was supported, but only when using data from Time 1. Results testing this hypothesis using data from Time 1 can be found in Figure 4. FSOP at time 1 was indeed found to mediate the indirect relationship between supervisor support at time 1 and benefit use at time 1 ($B=.03$, $p<.01$, 95% CI=.01, .06), where B indicates the indirect effect of supervisor support on benefit use through FSOP. However, when analyzing this hypothesis using data from only time 2 ($B=.01$, $p>.05$, 95% CI=-.02, .04) as well as longitudinally ($B=.02$, $p>.05$, 95% CI=-.01, .06), FSOP did not mediate the indirect relationship between supervisor support and benefit use. A summary of the results from the mediation analyses using data from only Time 2 can be found in Table 6, and a summary of the results using the longitudinal data can be found in Table 7.

Interaction between FSOP and Supervisor Support

Hypothesis 3 aimed to test whether supervisor support for family flexibility would moderate the relationship between FSOP and benefit use. This hypothesis was not supported. The interaction between supervisor support for family flexibility and FSOP was not significant using data from both Time 1 (Table 8), Time 2 (Table 9), and longitudinally (Table 10).

Supervisor Individual Differences as a Predictor of Benefit Use

Hypothesis 4 predicted that supervisor/subordinate gender similarity, supervisor's parental status, and supervisor's own use of a flexible working arrangement, would be significantly related to supervisor support for family flexibility. We found partial support for this hypothesis (see Tables 11 and 12). Only supervisor's parental status ($B = .38, t(4.38), p < .001$) significantly predicted subordinate's perceptions of supervisor support for family flexibility. Both supervisor/subordinate gender similarity ($B = -.10, t(-1.34), p = .18$), and supervisor's previous use of a flexible working arrangement ($B = .12, t(1.08), p = .28$) failed to significantly predict perceptions of supervisor support for family flexibility.

CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate under what conditions support for family flexibility leads to a greater use of family friendly benefits. Furthermore, this study also sought to add to the existing literature by acknowledging the importance of both supervisor support for family flexibility, and organizational support for family flexibility, in relation to the use of family friendly benefits. Additionally, we wanted to extend qualitative research by Stone and Hernandez (2014) to empirically examine the relationship between these three variables.

Perceived organizational support for family flexibility (FSOP; Allen, 2001) and perceived supervisor support for family flexibility (Clark, 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995) were examined in relation to the use of family friendly benefits among participants across two time points. As predicted, the results of this study support previous research that both organizational support for family flexibility, and supervisor support for family flexibility are positively related to employee's use of family friendly benefits. However, while the correlations between these variables are indeed significant, the correlations are relatively small, thus suggesting that there may be other variables that are associated with employee's willingness to take part in a flexible working arrangement.

Furthermore, this study revealed that support for family flexibility at both the organizational and managerial levels is positively related to employee's use of family friendly benefits. Additionally, we found that family supportive organizational perceptions mediates the relationship between supervisor support and benefit use, but only at Time 1. This finding that perceived organizational support for family flexibility mediates the relationship between perceived supervisor support for family flexibility and benefit use suggests that employees' perceptions of organizational support for family flexibility is largely signaled through their

supervisors' supportiveness of family flexibility, which in turn affects benefit use. Furthermore, if an employee perceives their supervisor as being supportive of family flexibility, they may also interpret their supervisor's support to mean that the organization is also supportive of family flexibility. This finding suggests that employees that perceive high supervisor support for family flexibility may also perceive high organizational support for family flexibility and may be more likely to use flexible work arrangements.

There is a possibility that the perceptions of support for family flexibility may be reversed, such that the perceptions of FSOP drive perceptions of supervisor support, which in turn impact benefit use. However, when we explored this relationship and ran a reverse-causal relationship, we found that supervisor support for family flexibility did not mediate associations between FSOP and benefit use ($B=.0143$, $p>.05$, 95% CI= $-.06, .08$), where B indicates the indirect effect of FSOP on benefit use through supervisor support. Also, when examining the cross-lagged correlations, the correlation between supervisor support at Time 1 and FSOP and time 2 was $r=.53$; whereas, the correlation between FSOP Time 1 and supervisor support at Time 2= $.44$, thus suggesting that changes in supervisor support are more likely to lead to changes in FSOP more so than the other way around.

Additionally, our results partially supported the idea that supervisor individual differences may be related to subordinates' perceptions of supervisor support for family flexibility. Supervisors that had children themselves were more likely to be perceived as supportive of family flexibility by their subordinates. However, both the gender similarity of supervisors and subordinates, and whether the supervisor had previously used an FWA was not significantly related to perceptions of supervisor support.

Our results failed to support our hypothesis that supervisor support for family flexibility would predict benefit use above and beyond FSOP. Furthermore, results also failed to support the hypothesized interaction between supervisor support and FSOP. This is contrary to findings by Smith and Stockdale (2018) that FSOP and Supervisor support significantly interacted to predict the use of flexible working arrangements among women recruited from a nonprofit leadership organization database. Our finding that FSOP and supervisor support did not significantly interact to predict benefit use suggest that supervisor support for family flexibility and organizational support for family flexibility suggest that employees may feel comfortable asking for and using a flexible working arrangement when either source of support is strong and may be unable to distinguish between FSOP and supervisor support for family flexibility.

One possible explanation for these null findings is the construct overlap between FSOP and supervisor support found in our sample. Previous research has suggested that while FSOP and supervisor support are moderately correlated ($r=.32$), they are ultimately unique constructs (Kossek et al., 2011). However, in our sample we found that the correlation between FSOP and supervisor support was .58 at Time 1 and .56 at Time 2, suggesting that there is considerable overlap between the two constructs.

Implications

Overall, our findings were relatively mixed. We found partial support for our hypothesis that supervisor support would predict benefit use above and beyond FSOP. Additionally, we also found partial support for our hypothesis that FSOP would mediate the relationship between supervisor support and benefit use. However, we did not find any support for our hypothesis that supervisor support would moderate the relationship between supervisor support for family flexibility and benefit use. Given the lack of strong support for our hypotheses and the construct

overlap FSOP and supervisor support in our sample, we advise any conclusions drawn from this study be taken with caution. In order to fully understand the relationship between measures of support for family flexibility and benefit use, we call for more research in this area.

However, despite partial support for our hypotheses, our findings do carry implications for employers. Our findings suggest that in order for organizations to capitalize on the positive benefits associated with family-friendly policies, such as lower turnover and burnout rates, it is not enough for organizations to just have these policies in place. Both the organization and the supervisors, need to be supportive of family flexibility in order for employees to take advantage of these policies. Given the importance of supervisor support in triggering flexible organizational support perceptions, which, in turn, increases use of FWAs, we call on organizational leaders to monitor and enhance supervisors' support for these policies. Ultimately, when employees feel supported by their supervisors and their organizations, they will be more likely to use flexible work arrangements without fear of stigmatization. Thus, organizations should seek to encourage support for family flexibility at all levels of the organization.

Limitations and Future Directions

Our study has a few limitations that should be acknowledged when interpreting these results. First, our sample was recruited using the survey platform, TurkPrime. Although our data was cleaned for careless responses, there is a possibility that participants were responding in a careless manner due to a lack of attention. Second, we used single-source data, rather than data obtained from multiple employees in each organization. Thus, there is a possibility that participant's perceptions of the organizational climate and support for family flexibility were subjective and not representative of the true nature of the organization.

Furthermore, organizational culture was not measured in this study. There may be organizational idiosyncrasies such as organizational culture that are masking or confounding the ability to find mediating and moderating relationships between supervisor support for family flexibility, FSOP, and benefit use. For example, whether the organizational culture is growth oriented and flexible, or traditional and rigid, may play a role in shaping perceptions of supervisor and organizational support for family flexibility (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991). Organizations that have a flexible, growth oriented culture may be perceived as more supportive of family flexibility than organizations that are more traditional. Thus, organizational context may be influencing the relationship between supervisor support, FSOP, and benefit use.

Additionally, we had a small follow up sample in wave 2 due to a large attrition rate between wave 1 and wave 2, which may have contributed to the sample being underpowered when analyzing the data longitudinally. This attrition rate may be due to the timing of the survey and the fact that the survey was administered during the winter holidays. Furthermore, although there was a four-week time lag between waves of the study, this may not have been sufficient time to isolate causality.

Another potential limitation of this study is that parental leave was chosen not to be included in the list of family friendly benefits for this study due to a wide variation in parental leave policies among organizations, particularly among large and small organizations. Parental leave may be a particularly impactful work/family benefit and may be subject to the flexibility stigma more so than other policies, particularly among men. When employees (particularly men) choose to take an extended parental leave after the birth/adoption of a child they may be viewed in a negative light. In turn, this is another area that supervisor support for family flexibility may play a role.

Given the limitations of this study, future research should aim to replicate this study using multi-source data with a more robust sample group. Furthermore, due to the documented importance of supervisor support for family flexibility in relation to benefit use, we call for future research on potential interventions for increasing supervisor support for family friendly benefits. It is also important for future research to examine both how and why organizations, as well as supervisors, foster perceptions of support for family flexibility. Answers to these questions may help us determine organizational strategies for increasing perceptions of support for family friendly benefits at both the organizational and managerial levels.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study sought to provide a new approach to looking at the relationship between support for family flexibility and benefit use by exploring the influence of both organizational support for family flexibility and supervisor support for family flexibility in relation to employee's use of family friendly benefits. Overall, the findings of this study are consistent with previous research that has shown a positive relationship between support for family flexibility and employee's willingness to take advantage of family-friendly benefits (Allen, 2001; Kossek et al., 2011; Lobel & Kossek, 1996). Additionally, this study revealed that employee's perceptions of their organization as being family supportive appears to serve as a mediator between employee's perceptions of supervisor support for family flexibility and benefit use. This finding supports the idea that supervisor support for family flexibility signals to the employee that the organization is supportive of family flexibility, which in turn affects employee's willingness to take part in FWAs. Furthermore, our results indicated that supervisor's that had children were perceived to be more supportive of family friendly benefits. This study implies that organizational support for family flexibility at both the managerial and

organizational levels is important for combating the flexibility bias and increasing employee's likelihood of using family friendly benefits.

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TABLES

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Study Variables

Variable	M (SD)	Inter-Correlations												
		A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	
A. FSOP Time 1	4.60(1.11)													
B. FSOP Time 2	4.55(1.15)	.73**												
C. Supervisor Support Time 1	5.41(0.76)	.58**	.53**											
D. Supervisor Support Time 2	5.37(0.85)	.44**	.56**	.66**										
E. Benefit Use Time 1	0.35 (0.32)	.20**	.15*	.23**	.18**									
F. Benefit Use Time 2	0.25 (0.31)	.14*	.16*	.16*	.20**	.30**								
G. Organizational Tenure	8.79 (9.03)	-.23**	-.15*	-.06	-.01	-.10	.02							
H. Parental Status (parent)	0.97 (0.17)	.07	.03	.02	.02	.06	-.00	.01						
I. Supervisor's use of FWA (used)	0.87(0.34)	.12**	.08	.10*	.07	.13**	-.01	.00	-.01					
J. Supervisor's parental status(parent)	0.81(0.40)	.07	.08	.18**	.13*	.07	.06	.01	.01	-.04				
K. Supervisor/ subordinate gender similarity	0.66(0.47)	-.00	-.04	-.02	-.00	.01	.06	.01	-.04	.04	.01			
L. Participant Gender (female)	0.63(0.50)	.07	-.10	-.00	-.01	.00	-.10	-.13**	-.00	-.03	.05	-.11**		
M. Supervisor Gender (female)	0.50(0.52)	.04	-.04	-.02	.04	-.07	-.04	-.04	.42	-.06	-.00	.24**	.33**	

Table 2. Regression summary for Hypothesis 1 using data from only Time 1

	ΔR^2	F	p	<i>B</i> (SE)	t	p	95% CI
Step 1	.02	13.63	<.001				
FSOP Time 1				.04(.01)	3.69	<.001	.02, .06
Step 2	.00	0.29	.589				
FSOP Time 1				.03(.01)	2.75	<.001	.01, .06
Supervisor Support Time 1				.01(.02)	0.54	.589	-.02, .04

Table 3. Regression summary for Hypothesis 1 using data from only Time 2

	ΔR^2	F change	p	<i>B</i> (SE)	t	p	95% CI
Step 1	.02	4.98	.026				
FSOP Time 2				.04(.02)	2.23	.026	.00, .07
Step 2	.02	5.71	.018				
FSOP Time 2				.01(.02)	0.61	.544	-.03, .05
Supervisor Support Time 2				.06(.03)	2.39	.018	.01, .12

Table 4. Regression summary for Hypothesis 1 using longitudinal data

	ΔR^2	F change	p	<i>B</i> (SE)	t	p	95% CI
Step 1	.05	14.67	<.000				
Benefit Use Time 1				.22(.06)	3.83	<.000	.12, .34
Step 2	.00	0.64	.425				
Benefit Use Time 1				.21(.06)	3.63	.000	.10, .33
FSOP Time 1				.01(.02)	0.80	.425	-.02, .05
Step 3	.00	1.18	.279				
Benefit Use Time 1				.21(.06)	3.52	.000	.09, .32
FSOP Time 1				.00(.02)	0.05	.962	-.04, .04
Supervisor Support Time 1				.03(.03)	1.09	.279	-.03, .09

Table 5. Mediating effect of FSOP on Benefit Use using Time 1 data

Outcome Variable	Predictor	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI
A. Benefit Use, Direct Effect	FSOP	.03	.01	.006	
	Supervisor Support	.01	.02	.589	
B. FSOP					
	Supervisor Support	.78	.05	<.001	
C. Benefit Use, Indirect Effects					
	FSOP	.03	.01		.01, .04

Table 6. Mediating effect of FSOP on Benefit Use using Time 2 data

Outcome Variable	Predictor	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI
A. Benefit Use, Direct Effect	FSOP	.01	.02	.544	
	Supervisor Support	.06	.03	.018	
B. FSOP					
	Supervisor Support	.73	.01	<.001	
C. Benefit Use, Indirect Effects					
	FSOP	.01	.02		-.02, .04

Table 7. Mediating effect of FSOP on Benefit Use using longitudinal data

Outcome Variable	Predictor	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI
A. Benefit Use Time 2, Direct Effect					
	FSOP Time 2	.03	.02	.545	
	Supervisor Support Time 1	.02	.03	.218	
		.29	.07	<.001	
	Benefit Use Time 1				
B. FSOP Time 2					
	Supervisor Support Time 1	.75	.09	<.001	
		.28	.21	.192	
	Benefit Use Time 1				
C. Benefit Use Time 2, Indirect Effects					
	FSOP Time 2	.02	.02		-.01, .06

Table 8. Regression summary for Hypothesis 3 using data from only Time 1

	ΔR^2	F change	p	<i>B</i> (SE)	t	p	95% CI
Step 1	.02	6.95	.001				
Supervisor Support Time 1				.01(.02)	0.54	.589	-.02, .04
FSOP Time 1				.03(.01)	2.75	.006	.01, .06
Step 2	.00	0.04	.834				
Supervisor Support Time 1				.01(.02)	0.58	.566	-.02, .04
FSOP Time 1				.03(.01)	2.70	.009	.01, .06
FSOP X Supervisor Support				.00(.01)	.021	.834	-.02, .03

Table 9. Regression summary for Hypothesis 3 using data from only Time 2

	ΔR^2	F change	p	B(SE)	t	p	95% CI
Step 1	.02	5.39	.005				
Supervisor Support				.06(.03)	2.39	.018	.01, .12
Time 2				.01(.02)	0.61	.544	-.03, .50
FSOP Time 2							
Step 2	.00	0.02	.882				
Supervisor Support				.06(.03)	2.15	.005	.01, .12
Time 2				.01(.02)	0.62	.534	-.03, -.05
FSOP Time 2				-.00(.02)	-0.15	.882	-.04, .04
FSOP X Supervisor Support							

Table 10. Regression summary for Hypothesis 3 using longitudinal data

	ΔR^2	F change	p	B(SE)	t	p	95% CI
<hr/>							
Step 1							
Benefit Use Time 1	.09	23.30	<.001	.32(.07)	4.83	<.001	.19, .44
<hr/>							
Step 2	.12	3.39	.036				
Benefit Use Time 1				.28(.07)	4.16	<.001	.15, .41
Supervisor Support Time 2				.06(.03)	2.07	.039	.00, .12
				.01(.02)	0.60	.552	-.02, .05
FSOP Time 1							
<hr/>							
Step 3	.00	0.89	.280				
Benefit Use Time 1				.28(.07)	4.19	<.001	.15, .41
Supervisor Support Time 2				.05 (.03)	1.87	.063	-.00, .10
				.02(.02)	0.72	.470	-.03, .06
				-.03 (.02)	-0.07	.280	-.07, .02
FSOP Time 1							
FSOP Time 1 X Supervisor Support Time 2							
<hr/>							

Table 11. Regression summary for Hypothesis 4 using data from only Time 1

	ΔR^2	F change	p	B(SE)	t	p	95% CI
Step 1	.05	8.31	<.001				
Supervisor/Subordinate							
Gender Match				-.10 (.07)	-1.34	.182	-.24, .04
Supervisor's use of an FWA				.11 (.10)	1.08	.287	-.09, -.31
Supervisor Parental Status				.38(.09)	4.38	<.001	.21, .55

Table 12. Regression summary for Hypothesis 4 using data from only Time 2

	ΔR^2	F change	p	<i>B</i> (SE)	t	p	95% CI
Step 1	.02	1.95	.122				
Supervisor/Subordinate							
Gender Match				-.02(.11)	-0.17	.863	-.24, .20
Supervisor's use of an FWA				.11(.10)	2.06	.272	-.09, .31
Supervisor Parental Status				.27(.10)	1.12	.041	.01, .52

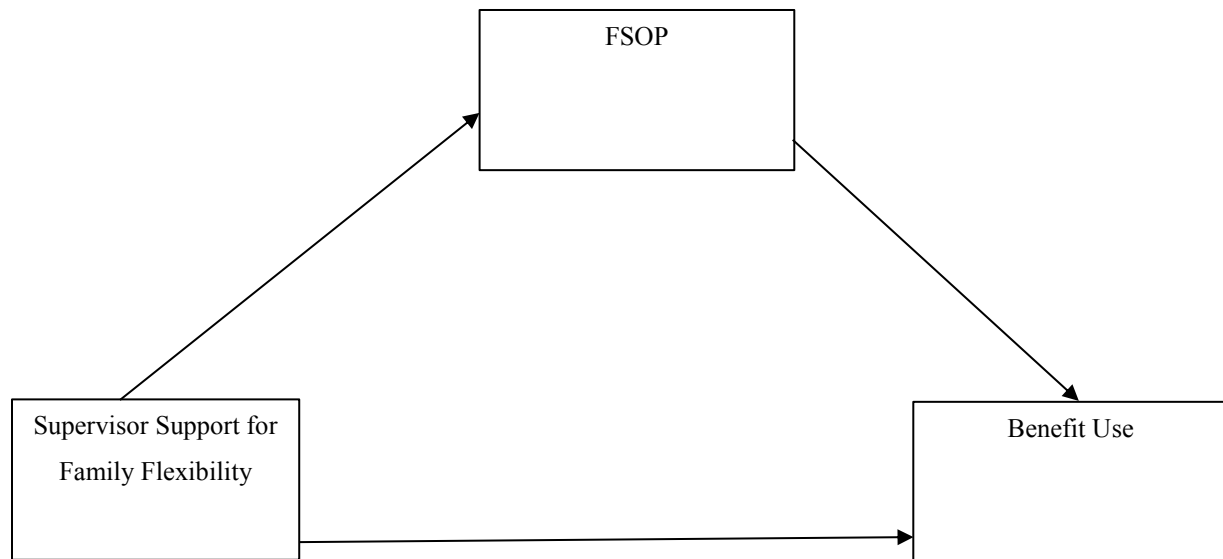
FIGURES

Figure 1. Hypothesized relationship among study variables

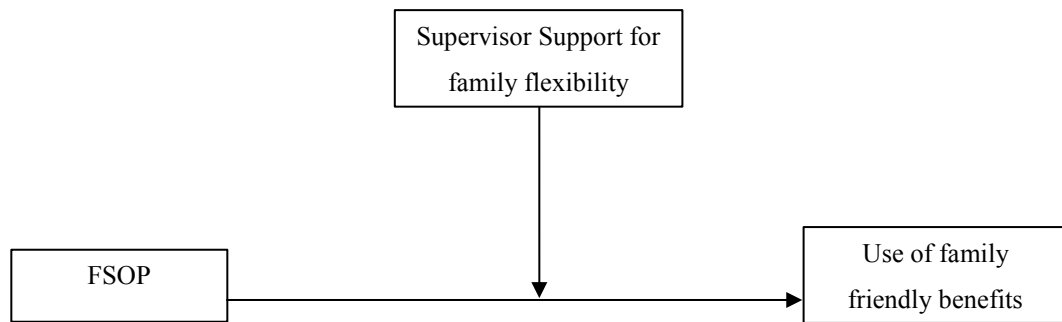


Figure 2. Hypothesized moderation relationship between study variables

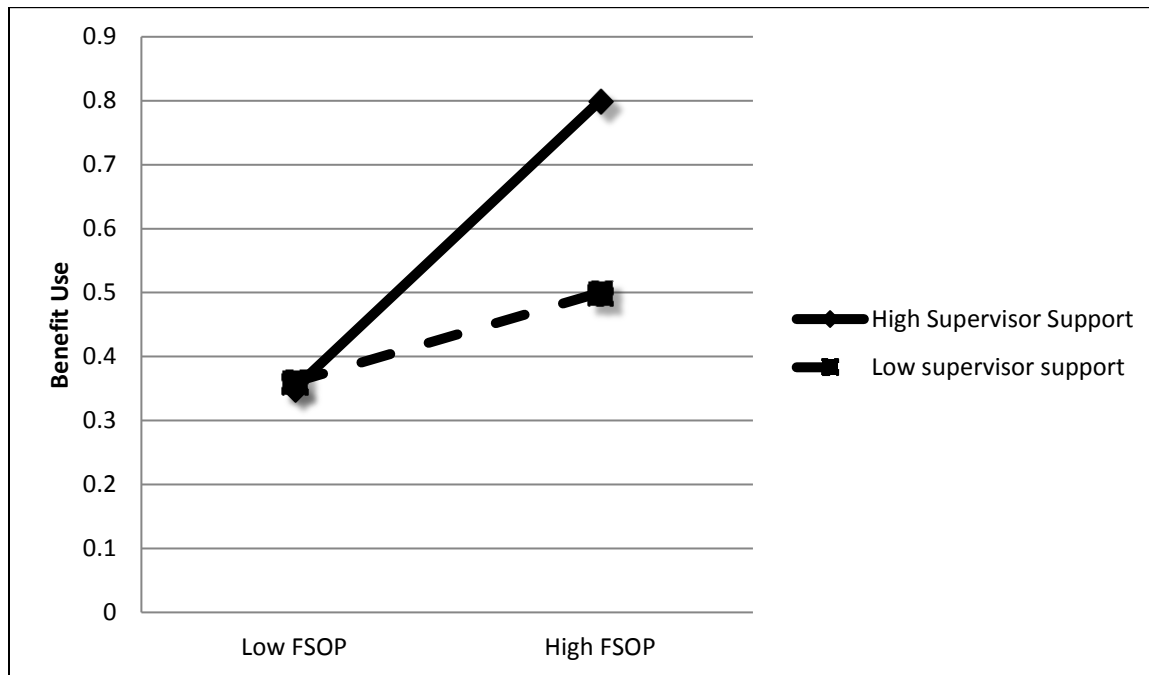


Figure 3. Hypothesized interaction between FSOP and supervisor support on benefit use

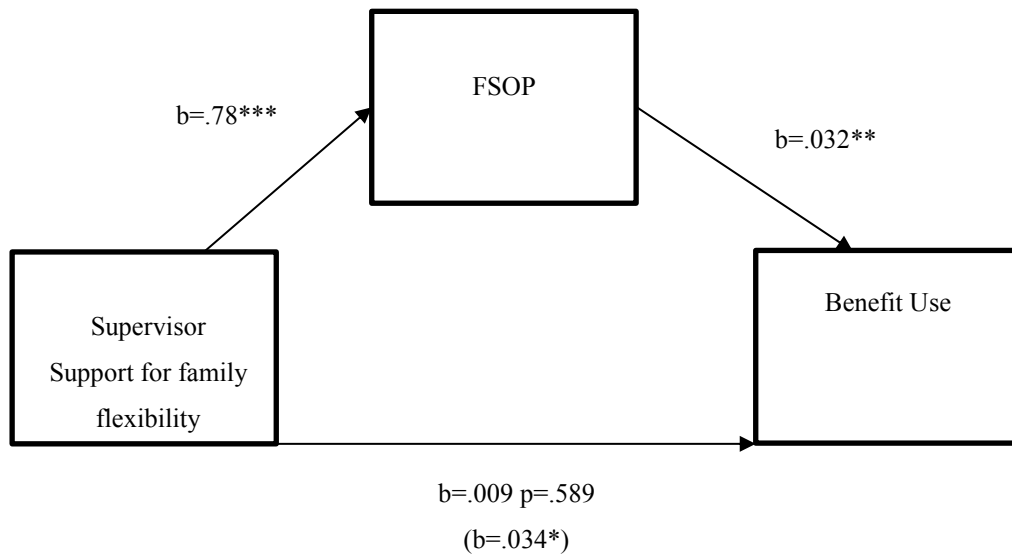


Figure 4. Mediation model testing the indirect effect of supervisor support for family flexibility on benefit use through FSOP

Note: The total effect of supervisor support for family flexibility on benefit use is shown in parenthesis, and the direct effect (i.e., the effect of supervisor support for family flexibility controlling for FSOP) are shown without parenthesis. b = the unstandardized regression coefficient.

*= $p < .05$, **= $p < .01$, ***= $p < .001$

APPENDIX

Measurement Materials

Sample Characteristics

What is your age in years? _____

What is your gender?

____ Man

____ Woman

____ Other

During the past 12 months, in the weeks you worked, how many hours did you TYPICALLY work in a week?

____ 10 hours or less

____ 11-20 hours

____ 21-30 hours

____ 31-40 hours

____ 41-50 hours

____ More than 50 hours

How many years have you worked for your current employer?

0 _____ 70

Do you have a spouse or partner?

____ Yes

____ No

____ Prefer not to answer

Do you have children?

Yes

No

Prefer not to answer

How many children under the age of 18 currently live with you?

0

1

2

3

4

5

6 or more

Prefer not to answer

How old are your children?

First child age

Second child age

Third child age

Fourth child age

Fifth child age

Sixth child age

Do you provide primary care for family members who are not your children (e.g. elderly parents, disabled adults)?

Yes

No

Approximately how many hours per week do you typically spend caring for family members who are not your children (e.g. elderly parents, disabled adults)?

1-5

6-10

11-15

16-20

More than 20

Other

How large is your organization?

1-99 employees

100-2499 employees

2500 or more employees

What is your supervisor's gender?

Male

Female

Does your supervisor have children?

Yes

No

Unsure

Has your supervisor ever used a flexible work arrangement (such as part-time schedule, compressed work week, telecommuting, or flexible hours?) Please check with your supervisor if you are able.

- Yes
- No
- Unsure

Family Friendly Policy Availability

Does your organization offer:

	Yes	No	Unsure
1. Part-time schedules?			
2. Compressed work weeks (i.e., full time schedule in fewer than 5 days)?			
3. Telecommuting (work from home)?			
4. Flexible hours?			
5. Reduced Work hours			

Family Friendly Police Use

In the past two years have you used any of the following policies that are offered by your organization?

	I requested this arrangement	I was approved for this arrangement	I have used this arrangement	I was not approved for this arrangement
1. Part-time schedules?				
2. Compressed work weeks (i.e., full time schedule in fewer than 5 days)?				
3. Telecommuting (work from home)?				
4. Flexible hours?				
5. Reduced work hours?				

Family Supportive Organizational Perceptions

To what extent do you agree that each of the following statements represent the philosophy or beliefs of your organization (*remember, these are not your own personal beliefs—but pertain to what you believe is the philosophy of your organization*).

-
1. Work should be a primary priority in a person's life (r)
 2. Long hours inside the office are the way to achieving advancement (r)
 3. It is best to keep family matters separate from work (r)
 4. It is considered taboo to talk about life outside of work (r)
 5. Expressing involvement and interest in nonwork matters is viewed as healthy
 6. Employees who are highly committed to their personal lives cannot be highly committed to their work (r)
 7. Attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children is frowned upon (r)
 8. Employees should keep their personal problems at home (r)
 9. The way to advance in this company is to keep nonwork matters out of the workplace (r)
 10. Individuals who take time off to attend to personal matters are not committed to their work (r)
 11. It is assumed that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their family life (r)
 12. Employees are given ample opportunity to perform both their job and their personal responsibilities well
 13. Offering employees flexibility in completing their work is viewed as a strategic way of doing business
 14. The ideal employee is the one who is available 24 hours a day (r)
-

Notes: Scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

Perceived Supervisor Support

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about your direct supervisor.

-
1. My supervisor accommodates me when I have family or personal business to take care of (e.g. medical appointments, meeting with child's teacher, etc.)
 2. My supervisor is critical about my efforts to combine work and family (r)
 3. My supervisor juggles tasks or duties to accommodate my family responsibilities
 4. My supervisor holds my family responsibilities against me. (r)
 5. My supervisor understands my family demands.
 6. My supervisor listens when I talk about my family demands.
 7. My supervisor acknowledges that I have obligations as a family member.

Notes: Scales ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)