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A Multi-Level Study of the Predictors of Family-Supportive Supervision

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A Multi-Level Study of the Predictors

of Family-Supportive Supervision

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Abstract

There is a growing awareness that informal supports such as family-supportive supervision are critical in assuring the success of work-life policies and benefits. Furthermore, it is believed that family-supportive supervision may have positive effects regardless of the number or quality of work-life polices and benefits an organization has in place. Given this recognition, work-life experts have emphasized the need for supervisor training to increase family-supportive supervision. To date however, there has been a paucity of research on the predictors of family-supportive supervision which could be used as the target of such a training intervention. This dissertation had three major aims: 1) to investigate which supervisor-level (e.g., reward system, productivity maintenance, salience of changing workforce, belief in business case, awareness of organizational policies and benefits, role-modeling) and employee-level (e.g., support sought) factors are most strongly related to family-supportive supervision; 2) to explore whether supervisor factors moderate the relationship between support sought and family-supportive supervision; 3) and to use a multilevel design to confirm the association between family-supportive supervision and work-family conflict. This study used a cross-sectional, two-level (e.g., supervisor, and employee) hierarchical design. The data were collected from supervisors (Nurse Managers N=67) and employees (Nurses N=757) at five hospitals in the Pacific Northwest. All of the major analyses were conducted using multi-level

regression in HLM. The results indicated that family-supportive supervision was higher for employees who worked for managers with a stronger belief in the business case and for employees who sought support. None of the other supervisor-level factors were found to be significant predictors of family supportive supervision. There was no evidence that supervisor-level factors moderated that relationship between support sought and family-supportive supervision. Higher levels of family-supportive supervision were related to lower work-to-family conflict. These findings suggest that organizations seeking to reduce work-family conflict and increase family supportive supervision should consider intervening at multiple levels. This dissertation reviews a rich body of evidence demonstrating the business case for offering work-life supports that could serve as a starting point for developing a training to increase supervisors' belief in the business case. In addition, strategies for organizations to increase support seeking, which has been shown to be an important coping mechanism, are discussed. The multi-level design of this dissertation also contributes to the literature by demonstrating that the largest proportion of variability in family-supportive supervision is at the employee-level. This finding suggests the importance of measuring family-supportive supervision at the employee-level and suggests that future research should focus on the employee-level predictors of family-supportive supervision.

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my husband and children whose love and patience made it possible. Jim, thank you for your support and companionship as you worked along side me for countless hours while I wrote my proposal, and for being so accommodating and taking on extra household responsibilities even while you were working on your MBA so that I could make the final push to finish up. Vivian and Bryant you were troopers as I toted you to the hospitals with me on data collections. Vivian you were about two years old and enjoyed playing in the children's waiting areas with daddy while mommy talked to the nurses. Bryant, I had to start taking you along on data collections when you were 2 weeks old, the nurses were infatuated, and I am sure your charm helped my response rate. I hope this accomplishment will inspire both of you to challenge yourselves and pursue your own dreams.

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instrumental to both my work and my motivation to finish.

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Chapter 1: Introduction and Context

Organizations have responded to changes in the demographic composition of the workforce and changing societal values by offering an increasing number of work-life policies and benefits. Work-life policies and benefits are intended to decrease work-family conflict leading to positive outcomes for both employees and organizations. Research examining the effectiveness of work-life policies and benefits has returned mixed results (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). Furthermore, research indicates that while most large organizations offer at least some work-life policies and benefits (Liddicoat, 2003; Solomon, 1994), these policies and benefits are often underutilized (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Given these problems, researchers and practitioners have begun to recognize that informal organizational supports, such as family supportive supervision, play a critical role in benefit utilization and may even directly influence work-family conflict (Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999). Many articles have emphasized the need for management training to increase family supportive supervision (Hammer, Kossek, Anger, Bodner, & Zimmerman, 2011; Maitland, 1998; Milliken, Martins, & Morgan, 1998; Regan, 1994; Solomon, 1994). However, research on the predictors of family supportive supervision that might be targets of such an intervention is lacking. This dissertation has three major aims: 1) to investigate which the supervisor-level and employee-level factors are most strongly related to family-supportive supervision; 2) to explore whether supervisor factors moderate the relationship between support sought and family-supportive

supervision; 3) and to use a multilevel design to confirm the association between family-supportive supervision and work-family conflict.

Relevant literature is reviewed in the first three chapters of this dissertation. In Chapter 1, I discuss how changes in the workforce have compelled organizations to offer an increasing number of work-life policies and benefits. In addition, I review research on the links between work-life policies and benefits, work-family conflict, and other outcomes. Then, I explain why family-supportive supervision is a critical component in the success of work-life life initiatives. In Chapter 2, I further define the construct of family-supportive supervision and explain how it fits into broader social support constructs such as general supervisor support, perceived organizational support, and work-family culture. Following that, I review the research on the outcomes of general supervisor support and family-supportive supervision in order to demonstrate the importance on this construct. In Chapter 3, I ground my ideas in systems theory and review previous research on the predictors of family-supportive supervision in order to illuminate the gaps in the literature. Figure 1 provides a summary of my research hypotheses. The rational for these hypotheses is explained in Chapter 4.

Changing Workforce

The demographic composition of the American workforce has changed dramatically over the last few decades. The proportion of men (53%) and women (47%) in the workforce is now almost equal (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010)

Figure 1. Conceptual Model of Dissertation Hypotheses

Supervisor Level Covariates
Age
Gender
Marital Status
# of Children
Elder Care Responsibilities
Tenure
# of Employees

Supervisor Level Predictors
Reward System (H1)
Productivity Maintenance (H2)
Salience of Changing Workforce (RQ1)
Belief in Business Case (H3)
Awareness of Policies & Benefits (H4)
Role-Modeling by Superior (H5)

Supervisor Level

Employee Level Covariates
Age
Gender Similarity
Racial Similarity
Education
Marital Status
# of Children
Elder Care Responsibilities
Tenure

(RQ2)

Family-Supportive Supervision

(H7a)

Work-to-Family Conflict

(H7b)

Family-to-Work Conflict

Employee Level Predictors
Support Sought

(H6)

Employee Level

The percentage of women achieving college degrees (36% in 2009 compared to 11% in 1970) and moving into managerial and professional careers has steadily increased (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). Women now make up 51% of professional, management, and related occupations. Despite these advances women who are employed full-time still earn only 80% of what their male counterparts earn, $657 per week versus $819 respectively. This is significant considering that 7 million mothers in the US are single parents and do not have a partner to contribute to the household income or share in housework and childcare (American Psychological Association, 2004). There are also a considerable number of single-father households, approximately 1.5 million in the US. The labor force participation of mothers with children younger than 18 has increased from 47 percent in 1975 to 72 percent in 2009. Mothers with children under the age of three experienced the largest increase in labor force participation, up from 34 percent in 1975 to 61 percent in 2009. These proportions were even higher among unmarried mothers. Among couples it is becoming increasingly rare to find single-earner households. Among married couples, only 18% had only the husband working in 2009, compared to 36% in 1967. In addition, dual-earner couples with children are working a greater number of combine hours (81 hours a week in 1977 verses 91 hours a week in 2002), leaving less time for non-work responsibilities (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002).

Family caregiving responsibilities are also increasing. Forty-two percent of employed Americans reported that they provided substantial care for an elderly relative in the last five years (Aumann, Galinsky, Sakai, Brown, & Bond, 2008). The

population over 65 is the fastest growing segment of the US population. It is projected that by 2030 when the last of the baby boomers have reached older adulthood, 20 percent of the US population will be over the age of 65 (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and The Merck Company Foundation, 2007). Another factor contributing to the growth in older adults is advances in medical treatments for chronic illnesses, which have helped to extend the average life expectancy. Despite these advances there has been little change in the number of healthy years adults enjoy after the age of 65. Thus, the number of working adults caring for aging parents and the number of years that that they spend caring for their parents is expected to increase. In addition, people are delaying marriage and childbearing to pursue higher education and career aspirations(American Psychological Association, 2004). This puts some workers in the situation of providing care for both their children and older relatives.

As greater percentage of women enter the work force, there are increasing societal expectations for men to participate more fully in housework and childcare (Daly & Palkovitz, 2004). The amount of time fathers spend doing housework on workdays has increased by about 42 minutes since 1977 (Bond et al., 2002). Mothers have decreased the amount of time they spend doing house work by an equal proportion over the same period of time, however they still report doing more than fathers. In addition, fathers are spending a greater amount of time caring for their children (American Psychological Association, 2004). This is especially true of fathers whose partners work. Although women still spend more hours providing childcare in

general, 30 percent of men report spending an equal or greater amount of time caring for children compared to their partner.

Response from Policymakers and Organizations

The U.S. has responded to these changes in the demographic composition of the workforce and changing societal values with both social and organizational initiatives. The most noteworthy governmental response has been the Family Medical Leave Act of 1991 (FMLA). FMLA affords family members working in organizations with 50 or more employees up to 12 weeks of leave to care for a newborn, newly adopted child or ill family member, however there is no requirement that the leave be paid. Critics have said that the governmental response has not gone far enough (Bond, Galinsky, Kim, & Brownfield, 2005). Leaders in the work-life field have suggested several ways that the government could take a larger role helping workers manage work and life responsibilities: for example, 1) implement programs (e.g., educational policies and benefits, job-skills training, job search skills) that keep families above the poverty line, 2) provide supplemental health insurance for low-wage workers, 3) assure greater access to small business loans for families, and 4) institute state or local government programs to provide paid family medical leave (American Psychological Association, 2004). California could be used as a model; the California Paid Family Leave Insurance Program is funded by employees and offers 6 weeks of leave at up to 55 percent pay (Firestein, O'leary, & Savitsky, 2011). Despite California's financial difficulties during the recent recession this program has been credited as a great success. California's Paid Family Leave program has provided over 1 million

Californians greater economic security while they took leave from work to care for a

new baby or seriously ill family member. Since California enacted this program, other

states (Washington and New Jersey) have passed legislation to create paid parental

leave.

While there is debate about who should bear the largest responsibility to

initiate and maintain work-family initiatives, government versus employers

(Liddicoat, 2003), in the U.S. the bulk of the responsibility has fallen to employers.

Reports from the 2005 National Study of Employers (NSE) (update) indicate that 92

percent of companies with 50 or more employees offered eight or more work-life

programs such as paid family leave, child care, elder care assistance, or flexible

schedules (Bond et al., 2005). Findings from the most recent NSE also indicate that

while some policies and benefits like healthcare and paid parental leave are being

reduced, other types of policies and benefits are being offered by a larger percentage

of companies (Galinsky, Bond, Sakai, Kim, & Giuntoli, 2008). For example some

types of flextime have increased. In 1998, 24 percent of employees were allowed to

change the time that they arrived and left work, in 2008 that figure increased to 31

percent. Also, more organizations offer compressed work weeks, 41 percent in 2008

compared to 37 percent in 1998. There was also an increase in the percentage of

organizations providing information about elder care resources, 23% in 1998

compared to 39% in 2008. It should be noted that larger companies were more likely

to offer a greater number of policies and benefits.

The Relationship of Work-Life Policies and Benefits with Work-Family Conflict, and

Organizational and Employee Outcomes

From a theoretical standpoint it is believed that implementing work-life policies will alleviate work-family conflict thereby resulting in desirable organizational outcomes and improving employee well-being (Frye & Breaugh, 2004; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998, 1999; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Work-family conflict is said to occur when participation in one role (e.g., family) is made more difficult as a result of participating in another role (e.g., work, Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Work-family conflict is bidirectional, occurring from work-to-family and from family-to-work. Several studies have linked work-life policies and benefits to decreased work-family conflict (Allen, 2001; Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990; Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994; O'Driscoll et al., 2003; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999). Using a study of male executives, Judge and colleagues (1994) found that more extensive work-life policies and benefits were related to lower levels of work-to-family conflict but not family-to-work conflict. In a study of managers from a variety of industries O'Driscoll and his colleagues (2003) found that increased benefit usage, but not benefit availability, was related to lower levels of work-family conflict. Allen (2001) surveyed employees from several settings and found that the availability of work-life policies and benefits was related to lower work-family conflict and that this relationship was mediated by family-supportive organizational perceptions (Allen, 2001). Another study found that benefit availability was related to work-to-family conflict but that this relationship went away after accounting for work-family culture

(Thompson et al., 1999). Thomas and Ganster (1995) found that availability of flexible schedules was related to reduced work-family conflict and that this relationship was mediated through employees perceived control. However, they were not able to demonstrate any relationships with availability of dependent care or information and referral services (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Goff and colleagues (1990) were unable to find support for their hypothesis that on-site childcare users would have lower work-family conflict than employees using alternative childcare arrangements. However, they did find that the more satisfied employees were with their childcare the less work-family conflict they reported. Contrary to expectations, one longitudinal study found that for wives in dual-earner, sandwiched generation couples, benefit utilization was related to *greater* work-family conflict (Hammer, Neal, Newsom, Brockwood, & Colton, 2005). The authors explained that for these women, taking advantage of alternative work arrangements and dependent care support might have enabled them to take on more responsibility at home. In summary, these studies offer some evidence that work-life policies and benefits are related to work-family conflict, however, the findings are somewhat mixed; a topic that will be discussed later in the chapter.

Work-family conflict has in turn been related to a variety of organizational outcomes (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Kelly et al., 2008). Meta-analyses have found that lower levels of work-family conflict were related to increased job satisfaction, better performance, increased organizational commitment, less burnout, and lower turnover (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Kossek &

Ozeki, 1998, 1999). Higher levels of family-to-work conflict have also been associated with lower safety motivation on the job (Cullen & Hammer, 2007). The major motivation for employers to offer work-life policies and benefits is to improve organizational performance through mechanisms such as increased recruitment and retention and enhanced commitment and productivity (Galinsky et al., 2008). Thus, this evidence linking work-family conflict to organizational outcomes is encouraging.

Although employers' main motivation in implementing work-life policies and benefits is to increase organizational performance, many organizations also want to improve employees' well-being. In the 2008 National Study of Employers (NSE), the second most common reason given for implementing work-life policies and benefits was to help employees and their families (Galinsky et al., 2008). Meta-analyses have indicated that work-family conflict is related to a variety of health and well-being indicators such as life satisfaction, general psychological strain, work-related stress, family-related stress, depression somatic/physical symptoms, and alcohol abuse, as well as family functioning variables such as marital and family satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Studies have also linked increased work-family conflict to high cholesterol (Thomas & Ganster, 1995) and coronary heart disease (Haynes, Eaker, & Feinleib, 1984). Employee decreased health and well-being may also impact organizational performance by leading to increased insurance premiums (Thomas & Ganster, 1995), higher absenteeism, and greater turnover. There is some evidence that the level of work-family conflict an employee experiences may also be related to their spouses health (Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, & Shafiro, 2005).

Hammer and colleagues found that wives' depression was positively related to their husbands' work-family conflict. Wives' work-family conflict was not related to husbands' depression.

Several studies have also attempted to link work-life policies directly to organizational outcomes. Research indicates that benefit availability is related to increased organizational cost savings (Solomon, 1994), organizational performance (Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000), organizational productivity (for organizations with a higher number of female and proffessional employees: Konrad & Mangel, 2000), employee retention (Allen, 2001; Johnson, 1995), employee performance (Solomon, 1994), organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Allen, 2001).

Research has also been done on the impact of specific work-life policies and benefits. The most extensively studied benefit is flextime. A meta-analysis by Baltes and colleagues (1999) found that flextime was associated with employee productivity, job satisfaction, satisfaction with work schedule, and employee absenteeism. Single studies also linked flextime to organizational outcomes such as improved workgroup and supervisor-subordinate relations, decreased turnover, organizational commitment, and somatic health complaints (Narayanan & Nath, 1982; Scandura & Lankau, 1997; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Other studies did not find expected relationships between flexible schedules and organizational outcomes. Grover and Cooker (1995) found that flexible schedules were related to organizational commitment but not turnover intentions. Another study indicated that flextime was not associated with organizational effectiveness or organizational commitment (Christensen & Staines,

1990). A meta-analysis indicated that compressed worked weeks were related to employee productivity, job satisfaction, and satisfaction with work schedule, but were not related to employee absenteeism (Baltes et al., 1999). Research on sabbaticals indicates that they are associated with reduces burnout and increased well-being (Davidson et al., 2010).

Research on on-site childcare has also been mixed. One study found that availability of employer-sponsored child care reduced employee absenteeism and turnover (Milkovich & Gomez, 1976). Other studies have not been able to establish a relationship between onsite childcare and absenteeism (Goff et al., 1990; Kossek & Nichol, 1992). Grover and Cooker (1995) found that childcare assistance was not related to turnover or organizational commitment but childcare information was related to lower turnover.

Barriers to Fully Realizing the Utility of Work-Life Policies and Benefits

Although there is considerable evidence that work-life policies and benefits can contribute to positive outcomes for organizations and their employees, some research results remain mixed. Furthermore, research indicates that work-life policies and benefits are notably underutilized. In a study of 80 top U.S. companies, less than 2% of workers took advantage of work-life policies and benefits (Solomon, 1994). Several explanations have been offered in the literature to try and explain why work-life policies and benefits are underutilized and do not always have the intended affects. One explanation is that these policies are often implemented without a needs assessment (Pitt-Catsouphes & Bankert, 1998). Another explanation is that employees

are not well informed about work-life policies and benefits (Frankel, 1998). Reports from the 2005 National Study of Employers (NSE) indicate that only 27% of organizations make a concerted and continuous effort to inform employees about work-life policies and benefits. However, the most commonly voiced explanation is a lack of informal workplace supports, such as family supportive supervision or a family supportive organizational culture (Allen, 2001; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Thompson et al., 1999). O'Driscoll and colleagues (2003) found that work-family culture and supervisor support were negatively associated work-family conflict whereas benefit availability and usages were not.

Many organizations offer work-life policies and benefits while at the same time conveying strong norms that employees should devote themselves to their work and sacrifice family in order to get ahead in the organization (Allen, 2001). Surveys have indicated that many employees do not take advantage of work-life policies and benefits because they fear negative career consequences (Perlow, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999). One study found that 77 percent of female university faculty believed that taking maternity leave would harm them professionally, and only a small portion (30%) of those who had a baby took the full amount of leave offered by their organization (Finkel, Olswang, & She, 1994). In their book Lobel and Kossek (1996) state that offering work-life policies and benefits will not achieve desired outcomes unless organizations can achieve genuine change in the organizational norms and values regulating the appropriate role of non-work considerations in the workplace.

Supervisors affect the use of work-life policies in several ways. For example, they may influence organization culture through expressing their beliefs about the proper place of family matters in the workplace or by acting as role-models. In addition they act as gatekeepers, regulating the use of formal work-life policies and establishing informal policies. Thompson and colleagues (1999) found that supervisor support was a stronger predictor of benefit utilization that other dimensions of organizational culture (i.e., negative career consequences or organizational time demands). There has been a growing trend in recent years to devolve many traditional human resource or personnel management matters to line managers. These changes have been spurred by globalization, the rapid change in the business environment, and the trend toward decentralization among other influences. The rationale for delegating these tasks to line managers is that they are better able to tailor personnel decisions to suit the needs if their local unit, the decisions can be made more quickly, and line managers are better able to make sure that the policies and procedures are used in accordance with organizational guidelines (Bond & Wise, 2003). Research indicates that managers are employee's most common source of information about the availability of work-family programs (Liddicoat, 2003).

Given the pivotal role of supervisors in regulating formal policies and constituting informal policies it is crucial to study the factors affecting supervisor support. In a review of the Industrial Organizational/Organizational Behavior work family literature, Eby and colleagues (2005) point out that there are few studies on supervisor support despite the extensive literature linking work-family conflict to

stress related outcomes, as mentioned previously in this dissertation (e.g., Allen et al., 2000; Haynes et al., 1984; Thomas & Ganster, 1995), and the evidence that support can buffer the impact of stressors on these types of outcomes (Quick & Tetrick, 2003). This dissertation uses a multi-level design to investigate which supervisor level, and employee level characteristics are most strongly related to family supportive supervision.

Chapter 2: Family-Supportive Supervision: Understanding the Construct and Its

Importance

Defining Family Supportive Supervision

The focus of this dissertation is family supportive supervision. Several

definitions of family supportive supervision have been used in the literature. In one

study family-supportive supervision was defined as "the sensitivity, empathy, and

flexibility provided by a supervisor to assist a subordinate in achieving balance"

(Foley, Linnehan, Greenhaus, & Weer, 2006, p. 421). Family-supportive is a

multidimensional construct (Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniels, 2007). Ryan

and Kossek (2008) suggest that family-supportive supervision includes both

instrumental or tangible support and emotional support. Hammer and colleagues

(2009) expanded our understanding of the construct of family-supportive supervision

to include four dimensions: emotional support, instrumental support, role modeling,

and creative work-family management. Examples of emotional support may include,

inquiring about an employee's family or offering a kind word when an employee

relates a difficult family experience. Examples of instrumental support may include,

making an employee aware of work-life policies and benefits, tolerating short calls

home to check in with family members, arranging meetings in a way that facilitates

working from home on specified days of the week, allowing an employee to work

from home when they have a sick child, changing work schedules to better meet

employees' needs, allowing employees to swap shifts, reassigning or assisting with

tasks, or allowing an employee to bring their child to work when school is canceled

unexpectedly. Examples of role modeling would include supervisors' own use of organizational benefits and personal strategies to effectively manage their own work and personal lives and making this visible to their employees. It is not uncommon for supervisors to believe that accommodating employees' work-life needs will cause organizational performance to suffer. Scholars have suggested that supervisors can implement management strategies that both meet strategic goals and decrease work family conflict (Bailyn, Fletcher, & Kolb, 1997; Kossek & Friede, 2006). Bailyn and colleagues (1997) give an example of how one organization reduced overtime hours and unpredictability by changing its reward system to reinforce foresight and prevention of crises rather than solving crises. Another example of dual-agenda supervision would be cross-training employees. This would not only make it easier for employees to take time off but it could also improve productivity by making all members of the team aware of the workflow and how their work impacts other team members. These are examples of the fourth dimension of family-supportive supervision, creative work-family management as defined by Hammer and colleagues (2009).

Broader Support Constructs

As interest in informal workplace supports has grown, researchers have looked to more general literatures to the inform construct development of family-supportive supervision. The social support literature (Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, & Pinneau, 1975; Caplan, Harrison, Wellons, & French, 1980; House, 1981) separates support into several different types (e.g. emotional, informational, and instrumental) coming

from a variety of different sources (e.g., spouse, friends, co-workers, and supervisor).

Supervisor support is an important resource that has been linked to employee heath

and organizational outcomes. This research is outlined in detail later in this

dissertation. Family-supportive supervision may be considered a specific type of

supervisor support.

Another body of literature that can be drawn upon to inform the construct of

family-supportive supervision is the perceived organizational support literature.

Perceived organizational support has been defined as an employee's "global beliefs

concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares

about their well-being" (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986).

Organizational support theory suggests that employees have a tendency to personify

organizations assigning them humanlike attributes (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

The actions of organizational agents are often attributed to the organization as a whole

rather than solely to the agent (Levinson, 1965). This is largely because the

organization is seen as legally, morally and financially responsible for agents' actions.

Supervisors are important organizational agents, and as such, their actions contribute

to perceptions of organizational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Incorporating

ideas from social exchange theory, organizational support theory posits that when

employees feel supported by the organization they develop a positive social exchange

relationship leading them to become emotionally attached and committed to the

organization. A meta-analysis demonstrates that perceptions of organizational support

are negatively related to work-family conflict

More recently researchers have adapted the perceived organizational support construct to apply specifically to support for work-family (Allen, 2001; Jahn, Thompson, & Kopelman, 2003; O'Driscoll et al., 2003). A meta-analysis found that family-supportive organizational perceptions are more strongly related to work-family conflict than general perceptions of organizational support (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, In press). Allen (2001) found that greater availability and use of work-life policies and benefits along with higher family-supportive supervision were related to greater family-supportive organizational perceptions which were in turn related to lower work-family conflict, higher organizational commitment and higher job satisfaction. It is important to note that while supervisor support can contribute to perceptions of organizational support, the two constructs have been shown to be distinct (Jahn et al., 2003) and to be independently related to organizational outcomes (Allen, 2001). O'Driscoll and colleagues (2003) also found evidence that family-supportive organizational perceptions mediated the relationship between benefit usage and work-family conflict.

The study of work-family culture has also informed the construct of family-supportive supervision. Work-family culture has been defined as "the shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and family lives" (Thompson et al., 1999, p. 394). Thompson and colleagues (1999) included supervisor support as a dimension in their work-family culture scale. Yet it is conceivable that an employee may perceive their organization is not family-friendly while at the same time

perceiving their supervisor as supportive of their family life. Subsequently scholars have suggested that work-family culture and supervisor support are distinct constructs (Hammer et al., 2007). To support their conceptualization they stress that the two constructs are at different levels of measurement; work-family culture is an organizational construct whereas supervisor support is at a supervisor level. Research has shown that work-family culture is positively related to family supportive supervision (Foley et al., 2006). Many scholars believe that workplace culture is shaped by the behavior, values and attitudes of upper-management and coworkers, in addition to the influence of immediate supervisors (Bond et al., 2005). Hammer and colleagues (2007) suggest that perceptions of family-supportive supervision are influenced by organizational level factors such as work-family culture and the availability of work-life policies and benefits, in addition to the actual supportive behaviors of supervisors. For example, a lack of work-life policies or benefits may offer supervisors fewer options to assist their employees. Likewise, an unsupportive work-family culture may inhibit a supervisor from offering support. Research has confirmed that work-family culture is related to perceptions of family-supportive supervision (Dolcos & Daley, 2009). Both of the causal paths described above could be integrated by thinking about the relationship between work-family culture and supervisor support as a reinforcing reciprocal feedback loop. Under this scenario increased family-supportive supervision would encourage a positive work-family culture which would in turn encourage greater family-supportive supervision. This

reinforcing system would likely level off at some level that achieved a satisfactory balance between organizational performance and employee well-being.

Research has linked work-family culture to a variety of important outcomes. Several studies confirm that more supportive work-family cultures are related to lower levels of employee work-family conflict (Barrah, Shultz, Baltes, & Stolz, 2004; Lyness & Kropf, 2005; Mennino, Rubin, & Brayfield, 2005; Thompson et al., 1999; Thompson & Prottas, 2006). In addition, more supportive work-family cultures have been linked to lower employee stress (Thompson & Prottas, 2006), higher job satisfaction (Thompson & Prottas, 2006), greater organizational commitment (Lyness, Thompson, Francesco, & Judiesch, 1999; Thompson et al., 1999), shorter maternity leaves (Lyness et al., 1999), increased safety motivation (Cullen & Hammer, 2007), and lower turnover intentions (Thompson et al., 1999; Thompson & Prottas, 2006). Employees who work in organizations with supportive work-family cultures are more likely to use the work-family policies and benefits (Thompson et al., 1999), report a greater sense of control over how their work is done (Thompson & Prottas, 2006), and are more likely to enjoy flexible work arrangements (Lyness & Kropf, 2005). There is some evidence that these variables are important mechanisms by which work-family culture can influence work-family conflict and other organizational and employee outcomes (Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson & Prottas, 2006).

Outcomes of Family Supportive Supervision

Stress and Strain

The most commonly invoked theoretical perspective in the work-family literature is role theory (Allen, 2001; Eby et al., 2005). Role theory states that an individual's behavior conforms to social expectations for the particular position that he or she occupies (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Shared values and beliefs are the basis of explicit or implicit social contracts in which role privileges and rewards are exchanged for the fulfillment of expected role responsibilities. Strain between roles such as work and family can occur as the roles make competing demands for limited resources (e.g., time and energy, Goode, 1960). However, the availability of resources, such as supervisor support, may buffer the effects of these competing demands (Allen, 2001).

Another theory that has been applied to understand the relationship between family-supportive supervision and work-family conflict (Lapierre & Allen, 2006) is the model of conservation of resources (Hobfoll, 1989). Hobfoll proposes that people are motivated to obtain and retain resources that will enable them to experience pleasure and success and that they experience stress at the threat or actual loss of these resources. Work-family conflict thus occurs when one role drains resources such as time or energy that are needed for success in the other role (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Lapierre & Allen, 2006). Hobfoll (1989) states that social support is considered a resource to the extent that it helps one obtain or retain valued resources (e.g., time and energy). This implies that supervisor support may have a direct effect on work-family conflict.

The buffering hypothesis, which is widely endorsed in the general organizational literature and the social psychology literature, could also be applied to understand the relationship between family-supportive supervision and work-family conflict. The buffering hypothesis suggests that social support buffers the effects of stressors on strains (O'Driscoll et al., 2003). A stressor has been defined as "the physical or psychological stimulus to which an individual responds" (Quick, Quick, Nelson, & Hurrell, 1997, p. 3). Whereas strain is "the degree of physiological, psychological, and behavioral deviation from the individual's healthy functioning" (Quick et al., 1997, p. 3). A meta-analysis looking at the relationship between work stressors, social support, and strain found that social support may have both a direct and buffering effect on the stress-strain relationship (Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999). Specifically, they found evidence that social support could reduce strain directly, reduce the strength of stressors, and lessen the impact of stressors on strain.

Research on these relationships in the work-family literature is still in the early stages. Several studies have examined the moderating effects of supervisor support on the stressors-strain relationship with inconclusive findings. Fu and Shaffer (2001) found some evidence that general supervisor support moderated the effect of work stressors on work-family conflict. In a sample of managers from a variety of industries O'Driscoll et al (2003) found that family-supportive supervision lessened the impact of work-family conflict on psychological strain. Phelan et al. (1991) found that increases in work and family stresses were related to increased depression, however, they found no evidence that general supervisor support moderated this relationship.

Frone et al. (1995) were unable to find evidence that general supervisor support moderated the relationship between work and family stressors and psychological distress. In a sample of dual-earner couples, Eloy and Mackie (2002) found that work overload was related to work-family conflict but that general supervisor support did not moderate this relationship. Despite these mixed results the buffering hypothesis remains the dominate model (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999).

It is possible however, that a different model may represent the relationships between work-family stressors, strain and family supportive supervision better than the buffering hypothesis There is evidence that supervisor support is directly related to stressors such as control (Thomas & Ganster, 1995), work role conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999), work overload (Thompson, Kirk, & Brown, 2005a), work ambiguity (Thompson et al., 2005a), work time demands (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999) and work-family conflict (Allen, 2001; Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper, & O'Brien, 2001; Frye & Breaugh, 2004; Kossek et al., In press; Mennino et al., 2005). In their recent meta-analysis Kossek et al (In press) found that both general supervisor support and family-supportive supervision are related to lower work-family conflict. However, family-supportive supervision was more strongly related to work-family conflict than general supervisor support. Another study found that family-supportive supervision was related to work-family conflict even after controlling for general supervisor support (Hammer et al., 2009). In an earlier section of this paper I reviewed several studies linking work-family conflict to a variety of strain related outcomes. Thus, it is reasonable to infer that family-supportive supervision may reduce stressors such as

work-family conflict thereby reducing employee strain. This proposition is supported

by the research of Thomas and Ganster (1995) who found that increased family

supportive supervision was related to greater perceived control and less work-family

conflict which was in turn related to lower depression, fewer somatic symptoms, and

lower cholesterol. Likewise (Thompson & Prottas, 2006) found evidence that

supervisor support may affect employee well-being through increasing perceived

control. Research has also linked higher family supportive supervision directly to

strain outcomes such as lower stress (Behson, 2005; Thompson & Prottas, 2006),

lower emotional exhaustion (Thompson et al., 2005a), and higher life satisfaction

(Thompson & Prottas, 2006), fewer cardiovascular risk factors (Berkman, Buxton,

Ertel, & Okechukwu, 2010), better physical health (Hammer et al., 2011), and longer

sleep (Berkman et al., 2010). Regardless of how supervisor support fits into the

stressor-strain relationship, this evidence suggests that it can play an important role in

reducing employee strain.

Overview of Family-Supportive Supervision and Organizational Outcomes

In the work-family literature it is believed that increased family-supportive

supervision will lead to a variety of positive organizational outcomes either by directly

reducing work-family conflict or by positively impacting organizational culture,

increasing benefit usage and/or increasing flexibility, which will in turn help to reduce

work-family conflict (Aryee, Luk, & Stone, 1998; Thompson et al., 1999). In their

theoretical chapter, Hammer et al (2007) propose that increased family-supportive

supervision leads to lower work-family conflict which in turn leads to improved

employee health, greater employee safety, improved family outcomes, and better organizational outcomes. Thompson and colleagues (1999) found that higher levels of family-supportive supervision were related to increased benefit utilization. Blair-Loy and Wharton (2002) found that supervisors who's demographic background (e.g., married) may make work-family concerns more salient were more likely to have employees who used work-family policies and flexible schedules. Another study found that increased supervisor support was related to increased flexibility which was related to lower work-family conflict and improved health (Jang, 2009). In an earlier section of this dissertation I reviewed studies demonstrating a firm link between supervisor support and work-family conflict. I also presented evidence that work-family conflict is related to a variety of organizational outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, job performance, organizational commitment, burnout, employee turnover, and safety motivation.). In these next sections, I will go on to discuss how supervisor support has been linked to a variety of organizational outcomes in the general supervisor support literature and in the work-family literature. In addition I will discuss some of the possible mechanisms linking supervisor support and organizational outcomes.

Job performance. Unsupportive supervisors can increase employee stress by failing to convey role expectations or the methods by which expectations can be achieved (Babin & Boles, 1996). This stress can negatively affect performance. In addition, supervisors can negatively impact performance by failing to grant vital or time saving resources. Babin and Boles (1996) found support for a model in which greater supervisor support was related to lower role conflict and ambiguity (stressors)

which in turn were related to increased job performance. A different study, sampling medical staff at long-term care facilities, indicated that low supervisor support was associated with increased stress which was in turn related to lower job performance (Schaefer & Moos, 1993). Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayan, and Schwartz (2002) also found that supervisor support was positively related to objective job performance.

Another mechanism by which supervisor support can impact job performance is by increasing perceived organizational support. Earlier in this dissertation I explained that supervisors are important liaisons for the organization, and thus their communications and actions are often attributed to the organization. When employees feel supported, they are more motivated to fulfill their psychological contract with the organization by performing standard job activities and extra-role activities (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Examples of extra-role performance or organizational citizenship may include assisting a supervisors or coworker in tasks that are not included in an employee's normal duties, taking steps to protect the organization from risk, offering constructive and innovative suggestions to improve the workplace, or gaining extra knowledge and skills that with be beneficial to the organization. In a meta-analysis Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that supervisor support was moderately-strongly related to perceived organizational support, which was in turn related to both in-role and extra-role performance. Another study found that family-supportive supervision was related to increased organizational citizenship behavior at work (Clark, 2001).

Job satisfaction. In the general supervisor support literature, supervisor support is thought to impact employee satisfaction both directly and indirectly. In the direct case, it is believed that when employees perceive that their supervisor is concerned for their well-being and provides emotional support they will make more positive appraisals of their work environment and will be more satisfied with their job (Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 1990). Several studies have demonstrated a direct relationship between general supervisor support and job satisfaction (Babin & Boles, 1996; Baruch-Feldman et al., 2002; Mansell, Brough, & Cole, 2006). In addition, studies of medical staff have found that low supervisor support is associated with low employee morale (Robinson, Roth, & Brown, 1993; Schaefer & Moos, 1993). It is also believed that general supervisor support can increase job satisfaction by deceasing stress and/or increasing performance (Babin & Boles, 1996). Babin and Boles (1996) found that increased supervisor support was related to better job performance which was in turn positively related to job satisfaction.

Similar relationships have been demonstrated in the work-family literature. A study of dual-earner parents of kindergarteners indicated that greater supervisor support was related to increased job satisfaction for both partners (Aryee & Luk, 1996). Another study found that family-supportive supervision was positively related to job satisfaction even after accounting for general supervisor support (Hammer et al., 2009). Recent studies have tested models that indicate that increased family-supportive supervision was indirectly related to better job satisfaction through the process of decreasing work-family conflict (Frye & Breaugh, 2004; Thompson,

Brough, & Schmidt, 2006). Behson (2005) found that family-supportive supervision was negatively related to lower work-family conflict, stress, and positively related to job satisfaction. Family-supportive supervision was also relatively more important in predicting these variables than formal supports such as schedule flexibility and benefit availability. Another study found that higher levels of family-supportive supervision were related to less work-family conflict and higher job satisfaction (McManus, Korabik, Rosin, & Kelloway, 2002). This study also demonstrated that these relationships were similar for both male and female employees. In addition they found that the relationship between family-supportive supervision and job satisfaction was at least partly mediated by family-supportive organizational perceptions. Thompson and Prottas (2006) found that family-supportive supervision was positively related to job satisfaction and that this relationship was mediated by perceived control. One study was unable to find a relationship between family-supportive supervision and job satisfaction (Clark, 2001).

Organizational commitment. In an earlier section of this dissertation I explained that based on social exchange theory it is believed that when employees feel supported by the organization they develop a positive social exchange relationship leading them to become emotionally attached and committed to the organization. A meta-analytic study found that supervisor support was moderately-strongly related to positive organizational perceptions which were in turn strongly associated with organizational commitment (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Rhoades, Eisenberg and Armeli (2001) also found that supervisor support leads to positive organizational

perceptions which in turn increased organizational commitment. Kidd and Smewing (2001) found that specific aspects of supervisor support such as goal setting, providing feedback, and conveying trust and respect were associated with greater organizational commitment.

There is some evidence that family-supportive supervision is related to organizational commitment. Allen (2001) found that supervisor support was negatively related to work-family conflict and positively related to organizational commitment. Aryee, Luk, and Stone (1998) demonstrated that greater family-supportive supervision was related to increased organizational commitment. Thompson, Jahn, Kopelman, and Prottas (2004) also found that greater family-supportive supervision was associated with increased organizational commitment. Thompson and colleagues (1999) found no relationship between family-supportive supervision and organizational commitment after accounting for other aspects of the work-family culture (e.g., career consequences and organizational time demands).

Withdrawal behaviors. When employees are committed to the organization they are less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviors. Withdrawal behaviors may include tardiness, absenteeism, and voluntary turnover. A study by Mansell, Brough, and Cole (2006) collected data at three time points over two years, and were able to demonstrate that more supervisor support was consistently related to low turnover intentions. McFadden and Demetriou (1993) found that supervisor support was one factor that distinguished between work groups with high and low turnover. Firth, Mellor, Moore, and Loquet (2004) found evidence that increased supervisor support

indirectly decreased employee turnover by increasing organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Rhoades and colleagues (2001) found that supervisor support contributed to perceived organizational support which was in turn positively related to organizational commitment. They also showed that the relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover was mediated by organizational commitment. A longitudinal study found that supervisor support contributed to perceptions of organizational support which was in turn related to employee retention (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002). A meta-analysis also demonstrated that supervisor support was positively associated with perceived organizational support which was in turn negatively related to actual turnover, turnover intentions, and other withdrawal behavior (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Another mechanism by which supervisor support may decrease turnover is by reducing employee stress and strain (Firth et al., 2004). Brotheridge and Lee (2005) found that increased supervisor support was both directly related to lower turnover intentions and indirectly related to turnover intentions through its association with lower work distress. A study involving medical staff at long-term care facilities indicated that low supervisor support was associated with increased stress, which was in turn related to higher turnover intentions (Schaefer & Moos, 1993).

In the work-family literature there is some evidence that family-supportive supervision may lower work-family conflict thereby reducing withdrawal behaviors. Aryee and colleagues (1998) demonstrated that greater family-supportive supervision was related to decreased turnover. Thompson and colleagues (1999) also found that

higher levels of family-supportive supervision were related to lower turnover intentions. Another study found that family-supportive supervision was negatively related to turnover intentions even after accounting for general supervisor support (Hammer et al., 2009). Thompson, Jahn, Kopelman, and Prottas (2004) found that greater family-supportive supervision was associated with less job searching behavior. One study found that higher family-supportive supervision linked to lower turnover intentions through its relationship with lower work-family conflict (Barrah et al., 2004). Allen (2001) found that supervisor support was negatively related to work-family conflict and turnover intentions. Behson (2005) found that increased family-supportive supervision was related to lower work-family conflict, stress, and turnover intentions. In addition, they were able to demonstrate that informal supports including family supportive supervision were relatively more important in predicting these variables than formal supports such as schedule flexibility and benefit availability. However, they were unable to demonstrate that family-supportive supervision was related to absenteeism. A study by Thompson and Prottas (2006) found that family-friendly supervision was related to decreased turnover intentions, however this relationships was mediated by perceived control.

Summary

Family-supportive supervision is one of several work-life constructs that has been indentified as interest in informal work-life supports has grown recently. Other informal supports include perceived organizational support and work-family culture. These constructs are interrelated yet each contributes some unique piece to our

understanding of informal work-life supports (Allen, 2001; Hammer et al., 2007). The construct of family-supportive supervision is largely informed by the general social support literature (Caplan et al., 1975; House, 1981) which distinguishes between several different varieties (e.g., emotional, informational, and instrumental) and sources of support (e.g., spouse, friend, coworker, supervisor). The construct of family-supportive supervision has been shown to have four dimensions: emotional support, instrumental support, role modeling, and creative work-family management (Hammer et al., 2009). Family-supportive supervision has been linked to reduces stress and strain (e.g., lower stress (Behson, 2005; Thompson & Prottas, 2006), emotional exhaustion(Thompson, Kirk, & Brown, 2005b), work-family conflict (Kossek et al., In press), cardiovascular risk factors (Berkman et al., 2010); and longer sleep (Berkman et al., 2010)) as well as improved organizational outcomes (e.g., greater job performance (Clark, 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), job satisfaction (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Behson, 2005; Frye & Breaugh, 2004; Hammer et al., 2009; Thompson et al., 2006) and organizational commitment (Allen, 2001; Aryee et al., 1998; Thompson et al., 2004), and lower withdrawal behaviors (Allen, 2001; Aryee et al., 1998; Behson, 2005; Hammer et al., 2009; Thompson et al., 1999; Thompson et al., 2004)). The link between family-supportive supervision and these important employee and organizational outcomes demonstrated the importance of understanding the antecedents of family-supportive supervision and how it could be increased.

Chapter 3: Conceptual Grounding and Research on the Predictors of Family-

Supportive Supervision

Systems Theory

Researchers have suggested that systems theory provides an appropriate

theoretical context for work-family research (Frankel, 1998; Grzywacz & Marks,

2000; Hammer et al., 2007; Hammer, Neal et al., 2005). Some of the branches of

systems theory that are most relevant to work-family research include: open systems

theory (Katz & Kahn, 1978), family systems theory (Day, 1995), and ecological

systems theory (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). Open systems theory suggests that

organizations can be viewed as social systems where the behavior of the social system

is largely determined by the social structure (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Within

organizations actors engage in patterns of behavior that are determined, to a

considerable extent by roles, norms and values. Organizations lack the built-in

feedback loops that biological and mechanical systems have to regulate their behavior.

Thus, they create socially contrived roles, norms and values to help to stabilize or

otherwise manipulate the systems dynamic behavior. Managers play an important role

in controlling, coordinating and directing individual agents and subsystems within the

organization. They also play an important role in shaping the way the organization

interacts with its environment.

Families can also be viewed as social systems. Family systems theory

recognized that individuals are often embedded in families, which are embedded in

communities (Day, 1995). A family system is also composed of smaller sub-systems (e.g., marital dyad, and parent-child relationships) and individuals (Hayden et al., 1998). In order to understand an individual's behavior one must consider the individual's family and community contexts. Events that occur in the family setting are not viewed in isolation. The theory recognizes that family members interact in repetitious and predictable patterns. Another important component to this theory is the idea of boundaries. Boundaries can be used to delineate which family members participate in a particular sub-system and how they interact, or to understand how families interact with their environment. Work-family researchers have drawn on the idea that family members can not be understood in isolation. An example of this is the study of the crossover of stress and strain from one spouse to another (Hammer, Allen, & Grigsby, 1997; Westman, 2001; Westman & Etzion, 1995; Westman & Vinokur, 1998). Although there are a small number of work-family studies considering these couple-level dynamics, they are still a very small minority, and studies considering parent-child dynamics are even fewer (Eby, Maher, & Butts, 2010). Another important message that the work-family researcher and practitioners may draw from family systems theory is that the most effective interventions are those which involve multiple parts of the system (Day, 1995). For family therapists this means including all family members; for work-family researchers and practitioners, however, this could mean looking for solutions at the individual, family, organizational, and community levels.

Another area of systems theory that seems very applicable to understanding the work-family dynamic is ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998; Grzywacz, 2002). Bronfenbrenner and Morris (1998) use the term "mesosystem" to describe two or more systems linked by interactions with one or more individuals who are embedded in both systems. Therefore, we can consider an individual's work and family a mesosystem. It is at this level that emergent properties such as work-family conflict and positive spillover occur. From an ecological systems perspective, a system that is open and responsive to a resource rich environment will develop or become more organized over time. At the work-family level, development may mean a more satisfactory fit of one's multiple roles, or a synergy among roles, such that the combination of roles leads to better functioning in one or more roles.

Proximal processes drive the system's development. Proximal processes have been defined as increasingly complex reciprocal interactions between a person and other people, objects, or symbols in their immediate environment, which take place consistently over an extended period of time (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). Family-supportive supervision could be considered one form of proximal process as employees and their supervisors negotiate strategies to help the employee meet family obligations while at the same time maintaining an expectable level of performance.

Ecological systems theory states that the effect of proximal processes on the functioning of the system will be moderated by individual traits, contextual characteristics, the outcome under investigation, and the course of time (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). Although individual traits and contextual

characteristics have been incorporated into work-family models (Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997), the role of proximal processes has not been explored. This is likely due to the difficult nature of studying these types of dynamic interpersonal interactions.

One of the fundamental concepts of in all of these branchs of systems theory is the idea of levels. In a multilevel perspective it is important to recognize that "micro phenomena are embedded in macro context and that macro phenomena often emerge through the interaction and dynamics of lower-level elements (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000, p. 6)." Using a multilevel perspective helps researchers to develop a more integrated understanding of how phenomena develop across multiple levels in a system. Though most organizational theories describe organizations as multilevel systems, the impact of these theories on research has mainly been metaphorical. Hammer and colleagues (2007) have emphasized the need for organizational actions to improve work-family conflict that target multiple levels e.g., (policies and benefits at the organizational-level as well as the informal practices at the supervisor-level).

Family-supportive supervision emerges out of interactions in the supervisor-employee dyad. Research has indicated that supervisors do not offer the same level of family-supportive supervision to all employees (Foley et al., 2006; Sundin, Bildt, Lisspers, Hochwalder, & Setterlind, 2006; Thompson et al., 2006; Winfield & Rushing, 2005). These differences can be attributed to characteristics of the employee, the nature of the employee's job, or similarities between the supervisor and the employee. This research is discussed in depth later on in this dissertation. Despite

some variability in the amount of support offered to individual employees there is

some level of family-supportive supervision that is shared at the workgroup level by

all employees who interact with the same supervisor. At this level family-supportive

supervision will likely be affected by supervisor, work group and organizational-level

factors. To date, the majority of the research in the work-life literature has focused on

the individual, employee level predictors (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, &

Lambert, 2007). These studies have failed to account for the nested nature of

employees within a larger work group. In addition, since data is only collected from

one source, the employee little is known about factors at the supervisor or

organizational level that might impact supervisor support. This dissertation uses a

hierarchical design to examine the importance of employee and supervisor level

variables in predicting both individual-level and supervisor-level family-supportive

supervision.

While this dissertation focuses on employee and supervisor level factors that

might shape family-supportive supervision it is important to keep in mind factors at

other levels that might influence family-supportive supervision as well. One study

looking at factors at many levels found that supervisors were more likely to allow an

employee to make use of flexible work arrangements when the most common job in

the department required a higher degree (department-level), the organization was a

consulting firm (organizational-level), the job market was tight (regional or national-

level) (den Dulk & de Ruijter, 2008). This example illustrates some of the many forces

that influence family supportive supervision outside of the employee-supervisor dyad.

Previous Research on the Predictors of Supervisor Support

Supervisor Gender and Work-family Experience

Little is known about the antecedents of supervisor support. The research that has been done focuses largely on the demographic characteristics of supervisors, the demographic or job characteristics of employees, or the demographic similarity of supervisor and subordinate. Several studies have found that female supervisors provided more family-supportive supervision than male supervisors (Berry, 1999; Parker, 2001; Parker & Allen, 2002). Research has revealed that men more strongly prescribe to traditional gender roles, are more likely to believe that women with children are less committed to their job, and are less likely to feel that government or organizations should provide assistance to employees with children (Covin & Brush, 1993). Studies also indicate that women are more likely to use work-family policies and benefits than men (Greenberger, Goldberg, Hamill, O'Neil, & et al., 1989; Thompson et al., 1999). Additionally, Parker and Allen (2001) found that female employees and employees who had used work-family policies and benefits in the past rated work-family policies and benefits as more fair than male employees. Grover (1991) also found that female faculty perceived a paid parental leave policy to be more fair than male faculty. Thus, female supervisors may be more sympathetic and accommodating of their subordinates' work-family needs.

Other research has indicated that a supervisor's family composition or experience may predict the level of family-supportive supervision they offer their subordinates. One study found supervisors with children younger than 18 at home

offered more family-supportive supervision than those without children at home.

Another study found that supervisors with greater parental responsibilities were more

flexible (Parker, 2001). Berry (1999) found that supervisor characteristics such as

higher identification with family roles, having eldercare responsibilities, more

personal experience with work-family conflict, and using organizational family

policies were related to increased family supportive supervision. Research indicates

that people who stand to benefit from work-life policies or who are similar to those

who stand to benefit from these policies (e.g., are of childbearing years, have children,

are likely to have children, or are likely to use policies) perceive them to be fairer than

those who are not in a position to benefit from these policies (Grover, 1991).

Employee and Job Related Characteristics

There is very little research how characteristics of the employee or their job

might impact supervisor support. The study found that employee characteristics such

as being over 60 years-old, not having a college education, and low interpersonal trust

were related to less general supervisor support (Sundin et al., 2006). The study also

found that job related factors such as being in management rather than white or blue

collar jobs, having high demands, a high amount of control, and interesting work were

related to greater supervisor support. Another study found that supervisors were more

likely to grant requests for flexibility if the employee was a woman, did not mange

other employees, or worked in a department where the most common job required a

higher degree (den Dulk & de Ruijter, 2008).

Supervisor–Subordinate Similarity

Leader-member exchange theory posits that supervisors treat their subordinates differently depending on the quality of their social exchanges with the subordinate (Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997). One of the variables shown to enhance the quality of social exchanges is attitude similarity (Phillips & Bedeian, 1994; Turban, Jones, & Rozelle, 1990). Research has shown that subordinate perceptions of supervisor work-family value similarity predicted increased family supportive supervision (Thompson et al., 2006).

There is mixed evidence about whether demographic similarities affect family supportive supervision. The social relations perspective suggests people classify themselves and others into social groups (Winfield & Rushing, 2005). This is believed to be particularly true in organizational settings where people are less likely to have detailed interpersonal information about others. These categories help people to make attributions about another person's intentions and motivations. People are socially attracted to others in similar categories. Therefore, they are more likely to interact with and have cohesive relationships with people who are more similar to themselves. A study in the general supervisor support literature found that supervisors had more social attraction to employees that were similar to them in gender, education and job tenure. They were not able to show that similarity in race was related to supervisors' social attraction to their subordinates. In the work-family literature, one study found that family-friendly supervision was higher when supervisor and subordinate were similar on gender and race (Foley et al., 2006). Winfield and Rushing (2005) found

that gender and racial similarity were positively related to interactional family-supportive supervision but not instrumental family-supportive supervision. They were not able to show that similarity in caregiving responsibilities was related to family-supportive supervision.

Benefit Availability, Percentage of Female Employees and Work-Family Culture

A few studies have looked at organizational level predictors of family supportive supervision. Foley and colleagues (2006) found that benefit availability and work-family culture were positively related to family supportive supervision. Berry (1999) found that supervisors in organizations with a higher percentage of female employees offered more family-supportive supervision. Another study found that organizations with a higher percentage of female employees had a stronger work-family culture (Lyness & Kropf, 2005).

Chapter 4: Aims of this Dissertation

Multilevel Design

The study of family-supportive supervision is a multi-level problem. I have

presented research and theory illustrating that supervisor support is not equal for all of

the subordinates of a supervisor. For this reason, it is important to measure family-

supportive supervision at the employee level. Yet the predictors of supervisor support

occur at multiple levels such as the organizational level, the supervisor level, or the

employee level. There has been very little research on the predictors of of family-

supportive supervision. The research designs that have been used in the literature thus

far either measure all of these variables on the employee level (Eby et al., 2005).

Measuring work-group level variables at the individual level fails to account to for the

nesting of employees within organizations or supervisors. This may skew the

interpretation of study results. Aggregating all responses to the group level does not

allow the researcher to distinguish between the variability in supervisor support that is

specific to the individual employee and that which is shared by all subordinates of a

supervisor. This study will incorporate a multilevel design in order to more accurately

study the employee-level and supervisor-level predictors of family-supportive

supervision.

Supervisor Level Predictors of Family-Supportive Supervision

Reward Systems

Organizational reward systems serve two main functions. The first is to

provide employees with guidelines and feedback about their job performance. The

second is to guide the distribution of rewards in the form of raises, bonuses and other

such incentives. Reward systems are believed to be a powerful tool for helping

organizations initiate change and implement organizational strategies (Lei, Slocum, &

Pitts, 1999; Lei, Slocum, & Slater, 1990). When I reviewed open systems theory I

stated that organizations create roles, norms and values to stabilize or otherwise

control the dynamic behavior of the organizational social system. A reward system

delineates the relationship between the employee and the organization by clarifying

the norms and values that are important (Lei et al., 1990).

Family-supportive supervision could be conceptualized as a type of motivated

behavior. Expectancy theory is a classic motivation theory that could be used to

explain how reward system may impact family supportive supervision. The basic

premise of expectancy theory is that individuals are basically self-serving and will

make choices to maximize their outcomes (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). Expectancy

theory suggests that employee motivation is affected by three components: 1) the

expectancy, or expected probability that efforts will lead to performance, 2)

instrumentality, or the belief that performance will be rewarded, and 3) valence, or the

employee's desire for the reward. Reward systems strive to influence motivation by

delineating performance expectations, to increase perceptions of instrumentality, and

by instituting desirable rewards, to increase valence (Pappas & Flaherty, 2006; Rynes

& Gerhart, 2000). Recently researchers have suggested that organizations would be

more effective at reducing work-family conflict if they had reward systems to

encourage the implementation of work–family policies (Poelmans & Sahibzada,

2004). Some organizations have started experimenting with performance metrics and reward systems to encourage supervisors to take work-family issues seriously (Regan, 1994) but, to date there is no known research on the effectiveness of these programs. Based on expectancy theory, I propose that the more strongly supervisors' believe that they will be rewarded for assisting employees with their work-life needs the more family-supportive supervision they will provide.

> Hypothesis 1: Supervisors' belief that they will be rewarded for assisting employees with their work-life needs will be positively related to employee's perceived family-supportive supervision.

Productivity Maintenance

The performance of managers is often judged by their ability to meet organizational objectives. As such, they may be hesitant to support employees in taking advantage of work-life policies that may cause a disruption to productivity. At the same time, employees can be valuable human capital, the loss which could also negatively impact productivity. In earlier sections of this dissertation I reviewed research indicating that higher levels of work-family conflict are associated with poor health and a variety of negative organizational outcomes including turnover. Thus, mangers must look to ways to accommodate and support workers in managing their work-life responsibilities without disrupting productivity (den Dulk & de Ruijter, 2008).

Productivity maintenance has been defined as "the extent that an organization has effective and well-developed procedures to handle the work of all employees

when work/family benefits are used" (Parker & Allen, 2001, p. 456). Experts in the

work-life field have suggested that managers talk with the employee using work-life

benefits and develop a plan to assure that the office work flow will not be interrupted

(Harris, 1997). One important aspect of assuring that the work-flow will not be

interrupted is assuring that there is adequate communication between the employee,

their supervisor and their coworkers about who will fill in on timely tasks and when

and how the tasks should be done. One study found that common ways of reallocating

work while an employee was on family leave were part-time hiring, reassignment, and

rearrangement of team work. In addition, the authors found that employees who

believed that teamwork management made covering family leave easier rated the

impact of family leave on productivity, work satisfaction, and job commitment more

positively (Kim, 2001). Strategies like cross-training could further improve

productivity maintenance.

      If the supervisor does not have well-developed procedures that assure that

users and nonusers of work-life benefits can effectively perform their work they may

fear that the productivity of their work group will drop if they provide family-

supportive supervision. Thus, based on the expectancy theory of motivation, lack of

good performance maintenance procedures may decrease expectancy, or the belief that

providing family-supportive supervision will allow supervisors to meet their

performance objectives. One study found that managers were less likely to grant

requests for alternative work arrangements if the request was more disruptive to

performance; for example if the request was for vacation rather than a change in work

location or if it came from a person who performed a critical task or had specialized

training (Powell & Mainiero, 1999).

Hypothesis 2: The strength of the supervisor's productivity maintenance

planning will be positively related to employee's perceived family-supportive

supervision.

Salience of Changing Workforce

The strategic choice perspective of organizational adaptation seeks to explain

factors that affect supervisors' perceptions and interpretations of events (Milliken,

1990), and on how supervisors' interpretations impact organizational choices

(Milliken et al., 1998). This perspective assumes that supervisors are faced with more

issues than they have time or energy to respond to, therefore, issues have to compete

with one another for the supervisors' attention (Dutton & Ashford, 1993). To take this

further, authors have suggested that in order for action to occur, an issue must first be

noticed and then must be seen as *relevant* to organizational objectives (Daft & Weick,

1984; Milliken, 1990; Milliken et al., 1998). In the beginning of this dissertation I

outlined a variety of changes in the workforce that have spurred organizations'

interests in work-life initiatives. Surveys of human resource executives throughout the

United States found that companies that had HR executives that were aware of

national changes in the workforce and the needs of their specific workforce were more

responsive to work-family needs (Milliken et al., 1998).

Work-family practitioners suggest that offering training that educates

managers about changes in the demographic and social values of the workforce may

increase their supportiveness (Regan, 1994). Kirchmeyer (2000) states that in order to move work-life initiatives to a strategic level where they will impact organizational performance "organizational leaders must examine their basic assumptions or theories in use (p. 90)." One of these assumptions is that work and non-work are separate worlds and that non-work responsibilities are not the concern of organizations. This belief was fostered in the American society by the changing nature of work and living arrangements during and after the industrial revolution, as well as the distinctly separate gender roles of men and women that formed during this time (Kanter, 1977). Today the traditional nuclear family, with a working father and a stay-at-home wife, is a minority. Based on strategic choice perspective I propose that when supervisors are more aware of these changing trends and how they could impact organizational objectives they will likely provide family supportive supervision.

Research question 1: The salience of changes in the workforce to supervisors will be positively related to employee's perceived family-supportive supervision.

Belief in Business Case

One of the major premises of the strategic human resource management perspective is that having a highly qualified workforce that is committed to quality can provide a competitive advantage (Barney, 1991). Under this perspective work-family supports contribute to organizational performance by helping to recruit and retain valuable human capital (Kossek & Friede, 2006). Despite the evidence reviewed earlier in this dissertation about the positive organizational outcomes associated with both formal and informal work-life supports, many organizational leaders remain unconvinced that there is a business case for work family policies. A study that examined HR practitioners' attitudes about the United Kingdom's business case approach to promoting work-life initiatives found that less that 20% of participants felt that governmental policies such as maternity leave, paternity leave and emergency medical leave would have positive organizational impacts (Roper, Cunningham, & James, 2003). In light of these attitudes, work-life experts suggest that illuminating the business case for work-family support may go a long way toward encouraging managers to be more supportive (Kossek & Friede, 2006; Regan, 1994).

As I discussed earlier, the strategic choice perspective states that supervisors will act upon issues only when the issue is noticed and considered relevant. I have discussed factors that may impact whether supervisors take notice of work-family issues. One major factor influencing the relevance of work-life Issues for supervisors is likely to be whether they think that there is a business case for offering work-life

supports. Milliken and colleagues (1998) used the strategic choice perspective as a basis for their study of factors that impacted the availability of work-life policies and benefits at different organizations. They found that organizations were more likely to offer work-life policies and benefits when they had HR executives who believed that work-family issues impacted productivity. Another study found that the likelihood of granting flexible work arrangements was greater for HR professionals who had a stronger belief in the business case for flexibility (Brennan et al., 2011).

Expectancy theory may also help explain how a belief in the business case for work-family issues would influence supervisors' willingness to offer family supportive supervision. As I explained earlier, expectancy theory states that motivation is affected by three components: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. The belief that there is a business case for work-family support may increase perceptions of instrumentality, or supervisor's beliefs that family-supportive supervision will lead to desired outcomes. In support of this proposition, one study found that program instrumentality perceptions were related to supervisors' referrals to work-family programs (Casper, Fox, Sitzmann, & Landy, 2004). Based on both strategic choice perspective and expectancy theory I propose that the more strongly supervisors believe that there is a business case for offering work-life support, the more family-supportive supervision they will provide.

Hypothesis 3: Supervisors' belief that there is a business case for work-life support will be positively related to employees' perceived family-supportive supervision.

Awareness of Policies and Benefits

Many traditional personnel practices are devolving to supervisors (Bond & Wise, 2003). One implication is that supervisors are increasingly becoming the gatekeepers in providing employees access to work-life policies and benefits. In a theoretical paper Poelmans and Sahibzada (2004) suggest that organizations will be more effective at reducing work-family conflict if their work-family policies and procedures are more fully communicated. Research has shown that supervisors are employees' main source of information about work-life policies and benefits (Liddicoat, 2003). Thus, it is critical that supervisors be well informed about these policies. Casper and colleagues (2004) found that program awareness related to employee referrals to work-family programs. Unfortunately, research indicates that work-life policies are applied inconsistently (Bond & Wise, 2003; Casper et al., 2004). This inconsistency was attributed to limited supervisor training on work-life policies and benefits and patchy knowledge about these policies and benefits (Bond & Wise, 2003). Given this framework, I propose that supervisors who are more aware of work-life policies and benefits will provide a greater level of family supportive supervision.

Hypothesis 4: Supervisors' awareness of work-life policies and benefits will be positively related to employees' perceived family-supportive supervision.

Role Modeling

Social learning theory suggests that individuals learn not only through their own experience but also through the example of others (Bandura, 1977). Behavioral modeling, a supervisor training technique based on this theory has been shown to be

effective in teaching a wide variety of skills including complex interpersonal

exchanges such as assertive communication and counseling skills (Baldwin, 1992).

While this is a formal training technique, based on social learning theory it is also

likely that supervisors learn a lot about how to provide support to their subordinates

from the way their supervisor provides support to them. Work-family experts suggest

that supervisors will be more likely to provide family-supportive supervision if upper

and middle managers encourage this both in what they say and do (Regan, 1994).

Social exchange theory may also be useful in understanding how the level of support

supervisors offer their subordinates may be influenced by the level of support their

supervisor offers them. Research has shown that service employees who felt that they

had been treated fairly (Masterson, 2001) or were supported by their organization

(Bell & Menguc, 2002) treated customers better. This social exchange approach has

also been extended to the impact of supervisors' received support on the support they

extend to their employees. Tepper and Taylor (2003) found that supervisors who

perceived that they had been treated more fairly by the organization were reported, by

their subordinates, to provide more assistance with difficult assignments, be more

helpful in skill building, and be more respectful. Shanock and Eisenberger (2006)

found that supervisors' perceived organizational support was positively related to the

level of supervisor support reported by their subordinates. Add to this finding research

using casual modeling that indicates that there is a temporal relationship between

supervisor support and perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 2002) and

it is reasonable to suggest that the level of support supervisors receive from their

supervisors may increase their perceived organizational support. Their perceived

organizational support may in turn lead them to be more supportive of their

subordinates. Based on social learning theory and social exchange theory I propose

that supervisors will provide more family-supportive supervision if this behavior is

modeled to them by their superior.

Hypothesis 5: The level of family-supportive supervision that supervisors

receive from their superior will be positively associated with employee's

perceived family-supportive supervision.

Employee Level Predictors of Family-Supportive Supervision

Support Sought

The stress, social support, and coping paradigm states that coping behavior,

such as seeking social support, can be an important buffer between stress and health

outcomes (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The social support literature distinguishes

between the availability of social support and the seeking of social support. The

former is viewed as a coping resource while the later is viewed as a coping strategy

(Thoits, 1995). One study found that a training designed to increase family-supportive

supervision had more positive effects on job satisfaction and turnover intentions for

employees who were high in family-to-work conflict (Hammer et al., 2011). One

conceivable explanation is that these employees, having a greater need, sought support

from their supervisors and the supervisors responded with greater support. Research

has also shown that social support seeking, among other coping behaviors, is related to

better well-being in working women with family responsibilities (Rao, Apte, &

Subbakrishna, 2003). In addition, Kline and Snow (1994) found that a coping

intervention designed to reduce work-family stress by emphasizing the importance of

building strong social networks and teaching effective communication skills resulted

in increased support from work sources, lower work related stress, lower work-family

stress, and lower psychological symptoms. Family-supportive supervision can be

considered a form of social support. Work-family researchers have suggested that

individual variability in the level of family-supportive supervision that supervisors

offer may be affected by the perceived needs of the employee or the employee's

willingness to solicit support (Foley et al., 2006). Based on this framework, I propose

that supervisors will provide more family-supportive supervision when employees

have actively sought this type of support.

Hypothesis 6: Employee's perceived family-supportive supervision will be

higher for employees who have sought support than for employees who have

not expressed a need.

In addition, I would like to explore whether any of the supervisor-level

predictors mentioned previously moderate the relationship between support sought and

family-supportive supervision.

Research Question 2: Do supervisor-level factors (e.g., reward system,

productivity maintenance, salience of changing workforce, belief in business

case, awareness of organizational policies and benefits, role-modeling)

moderate the relationship between support sought and employee's perceived

family-supportive supervision.

Work-Family Conflict

As I reviewed earlier in this dissertation, several studies have suggested that greater family-supportive supervision is related to lower work-family conflict (Allen, 2001; Erdwins et al., 2001; Frye & Breaugh, 2004; Kossek et al., In press; Mennino et al., 2005). The most recent was a meta-analysis by Kossek et al. (In press) which found that both general supervisor support and family-supportive supervision were negatively related to work-family conflict in both directions (work-to-family and family-to-work). Family-supportive supervision however, was more strongly related to work-family conflict than general supervisor support. In addition, both types of supervisor support were more strongly associated with work-to-family conflict than family-to-work conflict. It has been suggested that social support from work sources is more likely to reduce work-related strain, whereas social support from family sources is more likely to reduce family-related strain (Goldsmith, 2007). Hammer and colleagues (2009) found that family-supportive supervision was negatively related to work-to-family conflict but was not related to family-to-work conflict. Despite this, it is still conventional examine both work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict when testing hypotheses in work-life research. Although the research described in this dissertation provides strong evidence of the association between family-supportive supervision and work-family conflict, only a few studies have examined these relationships using a multi-level design (Hammer et al., 2009). This dissertation seeks to confirm the association between family-supportive supervision and work-family conflict using a multi-level research design.

Hypothesis 7a: Perceived family-supportive supervision will be negatively

associated with work-to-family conflict.

Hypothesis 7b: Perceived family-supportive supervision will be negatively

associated with family-to-work conflict.

Summary

In summary, many articles have emphasized the need for management training

to increase family supportive supervision (Hammer et al., 2011; Maitland, 1998;

Milliken et al., 1998; Regan, 1994; Solomon, 1994). However, there is a lack of

research about the antecedents of family-supportive supervision, which might serve as

targets of such a training. This dissertation has three major aims: 1) to investigate

which of the supervisor-level (e.g., reward system, productivity maintenance, salience

of changing workforce, belief in business case, awareness of organizational policies

and benefits, role-modeling) and employee-level (e.g., support sought) factors are

most strongly related to family-supportive supervision; 2) to explore whether

supervisor factors moderate the relationship between support sought by employees and

family-supportive supervision; 3) and to use a multilevel design to confirm the

association between family-supportive supervision and work-family conflict.

Chapter 5: Method

Design and Procedure

Sample

This study used a cross-sectional, two-level (e.g., supervisor, and employee) hierarchical design. The data were collected from supervisors (Nurse Managers) and employees (Nurses) at five hospitals in the Pacific Northwest using scannable forms. A total of 861 employee surveys and 69 supervisor surveys were collected. Only employees who had some level of family responsibility were included in the final sample. The selection criteria included; being married or living with a partner, having a child(ren), or providing one or more hours of eldercare per day. Applying the selection criteria reduced the employee sample size to N=757. Selecting only supervisors who had employees in the final employee sample left 67 supervisors. A detailed description of the sample is provided in the results section.

Procedure

Before beginning the main study I conducted interviews with 2 nurse researchers, 5 nurse managers and 5 nurses to get feedback about the scales that were developed for this dissertation (e.g. reward system, salience of changing workforce, belief in business case, and sought help). The measurement of these constructs is discussed later in this dissertation. I started by asking them all of the questions measuring one construct. Then I asked them to comment on the clarity of the items. I then explained to them what I was trying to measure and asked them if there were any

important components of that construct that the scales missed. I repeated this for each

construct. No new items were added, but minor modifications were made to the items.

Hospitals were recruited by emailing the Managers of Nursing Research with a

brief explanation of what I was studying and asking if they would be willing to help

me get access to the Nurse Managers and their Nurses. I contacted Nurse Managers at

seven different hospitals through contacts that my committee members and I had, and

five agreed to participate. All but one hospital required that I go through their IRB in

addition to going through my university's IRB.

Next I recruited Supervisors. Supervisors were recruited at managers meetings,

for each hospital I attended the managers meeting two months in a row, giving a short

presentation about the project and passing around a sign-up sheet where I collected the

supervisors name, unit and email address. When a supervisor signed up, I assigned

them an ID number. I kept a separate password protected spreadsheet linking the

supervisor indentifying information and ID number to protect their confidentiality. I

hand delivered a survey, consent form, and instructions in a self-addressed envelope

for each supervisor. I also enclosed a couple of chocolates as a thank-you in advance

for their participation. I then followed up with an email thanking them for talking with

me and agreeing to participate. The email also reiterated some instructions for

participation, for example how to returning the survey, and how I would contact them

to set up times to contact their employees once I got their survey back. I sent up to two

email reminders to encourage supervisors to return their surveys. If I did not hear back

I by phone to remind them one last time. In total 75 supervisors were recruited, and 69

returned their surveys giving me a response rate of 92%. It should be noted that I had to omit 2 supervisors from the analyses. One supervisor was dropped because I was not able to schedule data collection with her employees, and the other supervisor was dropped because none of her employees met the selection criteria for inclusion in the analyses. Thus, my final sample contained 67 supervisors.

Once I received a supervisor's survey in the mail I emailed her to scheduled a week to collect data with her employees. If I did not hear back via email I contacted the supervisor by phone or made a visit to her office. In order to link the supervisor and their employees I created and ID number for each employee survey. The first two characters in the ID number were a code for the site, the next three characters were a code for the supervisor and the final three characters were a code for the employee. In order to recruit employees I visited a unit every other day for a week, during two to three shifts per day so that I could reach as many employees as possible. If a supervisor was willing and available I asked that they introduce me to the nurses and express their support for the project at least once. I gave the employees a very brief introduction to the study either at a shift change meeting or with each employee one-on-one as I could catch them between tasks. I then gave them a survey and a manila envelope to seal the survey in. They were allowed time on the clock to fill out the surveys. I encouraged them to fill out the surveys during their shift but I gave them two weeks to get them filled out. I explained to the unit that I would bring bagels and cream cheese if I got back at least 12 surveys (or at least 50% on smaller units). I

passed out 1261 surveys, 861 were returned giving me an employee response rate of 68.28%

Sample Size and Power

When testing multi-level regression models the sample size at the highest level (supervisors) is generally the most restrictive on power. Snijders and Bosker (1999) suggest that when designing a multi-level analysis the requirements on the ratio of level-2 predictors to level-2 units are at minimum as stringent as the sample size requirements for a single-level regression analysis. A commonly used rule of thumb for the ratio of predictors (P) to participants is $50+8(P)$ (Cohen, 2001). I had six main predictors at level-2, thus, based on this rule of thumb I aimed for a sample size of 98 supervisors. The power to test the effect of a level-2 predictor is also dependent on several other factors besides the number of level-2 units (J). These factors include: the average number of participants per cluster (n); the interclass correlation (ρ); the effect size (δ); and the significance level. There were no prior studies to estimate what values of ρ and δ to expect for this dissertation. Therefore, I created two figures using Optimal Design for Multi-Level and Longitudinal Research v1.55 (Liu, Spybrook, Congdon, & Raudenbush, 2005), a power analysis program for multi-level regression, to illustrate how power may vary as a function of ρ and δ across different values of J and *n*, see Figures 7 and 8. I chose to let δ vary from .25 - .4 to represent the range of small-moderate effect sizes that I expect to find. As δ increases power also increases. I chose to let ρ vary from .05-.15, this represents a range of interclass correlations that is

commonly seen in social research. You can see that holding other factors constant, as

ρ decreases, power increases.

Figure 2. Power to Detect the Effect of a Level-2 Predictor as a Function of the

Average Number of Employees Per Supervisor ($J = 100$)
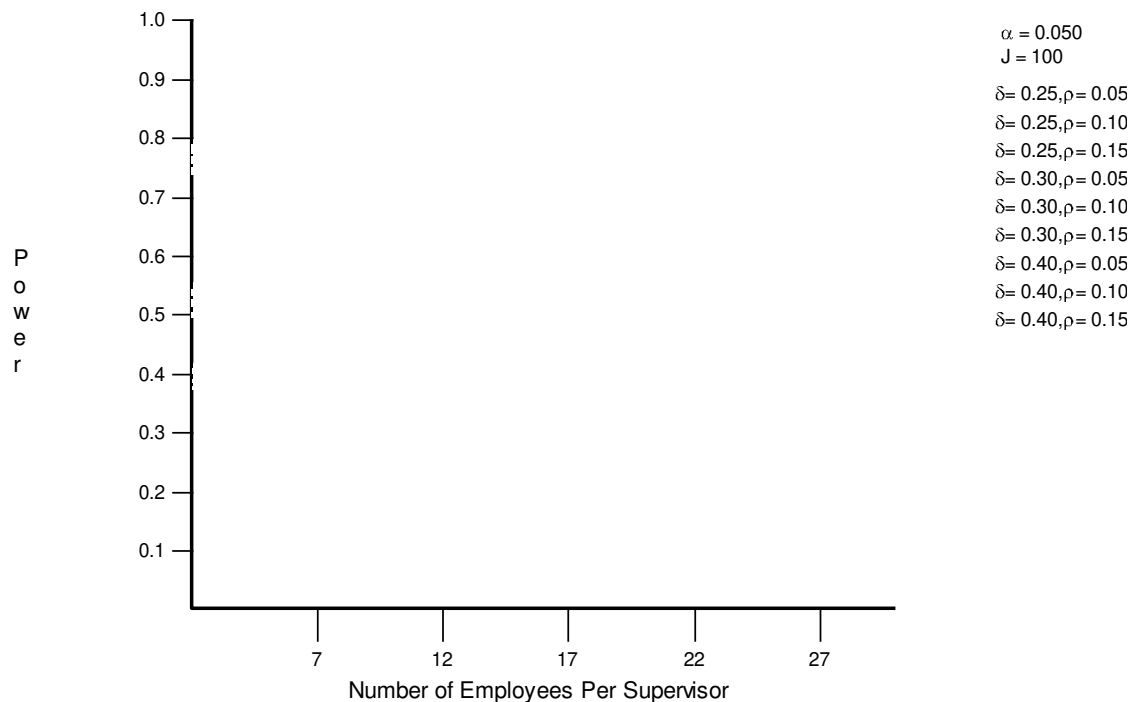
In Figure 2, *J* was set at 100 based in the rule of thumb sited above. This figure

indicates that with 100 supervisors I would have sufficient power (.80) to detect

a δ of .3 or greater at any of the chosen levels of ρ with 6 employees per supervisor.

Under these conditions I would need 19 employees per supervisors to achieve a power

of .80 with a δ of .25 and a ρ of .18.

In Figure 3, *n* was set at 10. This represented a worst case scenario. Figure 2

indicates that under this condition I would have sufficient power (.80) to detect a δ of

.3 or greater at with a ρ of .15 or lower with 84 supervisors. I would need 120

Figure 3. Power to Detect the Effect of a Level-2 Predictor as a Function of the

Number of Supervisors (*n* = 10)
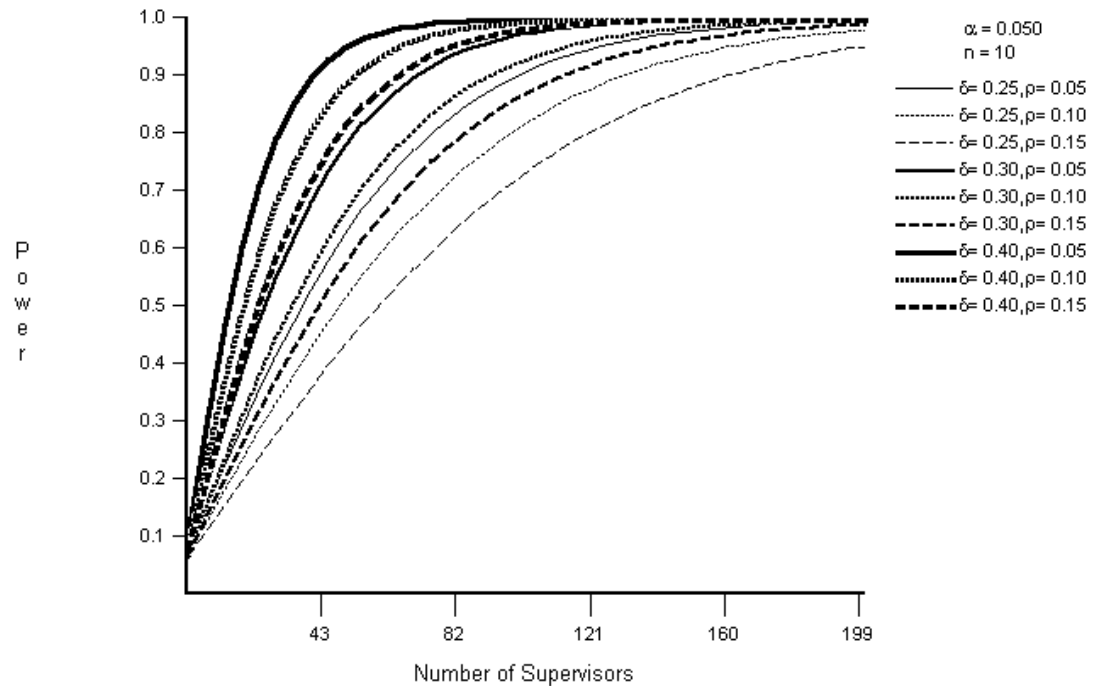
supervisors to achieve a power of .80 when δ was .25 and ρ was .15. Despite my best

efforts I was only able to recruit 67 supervisors. Thus, I was under-powered to test my

hypotheses.

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Measures

</div>

Missing Data

  Missing scale items were replaced by the participant's mean on the remaining

items for that scale if at least 75% if the items were answered. The largest percent

missing at the scale level was 6.0%. This was not determined to be substantial and thus no further missing data replacement strategies were used.

Supervisor Level Variables

Reward system. Reward system was measured using a three-item scale developed for this study. The items included: 1) "my organization rewards managers who are sensitive to employees' needs to balance work and personal life", 2) "my organization rewards managers who partner with individual employees to develop creative solutions to their specific work-life needs", and 3) "my organization rewards managers who assist employees in utilizing work-life benefits". Supervisors indicated their agreement on a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). These items were developed based on the recommendations of Regan (1994) who outlined objectives for supervisor reward systems that would facilitate work-family change initiatives. The total score was obtained by taking the mean of all items. Higher score indicate a better reward system. The Cronbach's Alpha for this sample was .93.

Productivity maintenance plan. Productivity maintenance plan was measured using five items adapted for supervisors from an employee scale developed by Parker and Allen (2001). A list of the items can be found in Appendix B. Supervisors responded on a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The total score was obtained by taking the mean of all items. Two negatively worded items were recoded so that higher scores would indicate a better productivity maintenance plan. The Cronbach's Alpha for this sample was .77.

Role modeling. Role modeling was measured by asking supervisors to indicate the level of family-supportive supervision they receive from their supervisor using the supervisor support scale developed by Shinn et al (1989). This scale contains nine items that ask about the frequency of specific family-supportive supervisory behaviors in the last six months. Responses are rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). The total score was computed by taking the mean of all items. Three negatively worded items were recoded so that high scores would indicate more support. See Appendix B for a list of items. The Cronbach's Alpha for this sample was .84.

Salience of changing workforce. In a method similar to that used by Milliken et al. (1998), salience of the changing workforce was measured by asking an open-ended question, ("Please list changes in the nature of families and/or the composition of the workforce that, in your opinion, have increased the importance of providing support to employees who are trying to balance work and non-work responsibilities"). Two coders coded responses into the following categories: 1) societal values, 2) working women, 3) dual earners, 4) single parents, 5) sandwiched generation, 6) eldercare, 7) demand for flexibility, 8) childcare arrangements, 9) attending school, 10) childrearing responsibilities, 11) female breadwinner, 12) grandchildren, 13) Aging workforce/personal health problems. The definition of each code and the percent agreement by code are presented in Table 1. The overall percent agreement was 94.71%. A total score was obtained by counting the number of categories mentioned by the respondent.

Table 1

Categories and Percent Agreement for Coding Salience of the Changing Workforce

Code	Definition	% Agreement
Societal values	Increased emphasis on father and/or mother spending quality time with children	96.10%
Working women	Increase in women in the workforce	97.40%
Single parents	Growing number of single mother/fathers Increased divorce rate	96.10%
Sandwiched generation	More employees caring for both children and parents	96.10%
Dual earners	Incease in homes where both parents work	97.40%
Eldercare	More employees caring for aging parents or aging spouse	93.51%
Demand for flexibility	Desire for increased flexibilty (4-day work week, part-time, per diem, flexwork, no weekends)	94.81%
Childcare arrangements	Lack of affordable or dependable daycare, preschool, afterschool care	96.10%
Attending school	Trying to manager college and work	100.00%
Childrearing responsibilities	Having a baby, caring for an infant, breast feeding, attending school activities, caring for a sick child, etc	85.71%
Female breadwinner	Female has larger income, female provides family's insurance, stay-at-home fathers	98.70%
Grandchildren	Caring for grandchildren	98.70%
Aging workforce/personal health problems	Employee health problems Doctors appointments Aging workforce	80.52%

Awareness of policies and benefits. Awareness of organizational policies was measured in a method similar to that used by Casper et al. (2004). Supervisors were asked whether or not their organization offered a list of work-life policies and benefits and how well informed they felt about each of the policies on a scale ranging from 1 (*not informed*) to 4 (*very well informed*), see Appendix B. A sub-set of the policies and benefits that 75% or more of participants reported were available in their organizations were used when computing scores. Items included: shiftwork, part-time work, unpaid leave to care for a family member, paid leave to care for a family member, personal time off (PTO)/vacation or other paid leave which can be used to care for a family member, flexible (PTO)/vacation (e.g.employees can take leave in smaller blocks of time, for example a half day off), family health care insurance, pension/retirement plan/401k, employee education plan, program that allows workers to set aside pre-tax dollars to pay for childcare, employee assistance program. Using this sub-set of benefits, a total score was computed by taking the mean of the policies and benefits that the supervisor indicated that were provided by their organization. The reliability for this sample as assessed using Cronbach's Alpha was .95.

Belief in business case. Belief in the business case was measured by asking supervisors how strongly they believe that providing support to employees trying to balance their work and family lives would leads to: 1) greater employee job satisfaction, 2) increased employee commitment, 3) better employee health, 4) less employee burnout, 5) fewer employee absences, 6) less employee turnover, 7) increased employee performance, and 8) increased organizational performance. The

response scale ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). This scale was

created for this study based on the review of the literature presented in this

dissertation. Specifically, the scale reflects research indicating that the largest

motivator for organizations to adopt work-life initiatives is the belief that doing so will

improve organizational performance (Bond et al., 2005). The items reflect specific

paths by which the literature suggests that supervisor support may impact

organizational performance. A total score was obtained by taking the mean of the

eight items. The Cronbach's Alpha for this sample was .96

     Supervisor control variables. Several demographic variables were measured as

possible control variables. Gender was included because previous research has

demonstrated that female supervisors provide more family-supportive supervision than

male supervisors (Berry, 1999; Parker, 2001; Parker & Allen, 2002). Gender was

coded 0 (*male*) and 1 (*female*). While coding the qualitative comments several older

supervisors expressed resentment about the younger generation's growing sense of

entitlement regarding work-life issues thus supervisor's age was added as a control

variable. Family-supportive supervision has also been linked to the level of family

responsibilities that supervisors report (Berry, 1999; Parker, 2001). In order to capture

supervisor's family responsibilities, marital status, having children, and elder care

responsibilities were measured. Marital status was recoded into the categories 0 (*not

married or living with a partner*) and 1 (*married or living with a partner*). Number of

children was recoded 0 (*no*) and 1 (*yes*). Elder care responsibilities was coded as 0

(*no*) and 1 (*yes*). While I was not able to find research linking tenure to family-

supportive supervision it seemed logical that there may be a relationship. The longer

supervisors have worked at an organization the more familiar they are likely to be with

the policies and benefits. In addition, tenure may provide supervisors more leverage to

negotiate work-life accommodations for their subordinates. Tenure was measured as

the number of years working at the organization. Finally, I included the number of

employees a supervisor supervised, as it seemed that supervisors with more employees

might have had greater exposure to work-life needs and greater experience providing

support.

Employee-Level Variables

     Supervisor support. Supervisor support was measured using the scale

developed by Shinn et al (1989). This scale contains nine items that ask about the

frequency of specific family-supportive supervisory behaviors in the last two months.

Responses are rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). The total score

was computed by taking the mean of all items. Three negatively worded items were

recoded so that high scores would indicate more support. See Appendix C for a list of

items. The Cronbach's Alpha for this sample was .79 (Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

     Work-family conflict. Work-conflict was measured using the scale developed

by Netemeyer and colleagues (1996). This scale has two dimensions, work-to-family

conflict and family-to-work conflict. Each dimension was measured with five items

which can be found in Appendix C. Each question is rated on a 5-point scale ranging

from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A total score was obtained by taking

the mean of the five items. Higher scores indicate greater conflict. Research has

indicated that this scale has adequate validity (Netemeyer et al., 1996). The

Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for this sample were .89 for work-to-family conflict

and .83 for family-to-work conflict .

   Support sought. Two items were included as potential measures of support

sought. The first question asked "How often in the past 6 months have you felt the

need for support from your supervisor for family related issues." The second question

asked "How often in the past 6 months have you sought support from your supervisor to

deal with family related matters." These two variables were highly correlated .71, thus

it did not make sense to include both variables in the analyses. The later variable was

chosen because it better reflected the social support literature reviewed for this

dissertation. Response were rated on a scale ranging from 0 (*never*) to 3 (*often*). Six

months was chosen based on feedback from the pilot study.

   Employee control variables. Several demographic variables were considered as

control variables. Some research has indicated that supervisor subordinate similarity

on gender and race are related to family supportive supervision (Foley et al., 2006;

Winfield & Rushing, 2005) Gender similarity was measured by comparing the

supervisor and employee similarity on gender and coding it as 0 (*dissimilar*) and 1

(*similar*). Racial similarity was be measured by comparing the supervisor and

employee similarity on race and coding it as 0 (*dissimilar*) and 1 (*similar*). Given

qualitative comments by several supervisors about the younger generation's growing

sense of entitlement regarding work-life issues, employee's age was added as a control

variable. Research indicates that an employees education level may be related to general supervisor support (Sundin et al., 2006). Education was coded 0 (*less that a bachelor's degree*) and 1 (*bachelor's degree or higher*). While there is little research on how employees' family composition may affect family-supportive supervision, it is possible that supervisors may be more supportive of employees who they see as having greater family responsibilities. For this reason I used several variables to capture employees' family composition. Marital status was recoded into the categories 0 (*not married or living with a partner*) and 1 (*married or living with a partner*). Number of children was recoded as 0 (*no*) and 1 (*yes*). Elder care responsibilities was coded as 0 (*no*) and 1 (*yes*). It is possible that employees with more experience received more family-supportive supervision because they had, had a longer time to develop a rapport with their manager, thus tenure was use as a control variable. Tenure was measured as the number of months working at the organization. In addition, work-family culture which has been shown to be related to family-supportive supervision (Foley et al., 2006) was collected. The work-family culture scale was developed for the National Study of the Changing Workforce (Bond et al., 2002) and contained four items, See Appendix C. Responses range from 1 (*strongly agree*) to 4 (*strongly disagree*). A total score is obtained by taking the mean of the items. Cronbach's Alpha for this sample was .79.

Chapter 6: Results

Preliminary Analyses

Sample Characteristics

Supervisors. The final supervisor sample contained 67 supervisors for 5 different sites. The majority of supervisors (89.4%) were female. Most were White (95.5%) and non-Hispanic (98.5%). The average age was 48.80 (SD=8.31). Sixty-three percent were married or living with a partner, 81.5% had children, and 50.0% provided at least one hour of care to an aging parent. On average they had worked for the company 154.63 (SD=126.90) months and managed 69.58 (SD=40.34) employees.

Employees. Given the nature of the outcome variables it was necessary to select only employees who had some level of family responsibilities for the final sample. Of the 861 employees who returned surveys, 757 (87.92%) met the criteria of being married or living with a partner, having children, or providing at least 1 hour of support a week to an elder parent. The average age was 41.92 (SD=11.39), most were female (88.7%). Ninety percent of employees were white and only 2.6% were Hispanic. Most employees (69.9%) had a bachelor's degree. Regarding family responsibilities, 76.4% were married or living with a partner, 69.7% had at least one child, and 60.8% provided at least 1 hour of support to an aging parent each week on average. On average participants had worked for their respective organizations for 108.34 months (SD=111.82).

Variable Characteristics

Variable distributions were examined for missing data, variance and normality.

Table 2 and Table 3 present descriptive statistics for supervisor and employee

respectively. With the exception of productivity maintenance, all of the supervisor

variables were missing data on fewer than 4 participants. Employee level variables

Table 2

Descriptives for Supervisor Variables

	N	%		Possible Range	Observed Range
Female	66	89.4%		0-1	0-1
Race (White)	66	95.5%		0-1	0-1
Ethnicity (Hispanic)	65	1.5%		0-1	0-1
Education (Master's Degree)	66	51.5%		0-1	0-1
Living with a Partner	65	63.1%		0-1	0-1
Child(ren)	65	81.5%		0-1	0-1
Eldercare	66	50.0%		0-1	0-1
	N	M	SD	Possible Range	Observed Range
Age	66	48.80	8.31	>17	29-63
Tenure in Months	65	154.63	126.90	>0	2-508
# of Employees	65	69.58	40.34	>0	7-200
Reward System	65	2.56	.82	1-5	1-5
Productivity Maintenance	63	3.26	.66	1-5	1-5
Salience	67	1.99	1.70		0-6
Business Case	66	4.29	.77	1-5	1-5
Awareness	66	3.67	.31	1-4	2-4
Role-Modeling	65	3.71	.81	1-5	1-5

were missing data on between 4 and 47 participants out of 757, equating to 0.53%-

6.21%. Given these relatively low-levels of missing data I decided not to utilize any

strategies to reduce missing data. Some of the supervisor-level variables did have

limited variability which is discussed in the discussion section.

Table 3

Descriptives for Employee Variables

	N	%	Possible Range	Observed Range
Female	744	88.7%	0-1	0-1
Gender Similarity	744	82.9%	0-1	0-1
Race (White)	747	90.2%	0-1	0-1
Racial Similarity	746	87.1%	0-1	0-1
Ethnicity (Hispanic)	741	2.6%	0-1	0-1
Education (Bachelor's)	750	69.9%	0-1	0-1
Living with a Partner	749	76.4%	0-1	0-1
Child(ren)	745	69.7%	0-1	0-1
Eldercare	710	60.8%	0-1	0-1

	N	M	SD	Possible Range	Observed Range
Age	736	41.92	11.39	>17	22-67
Tenure in Months	746	108.34	111.82	>0	1-502
Work-Family Culture	746	2.28	.67	1-4	1-4
Support Sought	753	1.64	.80	1-4	1-4
Supervisor Support	752	3.38	.68	1-5	1-5
Work-to-Family Conflict	752	3.02	.89	1-5	1-5
Family-to-Work Conflict	753	2.08	.67	1-5	1-5

Differences by Site

Supervisors. Preliminary analyses were conducted to determine if there were

differences between sites. Chi-square analyses were used for the categorical variables

and one-way ANOVAs were used for continuous variables. The only significant

difference amongst supervisors by site was for education. This difference between the

sites was not of any theoretic significance. However, it was important in helping me

make the decision whether to include site as a control variable. Table 4 gives the N,

descriptive statistics, and p-values for the comparisons by site.

Table 4

Supervisor Differences on Descriptive Variables by Site

	Site					
	A (N=22)	B (N=12)	C (N=10)	D (N=15)	E (N=8)	p
	%	%	%	%	%	
Female	90.5%	91.7%	70.0%	100.0%	87.5%	.209
Race (White)	95.2%	100.0%	90.0%	93.3%	100.0%	.773
Ethnicity (Hispanic)	4.8%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.712
Education (Master's Degree)	23.8%	33.3%	80.0%	86.7%	50.0%	.001
Living with a Partner	55.0%	66.7%	80.0%	66.7%	50.0%	.640
Child(ren)	85.0%	83.3%	90.0%	73.3%	75.0%	.816
Eldercare	42.9%	75.0%	50.0%	60.0%	12.5%	.074
	M(SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)	
Age	47.95 (9.56)	46.58 (8.99)	51.40 (6.93)	49.27 (7.03)	50.25 (8.36)	.686
Tenure in Months	176.45 (147.54)	175.58 (132.03)	80.80 (109.26)	134.07 (119.78)	199.50 (60.05)	.224
# of Employees	80.45 (43.57)	58.92 (43.28)	59.70 (33.38)	73.27 (44.47)	63.88 (25.54)	.541

Employees. Further preliminary analyses were conducted to determine if there

were differences between sites on descriptive statistics and outcome variables. Chi-

square analyses were used for the categorical variables and one-way ANOVAs were

used for continuous variables. The sites were not significantly different on employee

race, ethnicity, relationship status, eldercare, tenure, family-supportive supervision, or

family-to-work conflict. Significant differences were found between sites for

employee gender ($\chi^2(4)$=23.43, p<.001), gender similarity ($\chi^2(4)$=44.53, p<.001),

racial similarity ($\chi^2(4)$=17.30, p=.002), education ($\chi^2(4)$=17.80, p=.001), child(ren)

($\chi^2(4)$=19.78, p=.001), age ($F(4, 724)$=6.33, p<.001), and work-to-family conflict

($F(4, 747)$=7.55, p<.001). Table 5 gives the Ns, descriptive statistics for the

Table 5

Employee Descriptives for Demographics and Outcomes by Site

	Site						
	A (N=281)	B (N=107)	C (N=94)	D (N=157)	E (N=118)	Total (N=757)	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	p
Female	89.1%	94.3%	78.0%	94.8%	82.9%	88.7%	<.001
Gender Similarity	82.2%	91.5%	67.0%	94.8%	73.5%	82.9%	<.001
Race (White)	92.8%	94.3%	84.8%	88.5%	87.1%	90.2%	.060
Racial Similarity	90.2%	94.3%	78.3%	82.1%	87.1%	87.1%	.002
Ethnicity (Hispanic)	2.5%	1.9%	4.4%	2.0%	2.6%	2.6%	.804
Education (Bachelor's)	66.9%	75.2%	54.8%	77.6%	73.7%	69.9%	.001
Relationship Status	76.4%	78.3%	76.3%	77.6%	72.9%	76.4%	.888
Child(ren)	68.0%	73.6%	80.9%	57.8%	76.7%	69.7%	.001
Eldercare	55.8%	59.0%	64.4%	63.7%	67.9%	60.8%	.186
	M(SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)	
Age	40.08 (10.94)	43.89 (11.91)	44.36 (10.76)	40.30 (11.49)	44.76 (11.23)	41.92 (11.39)	<.001
Tenure in Months	101.83 (111.89)	127.03 (136.95)	101.26 (95.97)	105.14 (103.83)	116.91 (108.03)	108.34 (111.82)	.282
Supervisor Support	3.36 (.67)	3.49 (.54)	3.36 (.67)	3.35 (.68)	3.37 (.79)	3.38 (.68)	.523
Work-to-Family Conflict	2.84 (.89)	2.93 (.78)	3.13 (.94)	3.13 (.86)	3.30 (.86)	3.02 (.89)	<.001
Family-to-Work Conflict	2.02	2.01	2.13	2.12	2.18	2.08	.131

comparisons by site. No follow-up tests were conducted as differences between the groups were of not theoretic significance. However, given the significant differences between sites on these variables it was decided to include site as a possible control variable in the main analyses.

Bivariate correlations. Bivariate correlations were examined at each level. One of the main purposes of examining the correlations was to investigate whether mutlicollinearity between the predictors and covariates would be a problem. While I did not propose to include work-family culture as a control variable there was some question among my committee about whether it should be added into the model. It was moderately-strongly associated with family-supportive supervision (r=-.39, p<.001). Theoretically, family-supportive supervision and work-family culture are also somewhat entangled; family-supportive supervision is actually included as a sub-dimension in some measures of culture (Thompson et al., 1999). For these reasons I decided not to use culture as a control variable. In general, the other correlations were small or moderate, see Tables 6 and 7.

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Major Analyses

</div>

Family-Supportive Supervision as an Outcome

The purpose of this dissertation is to examine the supervisor-level, and employee-level predictors of family-supportive supervision. All hypotheses were analyzed using multi-level regression in HLM 6 (Raudenbush, Bryk, Cheong, Congdon, & du Toit, 2004). HLM represents a two-level model with two equations,

Table 6

Correlations among Supervisor-Level Variables (N=67)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Gender															
2. Race	.16														
3. Ethnicity	.04	-.57**													
4. Education	-.14	-.07	-.13												
5. Relationship Status	-.16	-.02	-.17	-.03											
6. Child(ren)	-.04	-.11	.06	-.06	.13										
7. Eldercare	-.05	-.22	.13	-.06	.01	.25*									
8. Age	.04	.15	-.30*	.26*	-.16	.30*	.11								
9. Tenure	.24	.22	-.11	-.20	.05	.08	.24	.32**							
10. # of Employees	-.16	.04	.03	-.11	-.05	.01	.19	-.10	.20						
11. Reward System	-.31*	-.18	.07	.05	.20	-.002	-.26*	.03	-.10	-.16					
12. Productivity Maintenance	-.14	-.32*	-.05	.06	-.07	.09	.16	.01	-.10	-.06	.17				
13. Salience	.03	-.04	-.15	-.14	.04	-.07	-.05	-.07	.01	-.07	.17	.10			
14. Business Case	-.11	.05	-.17	-.05	.19	.16	-.01	.13	.13	.01	.16	.35**	.15		
15. Awareness	-.16	-.01	-.001	-.02	-.07	.01	.01	.22	.18	-.05	.10	-.04	.21	-.08	
16. Role Modeling	.11	.06	.07	-.06	-.22	.002	-.30*	-.03	.06	-.11	.25*	.16	.19	.09	.21

*p < .05, **p < .01

Table 7

Correlations among Employee-Level Variables (N=757)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Gender																
2. Gender Similarity	.63**															
3. Race	.06	.05														
4. Racial Similarity	.03	.03	.80**													
5. Ethnicity	-.02	-.06	-.23**	-.19**												
6. Education	.06	.07	.00	.02	-.02											
7. Relationship Status	-.09*	-.01	.00	.02	.01	.06										
8. Child(ren)	-.05	-.04	-.05	-.03	-.01	-.14**	-.03									
9. Eldercare	-.06	-.07	.02	.03	-.05	.01	.05	.04								
10. Age	-.07*	-.04	-.03	-.08*	.00	-.08*	-.05	.40**	.05							
11. Tenure	.04	.07	.04	.00	.01	-.06	.01	.19**	.03	.61**						
12. Need	.04	.03	.00	-.02	-.11**	.00	-.09*	.13**	.06	.03	-.01					
13. Support sought	.00	-.02	.04	.02	-.07	-.05	-.04	.12**	.09*	.07	.02	.71**				
14. Supervisor Support	-.05	.00	-.05	-.05	-.01	-.04	.05	.03	.03	.07*	.04	.23**	.24**			
15. Work-Family Culture	.03	-.02	.00	-.02	-.01	.01	-.01	.08*	.06	-.01	.04	.07	.01	-.39**		
16. Work-to-Family Conflict	.04	-.01	-.03	-.02	-.01	.04	-.06	.07	.10**	-.05	-.06	.20**	.18**	-.15**	.36**	
17. Family-to-Work Conflict	-.03	.02	-.06	-.02	-.05	-.01	.01	.15**	.12**	.01	-.01	.14**	.18**	.01	.18**	.35**

*p < .05, **p < .01

one for each level, that are estimated simultaneously. Several nested models were tested in the process of building the final model.

Model 1: fully unconditional model. The fully unconditional model is the simplest two-level model. This model has no predictors at any level. The purpose of this model is to estimate the proportion of variance in family-supportive supervision that is within supervisors and the proportion that is between supervisors. The variability among employees within supervisors was $\sigma^2 = .41$. There was sufficient variability between supervisors ($\tau_{00} = .05$, $p < .001$) that could be explained by level-2 predictors. See Table 8 for all of the estimates for this model. The intraclass correlation, or proportion of variance in family-supportive supervision that is between supervisors, was .11.

Model 2: Site dummy variables. Data were collected from five sites. Four dummy vectors were created to use as potential control variables. In order to determine whether there were significant differences by site, the four dummy vectors for site were added to Model 1 at level-2 as predictors of the random intercept. Table 8 provides the estimates for this model. Given that these four variables are dummy variables are created to proportion the variance from a single categorical variable into distinct tests, it is important to look at the results of an omnibus test before looking at the tests for individual dummy vectors. HLM does not have an omnibus test for this situation so I ran a GEE model in SPSS 17 to get the omnibus test. The results of the omnibus test were not significant, Wald $\chi^2(4) = 4.73$, $p = .316$. The sites did not differ on

family-supportive supervision. Given that the omnibus test was not significant no

further effort was made to control for site.

Table 8

Estimates for the Fully Unconditional Model and the Model using Site Dummy

Variables to Predict Family-Supportive Supervision

	Model 1 Unconditional Model		Model 2 Site	
Fixed Effects	Coefficients	p	Coefficients	p
γ_{00}=Intercept	3.38	<.001	3.34	<.001
Level-Two Predictors				
γ_{01}=Site Dummy Vector 1			.18	.033
γ_{02}= Site Dummy Vector 2			.00	.997
γ_{03}= Site Dummy Vector 3			.01	.921
γ_{04}= Site Dummy Vector 4			.07	.575
Random Effects	Variance Component	p	Variance Component	p
Level-Two Variance var(u_{0j})	.05	<.001	.05	<.001
Level-One Variance var(ri_j)	.41		.41	
Deviance	1519.31		1526.92	

Models 3-10: Adding employee-level control variables. In Models 3-10

separate models were run to test the effect of each of employee-level covariate one at a

time. The employee-level covariates were added to the level-1 model. Employee-level

covariates that were found to be significant at the bivariate level were kept in the

model as I moved forward to build the model by adding supervisor-level covariates

Table 9

Estimates for the Preliminary Models to Decide which Employee-Level Variables to Use as Covariates in the Models

Predicting Family-Supportive Supervision

Fixed Effects	Model 3 Coef.	*p*	Model 4 Coef.	*p*	Model 5 Coef.	*p*	Model 6 Coef.	*p*	Model 7 Coef.	*p*	Model 8 Coef.	*p*	Model 9 Coef.	*p*	Model 10 Coef.	*p*
γ_{00}=Intercept	3.22	<.001	3.43	<.001	3.47	<.001	3.41	<.001	3.33	<.001	3.34	<.001	3.36	<.001	3.36	<.001
Level-One Predictors																
γ_{10}=Age	.004	.021														
γ_{10}=Gender Similarity			-.07	.357												
γ_{10}=Racial Similarity					-.11	.117										
γ_{10}=Education							-.05	.273								
γ_{10}=Relationship Status									.06	.228						
γ_{10}=Child(ren)											.05	.326				
γ_{10}=Eldercare													.03	.569		
γ_{10}=Tenure															.00	.232
Random Effects	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*
Level-Two Variance																
var(u_{0j})	.05	<.001	.05	<.001	.05	<.001	.05	<.001	.05	<.001	.04	<.001	.05	<.001	.04	<.001
Level-One Variance																
var(ri_j)	.41		.41		.41		.41		.41		.41		.40		.41	

and then supervisor-level predictors. The variables examined included supervisor-subordinate similarity on gender and supervisor-subordinate similarity on race which have been shown by previous research to be related to family-supportive supervision (Foley et al., 2006; Winfield & Rushing, 2005). In addition other demographic variables, which have not been previously examined, such as employee age, education, relationship status, number of children, eldercare responsibilities and tenure were tested. See Table 9 for detailed results. The only employee-level covariate that was significantly related to family-supportive supervision was age (γ_{10}=.004, p=.021). These results indicate younger employees reported greater family-supportive supervision.

Models 11-17: Adding supervisor-level control variables. In Models 11-17 separate models were tested to examine the effect of each of the proposed supervisor-level control variables after accounting for employee age. The supervisor-level control variables were entered into the level-2 model as predictors of the random intercept. These variables included age, gender, and child(ren), relationship status, eldercare responsibilities, tenure, and number of employees. Those variables that are significant were added as covariates in models testing the effect of the supervisor-level predictors. See Table 10 for the estimates from this set of models. After controlling for employee age, only supervisor age (γ_{01}=-.01, p=.007), gender (γ_{01}=.27, p=.043), and number of employees supervised (γ_{01}=-.003, p=.006) were significantly related to family-supportive supervision. Employees of younger, female supervisors and those with fewer employees reported greater family supportive supervision.

Table 10

Estimates for the Preliminary Models to Decide which Supervisor-Level Covariates to Use as Covariates in the Models

Predicting Family-Supportive Supervision

	Model 11		Model 12		Model 13		Model 14		Model 15		Model 16		Model 17	
Fixed Effects	Coeff.	p	Coeff.	p	Coeff.	p	Coeff.	p	Coeff.	p	Coeff.	p	Coeff.	p
γ_{00}=Intercept	3.68	<.001	2.98	<.001	3.16	<.001	3.29	<.001	3.22	<.001	3.22	<.001	3.46	<.001
Level-One Predictors														
γ_{10}=Age	.004	.012	.003	.027	.003	.034	.004	.017	.004	.022	.004	.819	.003	.093
Level-Two Predictors														
γ_{01}=Age	-.01	.007												
γ_{01}=Gender			.27	.043										
γ_{01}=Relationship Status					.11	.118								
γ_{01}=Child(ren)							-.09	.243						
γ_{01}= Eldercare									-.01	.821				
γ_{01}=Tenure											.000	.815		
γ_{01}=# of Employees													-.003	.006
Random Effects	Var.	p	Var.	p	Var.	p	Var.	p	Var.	p	Var.	p	Var.	p
Level-Two Variance var(u_{0j})	.04	<.001	.04	<.001	.04	<.001	.05	<.001	.05	<.001	.05	<.001	.04	<.001
Level-One Variance var(ri_j)	.41		.41		.41		.41		.41		.41		.41	

Models 18-23: Supervisor-level predictors of family-supportive supervision.
Given the small sample size at the supervisor level a decision was made to test each of the predictors one at a time and then add only the predictors that were significant into a final model to test the unique effects of each. The level-2 predictors included: reward system, productivity maintenance, salience of changing workforce, belief in business case, awareness of organizational policies and benefits, and role-modeling. The level-1 covariate employee age and the level-2 covariates supervisor age, gender, and number of employees supervised were included in the models.

The detailed estimates for these models can be found in Table 11. Hypothesis 1 that supervisors' belief that they would be rewarded for assisting employees with their work-life needs would be positively related to employee's perceived family-supportive supervision was not supported (γ_{04}=.06, *p*=.208, effect size = .09). Hypothesis 2 that the strength of the supervisor's productivity maintenance planning would be positively related to employee's perceived family-supportive supervision was not supported (γ_{04}=.03, *p*=.613, effect size = .05). Hypothesis 3, that supervisors' belief that there is a business case for work-life support would be positively related to employees' perceived family-supportive supervision, was supported (γ_{04}=.08, *p*=.018 , effect size = .12). These findings mean that for every point higher on the business case scale (which ranges from 1 to 5); ratings of family-supportive supervision increased .08 on a scale of 1-5. Research question 1, that the salience of changes in the workforce to supervisors would be positively related to employee's perceived family-supportive supervision, was not supported (γ_{04}=-.003, *p*=.838, effect size = .004). Hypothesis 4,

Table 11

Estimates for the Models to Testing the Effects of Supervisor-Level Predictors on Family-Supportive Supervision

	Model 18		Model 19		Model 20		Model 21		Model 22		Model 23	
Fixed Effects	Coeff.	*p*	Coeff.	*p*	Coeff.	*p*	Coeff.	*p*	Coeff.	*p*	Coeff.	*p*
γ_{00}=Intercept	3.35	<.001	3.52	<.001	3.63	<.001	3.31	<.001	3.90	<.001	3.42	<.001
Level-One Predictors												
γ_{10}=Age	.003	.119	.003	.123	.003	.065	.002	.121	.003	.087	.003	.078
Level-Two Predictors												
γ_{01}=Age	-.01	.001	-.01	.001	-.01	.001	-.01	<.001	-.01	.001	-.01	.001
γ_{02}=Gender	.30	.031	.25	.049	.24	.053	.26	.032	.22	.076	.23	.050
γ_{03}=# of Employees	-.003	.007	-.003	.003	-.003	.003	-.003	.002	-.003	.002	-.003	.003
γ_{04}=Reward System	.06	.208										
γ_{04}=Productivity Maintenance			.03	.613								
γ_{04}=Salience					-.003	.838						
γ_{04}=Business Case							.08	.018				
γ_{04}=Awareness									-.05	.638		
γ_{04}=Role-Modeling											.05	.138
Random Effects	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*
Level-Two Variance var(u_{0j})	.02	.003	.03	.001	.03	.001	.02	.004	.02	.002	.02	.003
Level-One Variance var(ri_j)	.41		.41		.41		.41		.41		.41	

that supervisors' awareness of work-life policies and benefits would be positively

related to employees' perceived family-supportive supervision, was not supported

(γ_{04}=-.05, p=.638, effect size = .08). Hypothesis 5 that the level of family-supportive

supervision (role-modeling) that supervisors receive from their superior would be

positively associated with their employee's perceived family-supportive supervision

was not supported (γ_{04}=.05, p=.138, effect size = .08). Given that the belief that there

is a business case for work-life support was the only significant predictor when the

models were run individually, there was no need to run a combine model to look at the

unique contribution of each predictor.

Models 24-29: Support sought. Models 24-29 were the first step in testing

hypothesis 6 (the main effect of support sought) and research question 2 (do

supervisor-level factors moderate the relationship between support sought and family

supportive supervision). Given the small supervisor sample, separate models were run

for each of the supervisor-level predictors. For each model employee age was entered

into the model as a level-1 covariate. The supervisor covariates, age, gender, and

number of employees were entered into the level-2 model as predictors of the random

intercept. Support sought was entered as a level-1 predictor with a random slope. In

order to move on to test research question 2 it is necessary to demonstrate that there is

sufficient variance in slope for support sought that could be explained by the

supervisor level predictors. Support sought was positively related to family-supportive

supervision ($\gamma20$=.21, p<.001) in all of the models. These findings mean that for every

point higher on support sought (on a scale of 1-4) family-supportive supervision

increased .21 points higher on a scale of 1 to 5. Thus, hypothesis 6, that family-supportive supervision will be higher for employees who have expressed a greater need for this type of support, was supported. The variance components for support sought were not significant, therefore I was not able to go on to test research question 2 [do supervisor-level factors (e.g., reward system, productivity maintenance, salience of changing workforce, belief in business case, awareness of organizational policies and benefits, role-modeling) moderate the relationship between support sought and employee's perceived family-supportive supervision.] The detailed estimates for these models can be found in Table 12.

Additional analyses for support sought. Some additional analyses were done to inform the discussion of support sought. Given that I had asked participants both how often they had needed support and how often they had sought support I thought it would be interesting to see what percentage of participants who needed support sought it. In order to do this I recoded both variables so that 0 (*never*) and 1 (*seldom to often*). Sixty-one percent of employee's reported a need for family-supportive supervision. Of those who needed support 71.2% sought support and 28.8% did not. Next, I divided participants into three groups: 1) did not need support, 2) needed support but did not seek it, and 3) needed support and sought it. Then I examined the relationship between this variable and employee gender, relationship status, having children, and eldercare. See Table 13 for detailed results. Neither gender nor relationship status were related to whether support was sought. A greater percentage of employees with child(ren) ($\chi^2(2)$=12.85, *p*=.002) or eldercare ($\chi^2(2)$=10.51, *p*=.005) sought support.

Table 12

Estimates for the Main Effects and Moderated Effects of Perceived Need on Family-Supportive Supervision for Each Supervisor-Level Predictor

	Model 24		Model 25		Model 26		Model 27		Model 28		Model 29	
Fixed Effects	Coeff.	*p*	Coeff.	*p*	Coeff.	*p*	Coeff.	*p*	Coeff.	*p*	Coeff.	*p*
γ_{00}=Intercept	3.05	<.001	3.21	<.001	3.31	<.001	2.93	<.001	3.66	<.001	3.03	<.001
Level-One Predictors												
γ_{10}=Age	.002	.342	.002	.339	.002	.342	.001	.379	.002	.320	.002	.288
Γ_{20}=Support sought	.21	<.001	.21	<.001	.21	<.001	.21	<.001	.21	<.001	.21	<.001
Level-Two Predictors												
γ_{01}=Age	-.01	.001	-.01	.002	-.01	.004	-.01	<.001	-.01	<.001	-.01	.002
γ_{02}=Gender	.29	.047	.25	.061	.23	.031	.26	.038	.21	.105	.22	.058
γ_{03}=# of Employees	-.002	.010	-.003	.005	-.003	.002	-.003	.004	-.003	.002	-.002	.005
γ_{04}=Reward System	.06	.263										
γ_{04}=Productivity Maintenance			.02	.641								
γ_{04}=Salience					-.006	.759						
γ_{04}=Business Case							.09	.005				
γ_{04}=Awareness									-.06	.549		
γ_{04}=Role-Modeling											.07	.064
Random Effects	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*
Level-Two Variance												
var(u_{0j})	.02	>.500	.03	.450	.02	>.500	.02	>.500	.01	>.500	.02	>.500
var(u_{1j})	.04	>.500	.002	>.500	.001	>.500	.001	>.500	.04	>.500	.002	>.500
Level-One Variance												
var(ri_j)	.38		.38		.38		.38		.38		.38	

Table 13

Chi-Square Tests of the Association between Employee Demographics and Support

Sought

	No Need (N=281)		Needed but Not Sought (N=132)		Sought (N=341)		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	p
Gender							
Male	33	39.8	10	12.0	40	48.2	.377
Female	243	36.9	120	18.2	295	44.8	
Relationship Status							
Not Living with a Partner	62	35.4	29	16.6	84	48.0	.692
Living with a Partner	217	38.0	101	17.4	253	45.2	
Child(ren)							
No	102	45.1	44	19.5	80	35.4	.002
Yes	175	33.9	86	16.7	255	49.4	
Eldercare							
No	119	43.1	52	18.8	105	38.0	.005
Yes	144	33.4	70	16.2	217	50.3	

Work-Family Conflict as an Outcome

To test Hypotheses 7a and 7b, whether higher levels of family-supportive supervision are associated with lower work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict, several nested models were tested in the process of building the final model.

Fully unconditional models. These models had no predictors at any level. The purpose of these models was to estimate the proportion of variance in work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict that was within supervisors and the proportion that is between supervisors. The variability among employees within supervisors for work-to-family conflict was $\sigma^2=.73$. The variability between supervisors for work-to-family conflict was ($\tau_{00}=.06$, p<.001). See Table 14 for all of the estimates for this model. The intraclass correlation, or proportion of variance that is between supervisors for work-to-family conflict, was .08. The variability among employees within supervisors for family-to-work conflict was $\sigma^2=.42$. The variability between supervisors for family-to-work conflict was ($\tau_{00}=.02$, p=.003). The intraclass correlation, or proportion of variance that is between supervisors for family-to-work conflict, was .05.

Site dummy variables. In order to determine whether there were and significant differences in work-to-family conflict or family-to-work conflict by site the four dummy vectors for site were added to the models as predictors of the random intercept. Table 14 provides the estimates for these models. Given that these four variables are dummy variables created to proportion the variance from a single categorical variable into distinct tests, it is important to look at the results of an

omnibus test before looking at the tests for individual dummy vectors. HLM does not

have an omnibus test for this situation so I ran GEE models in SPSS 17 to get the

omnibus tests. The results of the omnibus test were significant for work-to-family

conflict Wald χ^2(4)=30.28, p<.001, but not for family-to-work conflict Wald

χ^2(4)=7.34, p=.119, see Table 14 for details of the HLM models of these effects.

Given the results of these tests, site was used as a control variable for work-to-family

conflict but not family-to-work conflict.

Models 34-41: Employee-level covariates for work-to-family conflict. In

Models 34-41, separate models were run to test the relationship of each of employee-

level covariate one at a time with work-to-family conflict after controlling for site.

Detailed results are presented in Table 15. The variables examined included:

supervisor-subordinate similarity on gender; supervisor-subordinate similarity on race;

age, education, relationship status, child(ren), eldercare responsibilities and tenure.

Having children and eldercare were the only covariates significantly related to work-

to-family conflict after controlling for site. These covariates were added into the final

model for work-to-family conflict.

Models 42-49: Employee-level covariates for work-to-family conflict. Using

the same set of covariates that were tested for work-to-family conflict, separate models

were run to test the relationship of each covariate one at a time with family-to-work

conflict, see Table 16. Having children and eldercare were the only covariates

significantly related to either family-to-work. These covariates were added into the

final model for family-to-work.

Table 14

Estimates for the Fully Unconditional Model and the Model using Site Dummy Variables to Predict Work-to-Family Conflict and Family-to-Work Conflict

	Work-to-Family Conflict				Family-to-Work Conflict			
	Model 30: Unconditional Model		Model 31: Site		Model 32: Unconditional Model		Model 33: Site	
Fixed Effects	Coefficients	p	Coefficients	p	Coefficients	p	Coefficients	p
γ_{00}=Intercept	3.02	<.001	2.84	<.001	2.07	<.001	2.02	<.001
Level-Two Predictors								
γ_{01}=Site Dummy Vector 1			.07	.394			-.02	.805
γ_{02}= Site Dummy Vector 2			.31	.027			.10	.285
γ_{03}= Site Dummy Vector 3			.29	.009			.09	.299
γ_{04}= Site Dummy Vector 4			.48	<.001			.17	.070
Random Effects	Variance Component	p	Variance Component	p	Variance Component	p	Variance Component	p
Level-Two Variance var(u_{0j})	.06	<.001	.03	.006	.02	.003	.02	.005
Level-One Variance var(ri_j)	.73		.73		.42		.42	
Deviance	1939.25		1930.87		1523.13		1530.71	

Table 15

Estimates for the Preliminary Models to Decide which Employee-Level Covariates to Use with Work-to-Family Conflict

	Model 34		Model 35		Model 36		Model 37		Model 38		Model 39		Model 40		Model 41	
Fixed Effects	Coef.	p	Coef.	p	Coef.	p	Coef.	p	Coef.	p	Coef.	p	Coef.	p	Coef.	p
γ_{00}=Intercept	3.04	<.001	2.81	<.001	2.87	<.001	2.79	<.001	2.92	<.001	2.76	<.001	2..77	<.001	2.88	<.001
Level-One Predictors																
γ_{10}=Age	-.005	.077														
γ_{10}=Gender Similarity			.01	.896												
γ_{10}=Racial Similarity					-.03	.749										
γ_{10}=Education							.07	.321								
γ_{10}=Relation. Status									-.11	.053						
γ_{10}=Child(ren)											.12	.037				
γ_{10}=Eldercare													.16	.024		
γ_{10}=Tenure															-.001	.157
Level-Two Predictors																
γ_{01}=Site Dummy 1	.09	.298	.06	.476	.07	.430	.06	.466	.07	.394	.06	.445	.06	.478	.09	.284
γ_{02}= Site Dummy 2	.33	.032	.31	.033	.30	.043	.32	.028	.30	.035	.29	.042	.28	.043	.31	.025
γ_{03}= Site Dummy 3	.31	.008	.30	.011	.29	.012	.28	.011	.29	.008	.30	.007	.28	.017	.29	.009
γ_{04}= Site Dummy 4	.50	<.001	.48	<.001	.47	<.001	.47	<.001	.47	<.001	.46	<.001	.44	<.001	.50	<.001
Random Effects	Var.	p	Var.	p	Var.	p	Var.	p	Var.	p	Var.	p	Var.	p	Var.	p
Level-Two Variance var(u_{0j})	.04	.003	.04	.002	.03	.005	.03	.005	.03	.006	.03	.008	.03	..006	.03	.012
Level-One Variance var(ri_j)	.73		.73		.73		.73		.73		.73		.72		.73	

Table 16

Estimates for the Preliminary Models to Decide which Employee-Level Covariates to Use with Family-to-Work Conflict

	Model 42		Model 43		Model 44		Model 45		Model 46		Model 47		Model 48		Model 49	
Fixed Effects	Coef.	*p*	Coef.	*p*	Coef.	*p*	Coef.	*p*	Coef.	*p*	Coef.	*p*	Coef.	*p*	Coef.	*p*
γ_{00}=Intercept	2.03	<.001	2.04	<.001	2.11	<.001	2.08	<.001	2.05	<.001	1.92	<.001	1.99	<.001	2.08	<.001
Level-One Predictors																
γ_{10}=Age	.001	.666														
γ_{10}=Gender Similarity			.03	.632												
γ_{10}=Racial Similarity					-.05	.485										
γ_{10}=Education							-.01	.768								
γ_{10}=Relationship Status									.02	.692						
γ_{10}=Child(ren)											.21	<.001				
γ_{10}=Eldercare													.15	.002		
γ_{10}=Tenure															-.000	.737
Random Effects	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*
Level-Two Variance																
var(u_{0j})	.03	.001	.03	.001	.02	.004	.02	<.001	.02	<.001	.02	<.001	.02	.012	.02	<.001
Level-One Variance																
var(ri_j)	.41		.42		.42		.42		.42		.41		.42		.42	

Final models for work-family conflict (hypothesis 7a & 7b). For each outcome,

family-supportive supervision was entered as a level-1 predictor. See Table 17 for the

estimates for both models. Hypothesis 7a, that perceived family-supportive

supervision will be negatively associated with work-to-family conflict, was supported

(γ_{10}=-.17, *p*<.004). Hypothesis 7b, that perceived family-supportive supervision will

be negatively associated with family-to-work conflict, was not supported.

Table 17

Estimates for the Effect of Family-Supportive Supervision on Work-Family Conflict

	Work-to-Family Conflict		Family-to-Work Conflict	
Fixed Effects	Coeff.	*p*	Coeff.	*p*
γ_{00}=Intercept	3.25	<.001	1.85	<.001
Level-One Predictors				
γ_{10}=Child(ren)	.13	.032	.20	<.001
γ_{20}=Eldercare	.18	.007	.15	.003
Γ_{30}=Family-Supportive Supervision	-.17	.004	.001	.975
Level-Two Predictors				
γ_{01}=Site Dummy Vector 1	.06	.477		
γ_{02}= Site Dummy Vector 2	.26	.033		
γ_{03}= Site Dummy Vector 3	.29	.011		
γ_{04}= Site Dummy Vector 4	.41	<.001		
Random Effects	Var.	*p*	Var.	*p*
Level-Two Variance				
var(u_{0j})	.64	.034	.15	.331
var(u_{1j})	.05	.077	.01	.307
Level-One Variance				
var(ri_j)	.69		.41	

A summary of which hypotheses and research questions were supported can be

found in Table 18.

Table 18

Summary of Support for Hypotheses

Hypothesis		Supported
Hypothesis 1	Supervisors' belief that they will be rewarded for assisting employees with their work-life needs will be positively related to employee's perceived family-supportive supervision.	No
Hypothesis 2	The strength of the supervisor's productivity maintenance planning will be positively related to employee's perceived family-supportive supervision.	No
Research Question 1	The salience of changes in the workforce to supervisors will be positively related to employee's perceived family-supportive supervision.	No
Hypothesis 3	Supervisors' belief that there is a business case for work-life support will be positively related to employees' perceived family-supportive supervision.	Yes
Hypothesis 4	Supervisors' awareness of work-life policies and benefits will be positively related to employees' perceived family-supportive supervision.	No
Hypothesis 5	The level of family-supportive supervision that supervisors receive from their superior will be positively associated with employee's perceived family-supportive supervision.	No
Hypothesis 6	Employee's perceived family-supportive supervision will be higher for employees who have sought support than for employees who have not sought support.	Yes
Research Question 2	Do supervisor-level factors (e.g., reward system, productivity maintenance, salience of changing workforce, belief in business case, awareness of organizational policies and benefits, role-modeling) moderate the relationship between support sought and employee's perceived family-supportive supervision.	No
Hypothesis 7a	Perceived family-supportive supervision will be negatively associated with work-to-family conflict.	Yes
Hypothesis 7b	Perceived family-supportive supervision will be negatively associated with family-to-work conflict.	No

Chapter 7: Discussion

Changes in the modern workforce have made it increasingly difficult for workers to manage work and family demands. Organizations have responded by offering a variety of work-life policies and benefits, but the results of these programs have been mixed (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). Other studies have revealed that formal policies and benefits are underutilized (Thompson et al., 1999). Given these problems, researchers and practitioners have begun to recognize that informal organizational supports, such as family-supportive supervision, play a critical role in benefit utilization and may even directly influence work-family conflict (Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999). A number of work-family experts have stressed the need for training to increase family-supportive supervision (Hammer et al., 2011; Maitland, 1998; Milliken et al., 1998; Regan, 1994; Solomon, 1994). There are very few published studies on interventions to improve work-life balance (Brough & O'Driscoll, 2010), and only one known study specifically focused on increasing family-supportive supervision (Hammer et al., 2011). One of the main objectives of this dissertation was to explore factors relating to family-supportive supervision which organizations may be able to influence. This dissertation had three major aims: 1) to investigate which the supervisor-level and employee-level factors were most strongly related to family-supportive supervision; 2) to explore whether supervisor factors moderate the relationship between support sought and family-supportive supervision; 3) and to use a multilevel design to confirm the association between family-supportive

supervision and work-family conflict. These aims were investigated in a sample of nurses and nurse managers from 5 hospitals.

To start, I will provide an overview of the organization of the discussion section. I begin by reviewing the support I found for my hypotheses. Then, I go into discuss the existing literature in relation to the significant supervisor-level and employee-level predictors of family-supportive supervision. Next, I discuss the literature linking family-supportive supervision and work-family conflict. Following that I discuss the methodological contributions of this dissertation. Then, I discuss possible explanations for null results and other limitations. This is followed by a discussion of the possible organizational implications and topics for future research.

Overview of Support for Hypotheses

This dissertation contributed to the literature by examining how several supervisor-level and employee-level factors were related to family-supportive supervision and how family-supportive supervision was related to work-family conflict using a multi-level model. The supervisor level factors I examined in relation to family-supportive supervision included: the perceived reward system for offering family-supportive supervision (Hypothesis 1); the degree to which supervisors have developed good productivity maintenance strategies (Hypothesis 2); the salience of the changing workforce (Research Question 1); the belief in business case for offering family-supportive supervision (Hypothesis 3); awareness of organizational policies and benefits (Hypothesis 4); and the degree to which family-supportive supervision is

modeled by upper management (Hypothesis 5). Supervisors' belief in the business

case was the only variable that was significantly related to employees' perceptions of

family-supportive supervision. At the employee-level I hypothesized that employees

who sought support for work-life matters reported greater levels of family-supportive

supervision (Hypothesis 6). This hypothesis was supported. I had planned to examine

whether the relationship between support sought and family-supportive supervision

was different depending on the levels of the proposed supervisor-level factors

(Research Question 2), but there was too little variability in the relationship between

support sought and family-supportive supervision to test these research questions.

Finally, I hypothesized that family-supportive supervision would be negatively related

to work-to-family conflict (Hypothesis 7a) and family-to-work conflict (Hypothesis

7b). Hypothesis 7a, demonstrating that greater family-supportive supervision was

related to lower work-to-family conflict, was supported. Hypotheses 7b, which

examined the relationship between family-supportive supervision and family-to-work

conflict, was not supported.

Belief in the Business Case

The findings of this dissertation indicate that supervisors' belief in the business

case for providing work-life supports is positively related to employees perceptions of

family-supportive supervision. This suggests that supervisors are more likely to

provide family-supportive supervision when they believe that it will have important

organizational outcomes such as increasing job satisfaction, job commitment,

employee performance, organizational performance, and employee health; and decreasing absenteeism and turnover.

An important underlying belief of the strategic human resource management perspective is that having a highly qualified workforce can provide a competitive advantage (Barney, 1991). Following from this perspective, work-family supports, both formal and informal, contribute to organizational performance by helping to recruit and retain valuable human capital (Kossek & Friede, 2006). Supervisors can span both formal and informal supports. Due to the rapidly changing business environment there is a growing trend to relegate many traditional human resource or personnel management matters to supervisors. Thus, managers must be awareness of formal work-life policies and benefits so that they can refer employees to the benefits that best suit their needs in accordance with organizational guidelines. Research indicates that managers are employees' most common source of information about the availability of work-family programs (Liddicoat, 2003). However, supervisor support can go beyond referring employees to formal supports, to include informal supports such as emotional support, modeling healthy work-life balance practices themselves, and offering accommodations that are not formalized in organizational policies. In the introduction to this dissertation I reviewed research that demonstrated the business case for providing both formal and informal work-life support.

There is evidence that formal supports (i.e. work-life polices and benefits) are related to positive organizational outcomes both directly and through lower work-

family conflict. Research indicates that benefit availability is related to increased organizational cost savings (Solomon, 1994), organizational performance (Konrad & Mangel, 2000; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000), employee retention (Allen, 2001; Johnson, 1995), employee performance (Solomon, 1994), organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Allen, 2001). Research has also demonstrated that greater benefit availability, or use, is related to lower work-family conflict (Allen, 2001; Judge et al., 1994; O'Driscoll et al., 2003; Thompson et al., 1999), and that lower work-family conflict is, in turn, is associated with a variety of positive organizational outcomes such as: increased job satisfaction, better performance, increased organizational commitment, less burnout, and lower turnover (Allen et al., 2000; Cullen & Hammer, 2007; Eby et al., 2005; Kelly et al., 2008; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998, 1999). Supervisors' belief in the business case for formal supports may be important because they are often serve as the gatekeepers to employees' use of these policies and benefits.

As with formal organizational supports, there is evidence that family-supportive supervision is related to positive organizational outcomes both directly and through lower work-family conflict. Supervisors may provide support by informing employees about, or referring employees to, formal benefits as well as informally by providing emotional support or making ad hoc arrangements or accommodations that are not outlined in formal policies. Greater supervisor support has been linked to organizational outcomes such as higher job satisfaction (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Hammer et al., 2009); greater employee commitment (Aryee et al., 1998; Thompson et al., 2004); better job performance (Babin & Boles, 1996; Baruch-Feldman et al., 2002;

Clark, 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Schaefer & Moos, 1993); and lower

turnover (Aryee et al., 1998; Hammer et al., 2009; Thompson et al., 1999). In addition,

family-supportive supervision has been related to lower work-family conflict, which

has in turn been related to better organizational outcomes (Behson, 2005; Frye &

Breaugh, 2004; Thompson et al., 2006).

Beyond reviewing the evidence for the business case it is important to

understand the mechanisms by which supervisors' belief in the business case may

affect family-supportive supervision. In the introduction I draw upon expectancy

theory and strategic choice theory to explain why the belief in the business case for

work-family supports may increase family-supportive supervision. Supervisors are

often held accountable for the performance of their work units. The application of

expectancy theory to this situation suggests that if supervisors see providing work-

family support as instrumental to increasing organizational performance they are more

likely to actually provide that support. This proposition is supported by a study which

found that perceptions of a program's instrumentality were related to supervisors'

referrals to that work-family program (Casper et al., 2004). In addition, the strategic

choice perspective proposes that supervisors are faced with an overwhelming degree

of issues that compete for their attention (Dutton & Ashford, 1993). In order for a

supervisor to act on an issue it must first be *noticed* and then must be seen as *relevant*

to organizational objectives (Daft & Weick, 1984; Milliken, 1990; Milliken et al.,

1998). A belief in the business case increases the relevance of providing family-

supportive supervision. Milliken and colleagues (1998) found that organizations were

more likely to offer work-life policies and benefits when they had HR executives who believed that work-family issues impacted productivity. Another study found that HR professionals were more likely to grant flexible work arrangements if they had a stronger belief in the business case for flexibility (Brennan et al., 2011). The studies cited here demonstrate how organizational leaders' beliefs are related to the formal benefits offered by an organization and referrals made to those programs. The findings of this dissertation add to this literature by demonstrating that supervisors' belief in the business case for work-life supports is related to a wider range of supervisor supports such as inquiring about employees' work-life needs, helping employees to problem-solve, and making accommodations or changes to the way work is done to help employees manage their work and non-work responsibilities.

Support Seeking

This dissertation also contributes to the literature by finding that employees who sought support for work-life matters reported greater levels of family-supportive supervision. Social support seeking can be seen as a coping strategy (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Thoits, 1995). Research has also shown that social support seeking, among other coping behaviors, is related to better well-being in working women with family responsibilities (Rao et al., 2003). A recent study found that a training designed to increase family-supportive supervision had more positive effects for employees who were high in family-to-work conflict (Hammer et al., 2011). One conceivable explanation is that these employees, who had high family to work conflict, sought more support from their supervisors and therefore received more support. Another

study found that a coping intervention designed to reduce work-family stress by increasing support from work sources resulted in lower work-family stress and psychological symptoms (Kline & Snow, 1994). The findings of this dissertation, along with those reviewed here demonstrate the importance of support-seeking as a coping mechanism for dealing with work-family-conflict.

Family-Supportive Supervision and Work-Family Conflict

This study also adds to the literature demonstrating that greater family-supportive supervision is related lower work-family conflict. As I reviewed in the introduction, several studies have suggested that greater family-supportive supervision is related to lower work-family conflict (Allen, 2001; Erdwins et al., 2001; Frye & Breaugh, 2004; Hammer et al., 2009; Kossek et al., in press). It has been suggested that social support from work sources is more likely to reduce work-related strain, whereas social support from family sources is more likely to reduce family-related strain (Goldsmith, 2007). This is consistent with Frone et al.'s (1997) conceptual model of work-family conflict which posed that antecedents of each direction of work-family conflict (i.e., work-to-family conflict, family-to-work conflict) would come from the originating domain. Yet it is still conventional to examine both work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict when conducting research in this area given that both are part of the meta-construct of work-family conflict and likely have some reciprocal impact on one another. A meta-analysis by Kossek et al. (in press) found that family-supportive supervision was negatively related to both work-to-

family and family-to-work conflict; however, supervisor support was more strongly

associated with work-to-family conflict than family-to-work conflict. This dissertation

is one of the few studies to examine these relationships using a multi-level design. I

found that family-supportive supervision was related to work-to-family conflict but

not to family-to-work conflict. Only one other study has been done using multi-level

data, and it too found that family supportive supervision is related to work-to-family

conflict but not family-to-work conflict (Hammer et al., 2009). Providing further

evidence that family-supportive supervision is negatively related to work-family

conflict is important because this relationship is fundamental to the argument that

organizations should take steps to improve family-supportive supervision.

Methodological Contributions

Multi-Level Design

The multi-level design of this dissertation was innovative compared to the

single-level survey research that is typically done in the work-family field. Data were

collected from multiple sources e.g., (supervisors and employees) reducing the impact

of common method variance on the validity of the results. The over reliance on self-

report data from a single source has long been a criticism of the work-family literature

(Casper et al., 2007; Eby et al., 2005). Using a multi-level design allowed me to

account for the nesting of employees within supervisors making it possible to estimate

the amount of variance in family-supportive supervision and work-family conflict that

are shared among employees with the same supervisor and the amount that is within

employees. The largest share of the variability in perceptions of family-supportive supervision and work-family conflict were found to be between employees; yet, there was a noteworthy amount of variability at the supervisor-level in family-supportive supervision and work-to-family conflict. These finding suggest that when studying family-supportive supervision or work-to-family conflict in a setting where you have multiple employees reporting to each supervisor it is important to account for these nested realtionships. In addition, when studying supervisor-level predictors of family-supportive supervision or work-family conflict it is important to use a multi-level model so that you can estimate the supervisor level contributions to these outcomes.

From a systems perspective, it is interesting to note the level at which the emergent properties of family-supportive supervision occur. It is possible to think of family-supportive supervision as a top-down construct that is fostered and manifest at the supervisor-level as the result of supervisors knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs and experienced similarly by all employees of a particular supervisor. These finding suggest that, that is not the case, but instead that the experience of family-supportive supervision among employees of the same supervisor is to a large degree unique. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory posits that supervisors treat their subordinates differently depending on the quality of their social exchanges with the subordinate (Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997). Recently, the term idiosyncratic deals (i-deals) has been used in the work-life literature to describe individually negotiated work arrangements that are outside of the formal policies or benefits but that are mutually beneficial to both the employee and the employer (Rousseau, Ho, &

Greenberg, 2006). While i-deals may not be seen as fair from an equality perspective they may be viewed as fair from an equity perspective. As such, some experts have suggested that supervisors and employees should be empowered to negotiate i-deals that are the best fit for the employees unique work-life needs and organizational contributions (Major & Lauzun, 2010). The application of ecological systems perspective (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998) might suggest that the emergent properties of family-supportive supervision may occur through proximal processes between the supervisor and employee-levels. Proximal processes have been defined as increasingly complex reciprocal interactions between a person and other people in their immediate environment, which take place consistently over an extended period of time. Family-supportive supervision could be considered one form of proximal process as employees and their supervisors negotiate strategies to help the employee meet family obligations while at the same time maintaining an expectable level of performance. It is possible that levels of family-supportive supervision may vary over time as a function of these interactions. One interesting idea for future research would be to see if levels of family-supportive supervision change over time based upon the quality of these exchanges over time (e.g., supervisor's level of openness or creativity, employee's performance when accommodations are made, etc.).

Measurement

A new scale measuring supervisor's belief in the business case was developed for this dissertation. The items were developed based on a review of research evidence about the possible benefits of work-life supports for organizations. The content

included beliefs that providing support to employees trying to balance their work and

family would lead to greater employee job satisfaction; increased employee

commitment; better employee health; less employee burnout; fewer employee

absences; less employee turnover; increased employee performance; and increased

organizational performance. The scale demonstrated good reliability. Only one other

known scale of the belief in the business case exists; that scale focuses on the belief in

the business case for flexibility (Brennan et al., 2011). Thus this scale is unique and

may be of interest to other work-family researchers.

A new measure of support sought was also created for this dissertation. I was

not able to estimate the reliability of this measure as it was a single-item measure.

However, demonstrating that it was positively related to needed support and family-

supportive supervision provides some preliminary evidence of its validity. As I have

mentioned previously in this dissertation, support seeking is a valuable coping strategy

(Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Thoits, 1995) that has been linked to employee well-being

(Kline & Snow, 1994; Rao et al., 2003). This dissertation demonstrated the importance

of this construct to research on family-supportive supervision and work-family

conflict. In the work-life literature variables such as gender, relationship status, and

having children, or elder care responsibilities are often used as proxies for greater need

for support or greater support seeking. Additional analyses looking at differences

between employees who did not need support, those who needed support but did not

seek it, and those who sought support, indicate that these demographic proxies may be

poor substitutes for measuring support sought. The analyses did reveal that employees with children and eldercare were more likely to seek support than employees without these responsibilities. There was no difference in support sought based on gender or relationship status. Managers may subscribe to stereotypes that women need greater family-supportive supervision than men. As I discussed in the introduction, societal values are changing, encouraging men to take on greater domestic responsibilities including childcare. These findings suggest that gender may not be a good proxy for understanding who seeks work-life supports. However, these findings need to be confirmed in a more representative sample. Relationship status may also not be a good indicator of who seeks work-life supports. Single parents, for example, may need greater support than employees who live with a partner. Even having children or eldercare are imperfect proxies of need for support; over a third of employees with these responsibilities reported that they did not seek support. Thus, rather than using these variables as proxies for support sought it would be better to assess support sought directly.

Response Rate

The response rate for this dissertation was very good (92.00% for managers, and 68.28% for employees). The response high response rate was partly due to managers self-selecting to participate in the study. Managers that were enthusiastic about the topic were more willing to encourage their staff to participate. In addition, much effort was taken to assuring a good response rate. After a supervisor signed up to participate, I hand-delivered a packet with the survey and other study materials to

them at their office in a self-addressed stamped envelope. I also enclosed a couple of chocolates as a thank-you in advance for their participation. I followed up with an email thanking them for talking with me and agreeing to participate. I sent email reminders at one week and two weeks if I had not heard back from a supervisor. If I still had not heard back from them after the email reminders I called them by phone to remind them one last time.

Once I received a supervisor's survey back I emailed her to schedule times to visit her unit(s) to invite her nurses to participate. If I did not hear back via email I contacted the supervisor by phone or made a visit to her office. One of the biggest challenges was making contact with the supervisors to schedule data collections on their units. Supervisors were very busy and did not always respond to emails. The willingness to make calls or visits to their offices across a variety of times to catch them was essential to facilitate scheduling data collections on their units. It was also helpful to explain that I would not be able to use their responses without the responses of their nurses. In the end I was able to schedule data collections for all but one unit whose managers' had signed up to participate.

There were several measures taken to insure a good response rate at the nurses' level too. I visited each unit on 2-3 shifts, every other day, for a week. Each time they saw me nurses were reminded to fill out and return their surveys. If a supervisor was willing and available I asked that they introduce me to the nurses and express their support for the project at least once. In units where the supervisor was willing to do

this I noticed a better response rate. In addition, I learned early on that nurses do many in-services, trainings and surveys and are used to being offered an incentive for their participation. Thus, I offered the incentive of bagels and cream cheese to units returning a certain number of surveys.

These techniques were successful in helping me achieve a good response rate, and may be helpful to others with a similar design. It should be noted that these efforts were very time and labor intensive and future research should look into which of these elements are most crucial to assuring a good response rate.

Possible Explanations for Null Results

I was not able to find support for many of my hypotheses. The inability to find significant results seemed to be more an issue of effect size than sample size. I had powered for effect sizes of .25 or greater at the supervisor level. My highest effect size at the supervisor level was .12 for the business case, which was significant. The effect sizes for the other supervisor-level predictors were lower and not significant. It is possible that these low effect sizes could have been an artifact of the measures that I used. There was limited variability in some of the measures used for this study. Future research in this area could benefit from further measurement work. Also, I found that there was relatively little variability in my family-supportive supervision measure at the supervisor level. This was the level at which most of my hypotheses were proposed. This variability may have been limited as a result of sampling just one segment of the working population, nurses in a hospital setting. Research indicates

that the level of work-family culture may affect family-supportive supervision.

Hospitals are likely to have less variability in work-family culture from organization

to organization than other industries due to the relatively standard type of work that

they do and the degree of regulation they are governed by. It is possible that the

hypothesized relationships may exist across a wider variety of industries and

occupations. In addition, there were some other characteristics of this sample that may

have obscured my ability to find the relationships I hypothesized. One of these

characteristics was that it is common for scheduling to be done by a scheduler and not

by the supervisor. Offering schedule flexibility is an important aspect of family-

supportive supervision. This was a realization that I came to in retrospect, and I do not

have any data that examined this. Future studies in this population should consider

collecting data from the scheduler in addition to the supervisor. In addition, in this

population it is common for coworkers to work together to find solutions to work-life

issues, trading shifts, covering duties, etc. Thus, some of the need for support may be

addressed at the coworker level. In summary, future research should continue to look

into whether the hypothesized relationships exist when better measurement tools can

be applied across a more diverse sample of supervisors and employees.

In addition, I was not able to find enough variability in the relationship

between support sought and family-supportive supervision to go on to test supervisor-

level factor that might moderate this relationship. These findings suggest that

supervisor-level factors, such as attitudes and resources, may have little to do with the

level of support a supervisor offers when support is sought. While it is possible that in

a more diverse sample of industries and occupations there may be more variability in

the relationship between support sought and family-supportive supervision allowing

for the investigation of supervisor-level moderators; it may be even more promising to

look for moderators at the employee-level, for example the type of request, the

perceived value of the employee, the supervisor employee relationship, or other such

factors.

Other Limitations

Despite the contributions of this dissertation, the design has some other

limitations that should be mentioned. Given that all of the organizations sampled for

this dissertation were hospitals concentrated in the Pacific Northwest, caution should

be taken when generalizing the results to other segments of the U.S. population. In

addition, given that the design is cross-sectional I am unable to decisively state the

direction of these relationships. However, logic can be used to support directional

assumptions. For example, logically it would not make sense to state that employee

perceptions of family-supportive supervision caused supervisors to believe in the

business case for work-life support. Despite these limitations, this dissertation

provides a first step in the exploration of the supervisor and employee antecedents of

family-supportive supervision, and its role in work-family conflict.

Organizational Implications

The finding that greater family supportive supervision is related to lower work-family conflict is consistent with a growing body of research (Hammer et al., 2011; Kossek et al., In press). In addition this dissertation reviews the literature demonstrating the links between greater work-family conflict and a variety of negative work outcomes. These findings in combination indicate that organizations may benefit from trainings designed to increase family-supportive supervision. I will discuss specific strategies for trainings to increase family-supportive supervision in this section.

One of the main aims of this dissertation was to identify supervisor and employee-level factors that could be the targets of future workplace trainings. The results of this dissertation indicate that both supervisors' belief in the business case for offering work-life supports and employees' support seeking might be areas were organizations could intervene to improve family-supportive supervision. In addition it could be extrapolated that the most effective interventions would be those that intervened at multiple levels.

At the supervisor-level I found that a stronger belief in the business case for work-life supports was related to family-supportive supervision. While there is research demonstrating the business case for family-supportive supervision, some managers still hold the belief that accommodating employees' work-life needs will cause organizational performance to suffer. To my knowledge there is a dearth of research or theorizing about the drivers in supervisors' belief in the business case for

offering work-life supports. Thus, before designing an intervention it might be helpful to begin by conducting focus groups with supervisors who were both high and low in the belief for the business case to uncover the drivers of their beliefs. If scientific evidence was found to be a driver of their beliefs it might be useful to presenting some of the evidence reviewed in this dissertation, which links both formal and informal work-life supports to positive organizational outcomes. Some supervisors may question the credibility or applicability of research done in other industries or occupations. Thus another idea would be to find data that could be used to examine these relationships in their own organization. If possible supervisor support items could be added to an employee satisfaction survey. Attempts could also be made to link these data to archival data (e.g., absences, turnover, performance metrics, etc.). However, statistical evidence alone may not be convincing to some supervisors. In the business environment it is common to use case studies of success as exemplars of best practices. Pairing the research evidence with real world examples could better illustrate concrete examples of the types of work-life supports that are likely to serve the dual agenda of helping employees while at the same time improving organizational outcomes. In order to identify these real world examples, an organization might look for supervisors who have been particularly successful at providing support to employees in managing their work and family responsibilities while at the same time maintaining high work group productivity and ask them about experiences that they may have had with using innovative new approaches to helping employees manage their work and family responsibilities and the results they have witnessed. The extent

to which these success stories came from senior leaders or highly credible sources may also increase their persuasiveness. Using role playing activities based on these scenarios might also increase the fidelity and transfer of the training. Ultimately, the effectiveness of any training that was designed would need to be tested to determine its effectiveness.

At the employee-level I found that employees who sought more support for work-life issues received greater family-supportive supervision. In follow-up analyses I found that 28.8% of employees who needed support for work-life issues did not seek support. These findings imply that one possible way to improve family-supportive supervision may be to intervene to encouraging employees to seek support when it is needed. Some ways to do this might include education about the benefit of building and maintaining strong social support networks, and teaching skills such as communications skills, assertiveness, and negotiation through role playing or other such techniques. Preferably such activities would be done in working groups to help foster a more supportive culture.

Another finding of this dissertation was that not all employees who fit a demographic profile (e.g., female, living with a partner, having children and/or eldercare responsibilities) which is typically associated with needing greater work-life supports reported needing or seeking support. These findings suggest that it may be important to include some training to supervisor about the importance of assessing employees' need and desire for various forms of support. As reviewed in the introduction, the only known study testing an intervention to increase family-

supportive supervision found that the intervention had positive effects for employees with high work-family conflict but negative effects for employees with low work-family conflict (Hammer et al., 2011). Research has demonstrated that certain job characteristics (e.g., interdependence and managing other people) are related to greater work-family conflict (Dierdorff, 2008; Major & Cleveland, 2007). Experts have suggested the importance of providing managers with information about how certain occupations may increase work-family conflict (Major & Lauzun, 2010). Such information could be obtained by conducting work-life job analyses (Morganson, Major, & Bauer, 2009). Another study found that employees experiencing intimate partner violence had differing patterns in their preference for different types of supervisor support, ranging from maintaining confidentiality to tangible forms of support such as offering a pay advance to help them obtain safe housing (Perrin, Yragui, Hanson, & Glass, in press). It goes without saying that employees have different needs and that they would prefer support that fit their particular challenges. However, these findings suggest that even employees who are experiencing similar challenges may prefer to be supported in different ways. Previous research in the broader social support literature has indicated that the receipt of unwanted social support can be just as distressing as not receiving support when it is wanted (Reynolds & Perrin, 2004). Thus in practice, when intervening to increase family-supportive supervision, supervisors should be trained to understand that different employees may have different needs and different preferences as to how they would like to be supported. For example, some of the types of family-supportive supervision measured

in this study included listening to an employees' problems, sharing ideas or advice, helping to problem solve, switching schedules, and juggling tasks and duties to accommodate employee's family responsibilities. It is possible that one employee may prefer to have a supervisor listen to their problems but may not want any advice or ideas while another employee may want to be able to ask for specific accommodations without having to share a lot of personal details about their life. It may be helpful for supervisors to try to assess an employee's needs and desire for different types of family-supportive supervision before offering them.

Given that I found factors related to family-supportive supervision at both the employee and supervisor levels, another important implication for practice would be to intervene at multiple levels. While I focused on employee and the supervisor level predictors of family-supportive supervision, it is important to keep in mind the larger context. At the organizational level there are formal supports such as policies and benefits as well as informal supports such as work-family culture. In the introduction I discussed how work-family culture and family supportive supervision may be linked in a reinforcing reciprocal feedback loop. Some experts have suggested that workplace culture is shaped by the behavior, values, and attitudes of upper-management and immediate supervisors (Bond et al., 2005). However, work-family culture may also affect family-supportive supervision. For example, a lack of work-life policies or benefits at the organizational level may offer supervisors fewer options to assist their employees. In addition, an unsupportive work-family culture may inhibit a supervisor

from offering support. Thus, when designing an intervention it may be important to consider what forces in the culture may exist that may have countervailing or synergistic effects and whether there are ways that the intervention could be targeted to improve the work-family culture while at the same time increasing family-supportive supervision. For example, having employees and supervisors participate together in a training session may help to foster a greater culture of openness and trust in which employees feel empowered to seek the support that they need and supervisors are more motivated to provide support because they believe that there is a business case for doing so.

Future Research

Designing and Evaluating Workplace Interventions

Future research needs to be done to examine whether interventions similar to those suggested in the organizational implications section of this dissertation would actually be effective in increasing family-supportive supervision. For example, would providing evidence from the literature, such as that reviewed in this dissertation about the business case for providing work-life supports, increase family-supportive supervision and in turn reduce work-family conflict? Similarly, would providing real world examples of family-supportive supervision and its benefits increase family-supportive supervision? Which of these, or other techniques, are most effective? Perhaps preliminary studies could be done to examine these questions using written scenarios. More conclusive studies might involve evaluation of actual interventions.

Research should also be done to evaluate the effectiveness of interventions designed to increase support seeking. For example, would an intervention which emphasized building and maintaining strong social support networks, communication, assertiveness, and negotiation skills be effective at increasing family-supportive supervision. Ultimately, it would be important to evaluate whether intervening at multiple-levels really was more effective than intervening at just one level.

Understanding Barriers to Support Seeking

Future research should explore the barriers to seeking support for work-life issues. I found that 28.8% of employees who needed support for work-life issues did not seek support. Understanding the barriers to support seeking would help practitioners who wanted to design trainings to improve support seeking. These barriers could be at many levels. For example, some barriers could be at a societal level. For example, social norms may suggest that it is more acceptable for an employee to ask for support to switch schedules to attend a funeral verses to rushing home to do housework before a last minute visitor arrived. Organizational culture may present other barriers. For example, the organizational culture may be such that discussing any family responsibilities is perceived as a lack of organizational commitment. Supervisor characteristics may also affect employees' willingness to seek support. For example, if a supervisor models effective strategies for managing work and non-work responsible an employee may feel more comfortable coming to them for support. Employee characteristics may also play a role, for example

introverted employees may feel less comfortable seeking support. Lastly, it is likely

that the nature of the issue is likely to affect employees' willingness to seek support.

For example, if they or there child are dealing with a personal health condition or

behavioral problem that carries a stigma they may be less willing to talk about their

problem with their supervisor. Understanding the potential barriers to support seeking

could be useful when designing an intervention to increase family-supportive

supervision.

Other Employee-Level Predictors of Family-Supportive Supervision

Given that much of the variability in family-supportive supervision seems to

be at the employee-level, future researchers should try to identify other employee-

level factors that are related to family-supportive supervision. It is possible that

employee-level factors (e.g., support sought) have a greater impact on the variability

of family-supportive supervisor than supervisor-level factors such as supervisor

attitudes and resources. One interesting question for future research would be whether

the quality of the employee-supervisor relationship is related to the level of family-

supportive supervision that employees report. Leader-member exchange theory posits

that supervisors treat their subordinates differently depending on the quality of their

social exchanges with the subordinate (Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997). One of the

variables shown to enhance the quality of social exchanges is attitude similarity. One

proxy for attitude similarity is similarity on demographic characteristics (Winfield &

Rushing, 2005). There is mixed evidence about whether demographic similarities

affect family supportive supervision. As they were examined as covariates in this

dissertation, supervisor-employee similarity on gender and race were not related to employee's perceptions of family-supportive supervision. However it should be noted that this sample was disproportionally white and female. Research has shown that subordinate perceptions of supervisor work-family value similarity predicted increased family supportive supervision (Thompson et al., 2006). Research has shown that higher LMX is related to lower work-family conflict (Bernas & Major, 2000; Lapierre, Hackett, & Taggar, 2006). However, research has not examined the relationship between the quality of the supervisor-employee relationship directly. Other employee-level variables which might be interesting to explore include the nature of the employee's request (e.g., duration, perceived impact on work flow, etc.), the employee's perceived value to the organization, history of meeting performance goals, or time management skills.

Understanding Differences in Desire for Family-Supportive Supervision

Finally, it might be interesting to do research into the differences among employees in their preferences for family-supportive supervision. For example, are there groups of employees who prefer different patterns of support? If so, are there any characteristics that can be used to identify what types of support an employee might prefer. It might be interesting to extend the work of Reynolds and Perrin (2004) to see if the match between an employee's desired support, and received support is related to work family conflict and other organizational outcomes in a workplace setting.

Measurement

The finding that the greatest share of the variability in family-supportive supervision occurs at the employee level has implications for the level at which this construct should be measured in future research. This finding suggests that researchers may miss a great deal of the variability that occurs in family-supportive supervision if they measure it at the supervisor level. This finding also suggests that it would be unwise to consider aggregating employee responses up to the supervisor level. Doing so would obscure much of the variability in family-supportive supervision and make it more difficult to study and understand its association with other variables. It should be noted however, that family-supportive supervision was measured through employees' self-report, thus some of the variability is likely due to individual differences in the way support is perceived and evaluated.

Another implication for research is that measuring employee need for work-life supports directly may be more accurate than relying on demographic proxies for work-life needs (e.g., gender, relationship status, parental status, and eldercare responsibility).

<div align="center">*Summary*</div>

There is a growing awareness that informal supports such as family-supportive supervision may be related to employee and organizational well-being both directly and through assuring the success of work-life policies and benefits. The finding of this dissertation that greater family-supportive supervision is related to lower levels of

work-to-family conflict adds to a growing body of literature demonstrating that organizations may benefit from taking steps to increase family-supportive supervision. In addition, I found that both supervisor-level factors (i.e., belief in the business case) and employee-level factors (i.e., support sought) are related to family supportive supervision. The implication of these findings is that organizations seeking to increase family-supportive supervision may have the best results if they intervene at multiple levels (i.e. both the employee and the supervisor levels). This dissertation reviews a rich body of evidence demonstrating the business case for offering work-life supports that could serve as a starting point for developing a training to increase supervisors' belief in the business case. Organizations may also choose to intervene to increase social support seeking which has been shown to be an effective coping mechanism. Some ways to do this might emphasize the benefit of building and maintaining strong social support networks, and teaching communications skills such as assertiveness, and negotiation. The multi-level design of this dissertation revealed that the largest proportion of variability in family-supportive supervision was at the employee-level. This finding suggests the importance of measuring family-supportive supervision at the employee-level and suggests that future research should focus on the employee-level predictors of family-supportive supervision.

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Appendix A

Informed Consent Cover Letter

Dear Research Participant,

I would like to ask you to participate in a research study that examines perceptions and behavior toward employees' work-life integration. This study is part of my dissertation as a doctorial student in the Psychology Department and Portland State University.

When conducting research it is critical to reach individuals who have a variety of experiences and knowledge about work-life integration. Each person's experience is unique and important to include in a study. Your participation is very valuable. The results of this study may provide knowledge that will help employees manage work and non-work demands in the future.

The study will involve sharing your opinions on a questionnaire. The questionnaire will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

Your participation is voluntary and choosing not to participate will have no effect on your employment. Your identity will be kept confidential. The study results shared with your company will describe findings from the participants as a group so your individual responses cannot be identified. You may discontinue participation in this study at any time. Although I hope you will answer every question presented, if you feel uncomfortable answering some of the questions, you may skip them.

After you have completed the survey please seal it in the provided self-addressed envelope and drop it in the mail.

If you have any questions, you may contact Ginger Hanson at 503-332-4991. She will offer to answer any questions about the content or/and procedures of this study. If you have any concerns about the subject rights, please contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Research Review Committee, Office of Research and Sponsored Projects, 111 Cramer Hall, Portland State University, Portland, Oregon, 97202, (503) 725-4288.

Sincerely,

Ginger C Hanson, Doctorial Candidate
Department of Psychology
Portland State University

Appendix B

FAMILY-SUPPORTIVE SUPPERVISION STUDY

Supervisor Questionnaire

Please complete this questionnaire and return it

in the attached self-addressed, stamped envelope

Thank you.

**Important! The form should be completed using a
BLACK or DARK BLUE ballpoint/fountain pen.
Numbers and marks used should be similar in style to below:**

1234567890 ⊠ ☑

I. Organizational Policies and Benefits

ID#: ☐☐☐

Please indicate which, if any policies and benefits are offered by you organization. If the benefit is offered please indicate how well informed you are about the policy.

		Not Informed	Not well Informed	Some-what Informed	Very well Informed
1. Flexible work hours (e.g. employees commit to working a set number of hours and choose hours that best suit their needs and the needs of the organization)	☐ **YES** ➔ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Shiftwork (e.g. option of working swingshift, nightshift, etc.)	☐ **YES** ➔ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Compressed work week (e.g. option of working four, 10 hour shifts)	☐ **YES** ➔ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Part-time work	☐ **YES** ➔ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Job sharing (e.g. two or more people work part-time to fill one job)	☐ **YES** ➔ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐

		Not Informed	Not well Informed	Some-what Informed	Very well Informed
6. Option to work at home/telecommute	☐ **YES** ➜ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Unpaid leave to care for a family member (e.g. maternity/paternity leave, sick leave, etc.)	☐ **YES** ➜ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Paid leave to care for a family member (e.g. maternity/paternity leave, sick leave, etc.)	☐ **YES** ➜ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Personal Time Off (PTO)/Vacation or other paid leave which can be used to care for a family member	☐ **YES** ➜ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Flexible (PTO)/Vacation (e.g. employees can take leave in smaller blocks of time, for example a half day off)	☐ **YES** ➜ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Family health care insurance	☐ **YES** ➜ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.Pension/retirement plan/401k	☐ **YES** ➜ ☐ **NO**	☐	☐	☐	☐

		Not Informed	Not well Informed	Some-what Informed	Very well Informed
	☐ Don't Know				
13. Employee education plan	☐ YES ➔ ☐ NO ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Program that allows workers to set aside pre-tax dollars to pay for childcare	☐ YES ➔ ☐ NO ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Program that allows workers to set aside pre-tax dollars to pay for care of a parent	☐ YES ➔ ☐ NO ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Subsidy for child care	☐ YES ➔ ☐ NO ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Subsidy for parent care	☐ YES ➔ ☐ NO ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. On-site child care center	☐ YES ➔ ☐ NO ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. The ability to bring your child to work in emergency	☐ YES ➔ ☐ NO	☐	☐	☐	☐

		Not Informed	Not well Informed	Some-what Informed	Very well Informed
	☐ Don't Know				
20. On-site adult day care center	☐ **YES** ➔ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Resources and referral services for child care	☐ **YES** ➔ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. Resources and referral services for elder care	☐ **YES** ➔ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. On-site support groups on family related issues	☐ **YES** ➔ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Seminars on work and family issues	☐ **YES** ➔ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Employee assistance program (EAP)	☐ **YES** ➔ ☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. Other family-friendly policies and benefits/programs	☐ **YES** ➔	☐	☐	☐	☐

		Not Informed	Not well Informed	Some-what Informed	Very well Informed
Specify: _____	☐ **NO** ☐ Don't Know				

II. Workforce

Please list changes in the nature of families and/or the composition of the workforce that, in your opinion, have increased the importance of providing support to employees who are trying to balance work and non-work responsibilities.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

III. Supervisor Support

How often in the past 2 months has your supervisor engaged in specific supportive behaviors?

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. Switched schedules (hours, overtime hours, vacation) to accommodate my family responsibilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Listened to my problems	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Was critical of my efforts to combine work and family	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Juggled tasks or duties to accommodate my family responsibilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Shared ideas or advice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Held my family responsibilities against me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Helped me figure out how to solve a problem	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Was understanding or sympathetic	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Showed resentment of my needs as a working parent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate the degrees to which you agree with each of the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My supervisor understands my family demands.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. My supervisor listens when I talk about my family.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. My supervisor acknowledges that I have obligations as a family member.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

IV. Employee Information

Please indicate which, if any methods your organization uses to obtaining information about employees' work-life needs and concerns

	No	Yes
1. Employee surveys	☐	☐
2. Focus groups	☐	☐
3. Exit interviews	☐	☐
4. Written suggestion programs	☐	☐
5. Discussions at staff meetings	☐	☐
6. Informal contact between decision makers and employees	☐	☐
7. Other, specify: _____	☐	☐

V. Reward System

Please indicate the degrees to which you agree with each of the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My organization rewards managers who are sensitive to employees' needs to balance work and personal life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. My organization rewards managers who partner with individual employees to develop creative solutions to their specific work-life needs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. My organization rewards managers who assist employees in utilizing work-life benefits.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

VI. Productivity Maintainance

Please indicate the degrees to which you agree with each of the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Other employees have too much responsibility for the work of employees who use work-life benefits.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. My unit facilitates adequate communication between workers who utilize work-life benefits (e.g., job sharing and flextime) and employees who do not use work-life benefits so that all employees are able to perform their assigned duties effectively.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
3. When employees use work-life benefits other employees have to do more work than they can comfortably handle.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. My unit does not have well-developed procedures for dealing with work distribution issues that arise when employees use work-life benefits.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. My unit has effective procedures for maintaining the productivity of all employees when coworkers use work-life benefits.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

VII. Business Case

Providing support to employees trying to balance their work and family lives leads to:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Greater employee job satisfaction.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Increased employee commitment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Better employee health	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Less employee burnout	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Fewer employee absences	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Less employee turnover	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Increased employee performance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Increased organizational performance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

VIII. Demographics

1. What is your age? ☐☐ Years

2. What is your gender?

☐ Male   ☐ Female

3. What is your race? (please check all that apply)

☐ White   ☐ Black or African American   ☐ American Indian or Alaskan native

☐ Asian   ☐ Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander   ☐ Other_____

4. Are you Hispanic or Latino/Latina?

☐ No   ☐ Yes

5. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

☐ Some high school   ☐ High school diploma or GED

☐ Some college or associate's degree   ☐ Bachelor's degree   ☐ Graduate degree

6. What is your official job title?
_____
(please print neatly)

7. How long have you worked for this company? ☐☐ Years ☐☐
Months

8. How long have you been in management? ☐☐ Years ☐☐
   Months

9. How many employees do you supervise? ☐☐☐ Total

10. On average, how many hours per week do you work? ☐☐ Hours/per week

11. What is your relationship status?

☐ Married   ☐ Divorced or separated   ☐ Widowed

☐ Living as married   ☐ Never married

12. How many children do you have (including stepchildren)? ☐☐

13. How many children (including stepchildren) do you have living at home? ☐☐

14. Please think about those parents (including step-parents) and/or parents-in-law whom you and/or your spouse or partner are helping out in some way. By helping out, we mean everything that you each do to assist a parent such as shopping, home maintenance, transportation to appointments, providing emotional support, financial management, checking on them by phone, making arrangements for care, making meals, bathing, time spent traveling to and from their residence, etc.

Please indicate the average hours per week a parent was helped by you and/or your spouse or partner
☐☐ Hours/per week

Thank you for participating in this important study!

Please take a moment to look back and make sure
you have not missed any pages or questions.

Please mail the completed questionnaire in the attached self-addressed, stamped envelope. If you have any questions, please call 503-332-4991.

Appendix C

FAMILY-SUPPORTIVE SUPPERVISION STUDY

Employee Questionnaire

Please complete this questionnaire and return it

in the attached self-addressed, stamped envelope

Thank you.

**Important! The form should be completed using a
BLACK or DARK BLUE ballpoint/fountain pen.
Numbers and marks used should be similar in style to below:**

1234567890 ⊠ ☑

ID#: ☐☐☐ ☐☐☐

I. Work-Family Conflict

Please indicate the degrees to which you agree with each of the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. The demands of my work interfere with my family time.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill my family responsibilities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Due to my work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. The demands of my family interfere with work-related activities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
9. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work, such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

II. Supervisor Support

Please think about your <u>nurse manager</u> when you answer the next section of questions.

How often in the past <u>2 months</u> has your supervisor engaged in specific supportive behaviors?

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. Switched schedules (hours, overtime hours, vacation) to accommodate my family responsibilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Listened to my problems	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Was critical of my efforts to combine work and family	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Juggled tasks or duties to accommodate my family responsibilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Shared ideas or advice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Held my family responsibilities against me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Helped me figure out how to solve a problem	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
8. Was understanding or sympathetic	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Showed resentment of my needs as a working parent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate the degrees to which you agree with each of the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
4. My supervisor understands my family demands.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. My supervisor listens when I talk about my family.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. My supervisor acknowledges that I have obligations as a family member.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

How often in the past <u>2 months</u> have you felt the need for support from your supervisor for family related issues?

☐ Never
☐ Seldom
☐ Occasionally
☐ Often

How often in the past <u>2 months</u> have you sought support from your supervisor to deal with family related matters?

☐ Never
☐ Seldom
☐ Occasionally
☐ Often

III. Reward Systems

Please indicate the degrees to which you agree with each of the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My organization rewards managers who are sensitive to employees' needs to balance work and personal life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. My organization rewards managers who partner with individual employees to develop creative solutions to their specific work-life needs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. My organization rewards managers who assist employees in utilizing work-life benefits.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

IV. Productivity Maintainance

Please indicate the degrees to which you agree with each of the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I feel that I have too much responsibility for the work of others who use work-life benefits.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. My unit facilitates adequate communication between workers who utilize work-life benefits (e.g., job sharing and flextime) and employees who do not use work-life benefits so that all employees are able to perform their assigned duties effectively.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
3. When my coworkers use work-life benefits (e.g., parental leave) I feel that I have to do more work than I can comfortably handle.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. My unit does not have well-developed procedures for dealing with work distribution issues that arise when employees use work-life benefits.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. My unit has effective procedures for maintaining the productivity of all employees when coworkers use work-life benefits.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

V. Work-Family Culture

Please indicate the degrees to which you agree with each of the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1. There is an unwritten rule at my place of employment that you can't take care of family needs on company time.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. At my place of employment, employees who put their family or personal needs ahead of their jobs are not looked on favorably.	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
3. If you have a problem managing your work and family responsibilities, the attitude at my place of employment is: 'You made your bed, now lie in it!'	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. At my place of employment, employees have to choose between advancing in their jobs or devoting attention to their family or personal lives.	☐	☐	☐	☐

VI. Health

Please indicate how strongly you have felt the following ways:

	1 Very Mild	2	3	4 *Moderate*	5	6	7 *Very strong*
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I feel burned out from my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I feel frustrated by my job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I feel I am working too hard on my job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1 Very Mild	2	3	4 *Moderate*	5	6	7 *Very strong*
8. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate how the following statements represent how you have felt <u>during the past week</u>:

	Rarely or none of the time (Less than 1 day)	Some or a little of the time (1-2 days)	Occasionally or a moderate amount of time (3-4 days)	All of the time (5-7days)
1. I was bothered by things that usually don't bother me	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I had trouble keeping my mind on what I was doing	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I felt depressed	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I felt that everything I did was an effort	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I felt hopeful about the future	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I felt fearful	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. My sleep was restless	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. I was happy	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. I felt lonely	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. I could not get going	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate how you have felt during the past <u>seven days including today</u>:

	Not at All	A Little Bit	Quite a Bit	Extremely
1. Headaches	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Faintness or dizziness	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Pains in the heart or chest	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Feeling low in energy or slow down	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Pains in the lower part of your back	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Soreness in your muscles	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Trouble getting your breath	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Hot or cold spells	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Numbness or tingling in parts of your body	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. A lump in your throat	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Weakness in parts of your body	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Heavy feelings in your arms and legs	☐	☐	☐	☐

VII. Demographics

1. What is your age? ☐☐ Years

2. What is your gender?

    ☐ Male   ☐ Female

3. What is your race? (please check all that apply)

    ☐ White   ☐ Black or African American   ☐ American Indian or

Alaskan native

☐ Asian   ☐ Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander   ☐
Other_____

4. Are you Hispanic or Latino/Latina?

☐ No   ☐ Yes

5. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

☐ Some high school   ☐ High school diploma or GED

☐ Some college or associate's degree   ☐ Bachelor's degree   ☐
Graduate degree

6. What is your official job title?
_____
(please print neatly)

7. What unit do you work on?
_____
(please print neatly)

8. Which shift do you work?   _____
(please print neatly)

9. How long have you worked for this company?   ☐☐ Years   ☐☐
Months

10. On average, how many hours per week do you work?   ☐☐ Hours/per week

11. Are you a member of the union?   ☐ No   ☐ Yes

12. What is your relationship status?
☐ Married   ☐ Divorced or separated   ☐ Widowed
☐ Living as married   ☐ Never married

13. How many children do you have (including stepchildren)?   ☐☐

14. How many children (including stepchildren) do you have living at home? ☐☐

15. Please think about those parents (including step-parents) and/or parents-in-law whom you and/or your spouse or partner are helping out in some way. By helping out, we mean <u>everything</u> that you each do to assist a parent such as shopping, home maintenance, transportation to appointments, providing emotional support, financial management, checking on them by phone, making arrangements for care, making meals, bathing, time spent traveling to and from their residence, etc.

Please indicate the average hours per week a parent was helped by you and/or your spouse or partner
☐☐ Hours/per week

Thank you for participating in this important study!

Please take a moment to look back and make sure

you have not missed any pages or questions.

Please mail the completed questionnaire in the attached self-addressed, stamped envelope. If you have any questions, please call 503-332-4991.