

GENDERED ANTECEDENTS OF FAMILY-SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISOR
BEHAVIORS

by

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ABSTRACT

AMANDA C. SARGENT. Gendered antecedents of family-supportive supervisor behaviors. (Under the direction of DR. LINDA R. SHANOCK)

While much is known regarding important outcomes of Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors (FSSB), little research exists regarding possible antecedents. The present study applies a gender lens to establishing antecedents of FSSB using Social Role Theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) and Social Identity Theory (Tajfel, 1970). FSSB is a gendered behavior occurring in gendered, ambiguous organizational contexts enabling gender biases to affect supervisor behavior. Thus, I argue FSSB should be predicted from gender variables (gender role attitudes of the supervisor, gender match in the supervisory dyad, and subordinate's occupational gender type) in the supervisory relationship. An electronic survey was administered to an adult sample of full-time U.S. workers ($n = 103$ matched supervisors and subordinates) in a variety of occupations. Path analysis was employed as the method to test hypotheses. Results showed supervisor gender role attitudes predicted FSSB, as well as interactions of supervisor gender role attitudes with subordinate gender and occupational gender-type of subordinate. Findings suggest gender context of the work environment may override individual gender-role attitudes of supervisors when it comes to FSSB, and that men may experience lower FSSB than women in mixed-gender and male-dominated occupations. Implications for researchers and practitioners are discussed and include the importance of exploring possible structural changes in organizations to promote gender equality in FSSB.

DEDICATION

To my mother, Sharron, whose unfailing strength, tenacity, and fierce belief in the power and ability of women has cultivated the scholar and person I am today. For also my father, Warren, whose boundless pursuit of knowledge of the universe has inspired me to seek always the “long version.” It is by their example I persevere and continue to stretch for the unreachable. Finally, for my husband, Robert, without whose endless support none of this would have been possible.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

In the past decade, the construct of family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSBs; supervisor support that is directed specifically at work-family issues) has become a focus in the supervisor-support literature (Matthews, Mills, Trout, & English, 2014; Odle-Dusseau, Hammer, Crain, & Bodner, 2016; Walsh et al., 2018). Increased awareness of the negative consequences experienced by individuals and organizations as a result of conflict at the work-family interface have been a major factor contributing to emergence of FSSB (Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniel, 2007)). Dual-earner family situations (where both partners work) continue to rise in the United States (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018a), making balancing work with family demands a familiar challenge for a substantial population of workers providing care for children and/or a sick/ageing adult relative. The challenges posed by work-family issues suggest provision of specialized work-family support may have potential for improving employee and organizational outcomes.

In contrast to other forms of supervisor support, which have typically described general perceptions of the emotional supportiveness of supervisors, FSSB captures the supportive *behaviors* supervisors express specifically directed at addressing employee work-family issues (Hammer et al., 2007). FSSB has been related to important outcomes such as job satisfaction, reduced turnover intention, and worker well-being (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011; Lapiere & Allen, 2006), and has demonstrated unique contributions in predictions of

perceived organizational support, family-supportive organizational perceptions, and, work-family conflict (Kossek et al., 2011).

Evidence continues to mount regarding the positive outcomes of family-supportive supervision, yet little is currently known about the factors which lead to supervisor expression of FSSB. The present study employed an interdisciplinary approach to address the research gap regarding antecedents of FSSB. I argue the provision of FSSB is a gendered activity within gendered organizational contexts (Acker, 1990; Britton, 1997), and thus examined 1) the relationships between gender variables of the supervisory dyad and FSSB and 2) the FSSB-mediated relationships between proposed antecedents and known consequents of FSSB (perceived organizational support, family-supportive organizational perceptions, and work-family conflict).

The present study addresses the following gaps in the current FSSB literature: it will 1) aid the establishment of the nomological net surrounding FSSB by exploring potential antecedents of FSSB, and 2) increase knowledge of possible gender influences on the provision of family support in organizations. A greater understanding of the phenomena that lead to FSSB could potentially inform manager selection practices and/or aid in the development of family-supportive management training, which in turn could result in happier, healthier employees as well as increased employee retention and job performance. Empirical research has demonstrated work-family support variables can have positive impacts not only on worker wellbeing, but also on important organizational outcomes, such as the reduction of turnover intention (i.e. Moen, Kelly, & Hill, 2011), suggesting a better understanding of when and to who FSSB is most critical could enhance both employee and organizational positive outcomes.

1.1 Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors (FSSB)

Prior research has established FSSB as a superordinate construct with four dimensions: *emotional support*, *role modeling*, *instrumental support*, and *creative work-family management* (Hammer et al., 2007; Hammer et al., 2009). *Emotional support* refers to the behaviors related to the expression of empathy and sympathy to subordinates experiencing work-family-related challenges. *Role modeling* is described as behaviors that model positive work-life management, while *instrumental support* refers to how a supervisor reacts and responds to daily needs for accommodation of work-family problems. Finally, *creative work-family management* is described as “proactive,” “strategic,” and “innovative” efforts to “restructure work to facilitate employee effectiveness on and off the job” (Hammer et al., 2009, p. 842).

FSSB is a relatively new construct with most related research focusing on construct validation, measurement development, and establishing consequences. In their initial research, Hammer et al. (2009) cited both the possibility of enhanced prediction of work-family-related outcomes for employees and the lack of behavioral supervisor support measures in the literature as primary reasons for creating the multidimensional FSSB measure. Hammer and colleagues (2009) successfully provided construct validity evidence for a single scale to assess FSSB using a multi-study design with grocery workers and their supervisors. Notably, the researchers were able to show incremental validity above and beyond other measures in the prediction of both job- and work-family-related outcomes.

Regarding consequences of FSSB, Kossek et al. (2011) conducted a meta-analysis including an exploration of family-supportive supervision (frequently measured as FSSB)

as a possible antecedent of work-family conflict ($k = 115, n = 72,507$). The researchers found both general and family-supportive supervision were positively, uniquely, and significantly related to perceived organizational support and family-supportive organizational perceptions. Furthermore, supervisor work-family support had both direct and indirect negative relationships to work-family conflict, whereas general supervisor support showed only an indirect effect via perceived family-organizational support perceptions. In addition to linking FSSB to work-family conflict, the results of the Kossek and colleagues' study suggest both type and source of support are important to employee perceptions of support at the organizational level. Kossek and team's research supports the idea that FSSB may enhance employee outcomes over and above general supervisor support (without family focus).

Far less research has been conducted examining antecedents of FSSB. Straub (2011) created a conceptual model including individual and contextual variables as potential antecedents of FSSB, but this model remains largely untested. Only two empirical studies aligning to some degree with Straub's (2011) conceptual logic have been conducted with US samples, to examine antecedents of FSSB: Neglia (2015) and Epstein, Marler, & Taber (2015). Neglia (2015) attempted to clarify antecedents of FSSB by focusing on supervisor demographic variables. Gender identity, parental status, and marital status of the supervisor were tested, but results yielded support for marital status only as a predictor of FSSB. Epstein, Marler, & Taber (2015) used the trait approach to leadership (Zaccarro, 2007) and Social Role Theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) as theoretical justification for examining supervisor trait empathy and gender identity as antecedents of

FSSB. Empathy significantly predicted higher levels of FSSB, but supervisor gender identity did not.

The present study aimed to establish antecedents of FSSB by testing two of the proposed variables from Straub's (2011) conceptual model using a gender lens: gender roles and social identification in the form of gender match between supervisor and subordinate. In addition, I examine the moderating effect of occupational gender type of the subordinate. I argue supervisor provision of FSSB is influenced by variables heavily imbued with gender role beliefs at both individual and organizational levels, suggesting FSSB may be allocated differentially to men and women contingent on these gendered factors.

CHAPTER 2: HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Organizations are gendered contexts that typically reward behaviors associated with the male gender role, such as worker long hours and having constant availability for work (Acker 1990, Britton, 1997). Family caretaking behaviors, on the other hand, are typically associated with the female gender role and are often viewed as incongruent with ideal workplace behaviors (Acker, 1990; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Given the clash between gender-based behavioral expectations of working and caretaking, it is likely FSSB will be influenced by gender-related factors in the supervisory relationship.

The concept of gender role attitudes is articulated by Eagly and Karau's Social Role Theory (SRT; 2002), which suggests individuals expect certain (different) behaviors from people according to how they are categorized as male or female. Women are expected to behave in ways that suggest communality and men are expected to behave in ways that are agentic. Furthermore, research into gender bias has shown that biases play a greater role in dictating behavior in ambiguous or unstructured situations (Heilman & Haynes, 2008; Nieva & Gutek, 1980). FSSB is provided at the discretion of the supervisor in the absence of formalized rules, making the support provision situation ambiguous and ripe for bias to creep in and effect the supervisor's behavior. Thus, according to SRT and the fertile ground for bias created by the ambiguous support situation, men and women may be supported differentially in their wish to provide family caretaking by supervisors who hold stronger traditional gender role attitudes.

In addition to gender role attitudes, a supervisor's perceived gender match to subordinate may influence their decisions to provide FSSB. While the relationship between supervisor gender *identity* and FSSB has garnered little support in the limited

FSSB literature, supervisor perceptions of gender *similarity* to the subordinate has not been tested in the context of FSSB. According to Social Identity Theory (SIT), individuals who perceive others as sharing one or more group memberships (such as gender identity) will be more likely to provide help and support to that similar other (Hogg & Reid, 2006; Tajfel, 1970, Turner, 1975). Therefore, supervisors who perceive themselves as gender-matched to subordinates should demonstrate higher levels of FSSB.

2.1 Gender Role Attitudes.

As noted above, SRT asserts traditional gender role attitudes typically indicate men “should” behave in agentic ways, such as taking on the responsibility of providing for family through work activities, while women “should” behave in communal ways, such as caretaking and domestic management within the home (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Furthermore, when an individual behaves in ways that appear misaligned with gender role expectations (known as “role incongruity”), they may experience backlash or punishment (Eagly & Karau, 2002). People are described as having “traditional” gender role beliefs when their evaluations of behavior are based on how appropriate that behavior is to societal gender roles. Family caretaking behaviors conflict with behavior expectations of a competent worker, and thus are less likely to be supported by supervisors who hold the masculinized ideal worker standard as the point of comparison for subordinates (i.e. supervisors with traditional gender role attitudes). Supervisors with more egalitarian gender role attitudes, on the other hand, will be less likely to associate competent performance of work with masculine behaviors, and thus are more likely to provide FSSB:

H1: Supervisor gender role attitudes will be related to FSSB in that the more traditional the supervisor's gender role attitudes (i.e., the less egalitarian) the lower the FSSB ratings by subordinates.

As FSSB is aimed at aiding subordinates' management of the work-family interface, it is logical to expect the degree to which a supervisor holds traditional gender role attitudes will also influence their demonstration of FSSB differentially depending on the gender of their subordinates. Providing FSSB to female subordinates would not challenge a supervisor's traditional gender role attitudes, because caretaking is an activity congruent with the traditional female gender role. Men, on the other hand, may observe lower levels of FSSB than women as supporting men in family caretaking would result in a challenge to traditional male gender roles:

H2A: Subordinate gender will be related to FSSB in that female subordinates will perceive higher levels of FSSB than male subordinates.

H2B: To the extent supervisors hold traditional gender role attitudes, female subordinates will perceive higher levels of FSSB than male subordinates.

2.2 Gender Match to Subordinate

Prior research has examined gender identity of the supervisor as a possible antecedent of FSSB, but contrary to proposed hypotheses, little to no evidence of a relationship has been found (Neglia, 2015; Epstein, Marler, & Taber, 2015). Basuil, Manegold, and Casper's 2016 study is an exception, in that they found supervisor gender predicted family-supportive supervision when managers were female. Basuil and colleagues did not measure FSSB, however, instead using an adapted version of the Clark (2001) measure of family-supportive supervision which has items possibly reflective of more general perceptions of support rather than specific family-supportive behaviors. It is

therefore possible Basuil and colleagues' findings are attributable to the way family-supportive supervision was measured rather than supervisor gender.

Prior to the development of the FSSB construct, Foley, Linnehan, Greenhaus, and Weer (2006) examined supervisor demographic similarity to subordinates as a predictor of family-supportive supervision. Interestingly, the Foley et al. (2006) study found a modest, but significant relationship between gender similarity and family-supportive supervision, indicating that supervisors were more supportive of same gender subordinates. The Foley et al. (2006) results suggest the supervisor's perceived level of gender similarity to the subordinate may influence higher FSSB, not because they happen to be male or female. As noted above, SIT posits individuals who share an identity group status may show affinity and favoritism to "in-group" members (e.g. Hogg & Reid, 2006). Thus, supervisors who perceive themselves as sharing gender identity with a subordinate may offer higher levels of FSSB to that subordinate.

H3:Supervisors will provide higher FSSB to subordinates of the same gender.

2.3 The Moderating Effect of Occupational Gender-Type on Gendered Antecedents of FSSB

Organizations are gendered contexts that often contain sex-segregated occupations (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). Occupational sex-segregation refers to the funneling of individuals into certain occupations based on their perceived gender role congruity with the job, causing the occupation to become "gender-typed," or categorized as male or female (Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Eagly & Steffen, 1984). An occupation may become "gender-typed" in two ways: when a larger percentage of one sex dominates the occupation (Cejka & Eagly, 1999) and when gender role attitudes lead individuals to

associate one gender with an occupation based on whether masculine or feminine characteristics are associated with success in that occupation (Eagly & Steffen, 1984).

According to Ridgeway and Correll's (2004) seminal work on the gender system and social-relational contexts, when a social group dominates a relational context (such as an occupation), it becomes difficult for individuals to behave in ways inconsistent with the norms of the dominant group, even if they do not wholly subscribe to the dominant group norms. Ridgeway and Correll's explanation of the gender system suggests in contexts dominated by males (the highest status sex group in our society), behavioral expectations of competent work behavior associated with traditional gender roles for men will be difficult to challenge as male qualities and behaviors will be valued most in these contexts (from both men and women). Interestingly, in female-dominated and mixed-gender contexts, pressures to behave in gender-congruent ways weaken substantially or disappear (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004).

Using Ridgeway and Correll's explanation of gendered behavior in social-relational contexts and SRT concepts as a foundation, I expect the gender-type of a subordinate's occupation will moderate the relationship between gender-related antecedents and FSSB. If a subordinate is performing a male-typed occupation, supervisors may give less FSSB to that subordinate as caregiving behavior is incongruent with the masculine qualities "necessary" for competent performance of the male-typed job (Cejka & Eagly, 1999). Supervisors may endorse the belief that subordinates should prioritize work over family more in male-typed occupations than in female- or mixed gender-typed occupations as the "work as priority" norm is associated with competence in male-dominated work environments (Acker, 1990, Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Alternatively, subordinates in male-typed occupations may view communicating a need for family-related support as admission of failure to meet the demands of their jobs, resulting in subordinates foregoing expression of work-family difficulties to supervisors and, consequently, supervisors' lower levels of FSSB. This leads me to hypothesize:

H4A: Gender-type of the subordinate's occupation will have a main effect on perceptions of family-supportive supervisor behaviors in that subordinates in male-typed occupations will perceive lower levels of FSSB than subordinates in female-typed occupations

Subordinates in male-typed occupations with traditional supervisors will likely perceive lower FSSB than subordinates with traditional supervisors in female- or mixed gender-occupations, as caretaking will conflict more with behaviors associated with competence in male-typed occupations, which should matter more to supervisors with traditional gender role attitudes (Cejka & Eagly, 1999). Subordinates with egalitarian supervisors, on the other hand, should perceive higher levels of FSSB in occupations of all gender-types, as the appropriateness of caretaking and work behaviors should be less associated with one gender or another for egalitarian supervisors. Subordinates in male-typed occupations with egalitarian supervisors will likely perceive lower FSSB when compared with subordinates of egalitarian supervisors in female- or mixed gender-typed occupations, however, given the amplified association of competent work performance with masculine behaviors in male-typed occupations. Thus:

H4B1: Subordinates with traditional supervisors working in male-dominated occupations will perceive lower FSSB than subordinates with traditional supervisors working in female- or mixed gender-typed occupations

H4B2: Subordinates with egalitarian supervisors will perceive higher FSSB than subordinates with traditional supervisors in all gender-typed occupations, but those working in male-dominated occupations will perceive lower FSSB than subordinates with egalitarian supervisors working in female- or mixed gender-typed occupations

Supervisors with traditional gender role attitudes will likely provide less support to men than women in all occupations, regardless of gender type, as caregiving behaviors conflict with both behaviors associated with competence performance of work and gender role behaviors associated with being a man. Furthermore, masculine expectations of behavior as both a worker and a man will be more strongly associated with competent performance of a masculine occupation than in female- or mixed gender-typed occupations (Cejka & Eagly, 1999). Women performing family-caretaking behaviors will be perceived as behaving more congruently with their societal gender role than men, though they will be seen as behaving incongruently with their work-related gender role, particularly in male-typed occupations. Traditional supervisors will therefore be perceived as providing higher levels of FSSB to women in occupations of all gender-types, with men in male-typed occupations perceiving the lowest levels of FSSB.

H4c1: For traditional supervisors, female subordinates will perceive higher levels of FSSB than male subordinates in all gender-typed occupations, with females in female-typed occupations perceiving the highest levels of FSSB and men in male-dominate occupations perceiving the lowest levels.

For egalitarian supervisors, male and female subordinates in female- and mixed gender-typed occupations should perceive similar levels of FSSB as neither caregiving nor work behaviors should be associated with either gender. Therefore, provision of FSSB to either men or women should not challenge the gender role attitudes of egalitarian supervisors, and performance of caretaking behaviors will not conflict with expectations of competent work performance in female- or mixed gender-typed occupations to the degree it does in male-typed occupations. Therefore, for egalitarian supervisors of subordinates in male-typed occupations, women and men will likely perceive similar levels of support from supervisors, though the overall level so support

perceived will be lower than perceived by subordinates in female-typed or mixed-gender occupations.

H4c2: For egalitarian supervisors, male and female subordinates will perceive similar levels of FSSB within occupation type, but subordinates in male-typed occupations will perceive lower FSSB than subordinates in female-typed or mixed-gender occupations.

Regardless of the in-group status gender-match between supervisor and subordinate creates, gender role beliefs are powerful societal forces that will likely weaken the relationship between gender match and FSSB for subordinates in male-dominated occupations. While supervisors may be more willing to support subordinates of the same gender, providing FSSB will still be seen as endorsing behaviors incongruent with competent performance of male-typed occupations, and thus, are less likely to be provided to subordinates in male-typed occupations.

H5: The relationship between gender match of the supervisor and FSSB will be weakened when supervisors supervise subordinates in male-typed occupations.

2.4 Outcome Variables

Initial validation studies of the FSSB construct have related it to a variety of employee and organizational outcomes, though the theoretical explanations for these relationships remain somewhat unclear. I will attempt to address this gap by testing consequents previously empirically linked to FSSB using Organizational Support Theory and the transactional model of stress and coping.

2.5 Perceived Organizational Support and Family-Supportive Organizational Perceptions

Organizational Support Theory (OST) suggests employee perceptions of an organization's supportiveness are related to employee well-being and job-related

outcomes, as well as organizational outcomes such as employee retention (e.g. Kurtessis et al, 2017). A key component of OST is perceived organizational support (POS), defined as employee perceptions of “the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being” (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986, p.501). OST suggests supervisor support influences employees’ perceptions of organizational support as direct supervisors are viewed as representatives of their organizations (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Supportiveness perceptions (FSSB) of the supervisor should, therefore, be positively related to employee POS.

In light of OST conceptualizations of the supervisor-organizational support link, it is also likely family-specific supervisor support will be related to global perceptions of family-supportiveness of the larger organization. Allen (2001) identified and tested the construct of family-supportive organizational perceptions (FSOP), defined as “global perceptions that employees form regarding the extent the organization is family-supportive” (p.416). Allen (2001) found relationships between FSOP and work–family conflict, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions for employees across organizations and occupations. In their previously mentioned meta-analysis, Kossek et al. (2011) found family-supportive supervision predicted both FSOP and POS. Kossek et al.’s (2011) findings support the generalization of OST’s supervisor-organizational support connection to family-specific support. Therefore, I hypothesize:

H6,7: Employees who perceive higher levels of FSSB will report higher POS (FSOP)

2.6 Work-Family Conflict

Work-family conflict (WFC) may be understood as a situation where "participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in

the family (work) role" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). According to Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton (2000), work-family conflict can be a significant source of both psychological and physical stress for workers. The transactional model of stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987) suggests employees who perceive themselves as having the capability to cope with threatening stimuli (such as events provoking WFC) may experience lower levels of stress than those who do not believe they have the capability to cope with threatening stimuli. According to the transactional model, individuals perceive events as more or less stressful contingent on their perceived ability to cope with stressful stimuli. FSSB may be viewed as an important resource to cope with work-family challenges, providing a possible explanation for findings linking FSSB to lower WFC. For example, if a worker perceives a stressful stimulus, like a having a sick child who requires them to miss work, but the worker receives FSSB from their supervisor (i.e. work from home that day), the worker likely feels better able to manage the demands of their child and workload, resulting in lower WFC. FSSB has been frequently associated with reductions in WFC in prior research (e.g. Kossek et al., 2011). Thus, I expect to replicate previous findings of a negative relationship between FSSB and WFC.

H8: FSSB will be negatively related to work-to-family conflict.

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

3.1 Participants

The sample included 103 matched supervisor-subordinate pairs of adults working full-time (32+ hours per week) in the United States. Undergraduate university students acted as recruiters (in exchange for extra course credit) to obtain the full-time, working adult participants. Students were offered a chance to either recruit a supervisor-subordinate pair to participate in the study, or to complete an equal alternative assignment for extra credit in their course. This recruitment strategy has been successful in generating diverse samples of matched pairs in prior research of supervisor-subordinate dyads (i.e., Gooty & Yammarino, 2011). The resulting participant sample was 64% female (66 participants), 61% White, and 58% married or partnered. Thirty-nine percent of the sample reported having children aged size and older, 11% had reported having children five years old or younger, and 50% of the sample reported having no children. Due to a clerical error, the age variable was not collected at the time of survey administration, thus age data for the sample was collected between two and six months after the first administration (depending on when participants first took the survey). The age variable data collection obtained age information for 30% of the sample, which revealed an average age of 39 years for participants. Occupation gender-type categories were fairly evenly represented with 30% of participants working in male-dominated occupations, 34% working in female-dominated occupations, and 36% working in mixed-gender occupations.

3.2 Procedure

Student recruiters provided contact information for one or more supervisor-subordinate pairs to the primary investigator via an online form created using Qualtrics software. Identified potential participant pairs were then emailed an introduction to the study and a link to the study survey, also created using Qualtrics software. Once the link was clicked by a participant, the informed consent page appeared providing a description of the study, inclusion criteria, and instructions to access the survey. Participants were asked to check a box indicating their consent to participate in the study, followed by three screening questions confirming they were at least 18 years of age, employed at least 32 hours per week, and working in the US. If participants did not indicate they met the inclusion criteria, they were not directed to take the survey.

312 potential participants were recruited to participate in the survey and 276 returned surveys (88% response rate). Individual responses were removed if the other member of their pair did not complete the survey, if they answered the survey in less than five minutes (average time to complete the survey was between six and seven minutes), if they did not complete the survey, and if they indicated response bias (e.g. failing catch questions or answering all questions with the same response). After these cleaning procedures, 206 matched individual participants remained yielding 103 complete supervisor-subordinate pairs. All participants received the same survey items, regardless of supervisor or subordinate status, to avoid alerting participants to the study aims which could contaminate the data (i.e., supervisors would have only received gender role attitudes questions which could trigger response bias based on the demand characteristics from the knowledge the study was about gender role attitudes). The survey instrument

consisted of study variable measures as well as demographic questions. Participants were incentivized by the awarding of extra credit to their referring student recruiter.

3.3 Measures

Gender Role Attitudes. Gender role attitudes was measured from the supervisor perspective using the 13-item Social Roles Questionnaire (SRQ; Baber & Tucker, 2006). Responses for the SRQ were measured via a Likert-type scale from 1 to 5 anchored at “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree.” The SRQ subsists of two subscales: Gender Transcendence (the degree to which individuals “think about gender in non-dichotomous ways”, Baber & Tucker, 2006, p. 465) and Gender Linked (“attitudes about whether certain roles are associated with a particular gender”, Baber & Tucker, 2006, p.465). The Gender Transcendence scale items were reverse coded, then items were summed for each subscale. To obtain the final composite score, the two subscale scores were averaged. Possible scores range from 0 to 32.5, with higher scores indicating more traditional gender role attitudes and lower scores indicating more egalitarian gender role attitudes.

While other measures such as the Bem Sex Roles Inventory (Bem, 1974) or using select items from the General Social Survey have been used to measure gender role attitudes or attitudes in the past, these measures have been criticized for being outdated and triggering increased social-desirability responding as general public attitudes about gender have changed in the past couple of decades (Baber & Tucker, 2006). The SRQ was designed by adapting items from more commonly used (albeit possibly dated) measures in an attempt to address some of these criticisms. The SRQ has demonstrated convergent, discriminant, and content validity (Baber & Tucker, 2006) and the two subscales (Gender Transcendence and Gender Linked) returned reliabilities of $\alpha = .65$

and $\alpha = .77$ respectively in the measurement development study. While the reliability for the gender transcendence subscale is not ideal, the reduced risks of social-desirability response threats made the SRQ a more attractive option than other outdated measures, and evidence to support validity claims of the SRQ is sufficient. Alpha coefficients for the subscales in the present study were .53 (Gender Transcendent) and .74 (Gender-Linked).

Gender Identity. Gender identity was assessed for both supervisors and subordinates using one item: “Please select the category that best describes your gender identity.” With response options of “Male,” “Female,” and “Other Identity”. For the purposes of this study, only responses of “Male” or “Female” were scored and dummy coded where 1= “Male” and 2 = “Female.”

Gender Match. Gender match between supervisor and subordinate was captured by creating a dummy variable based on matched supervisor-subordinate responses to the gender identity question where 2 = gender match (when supervisor and subordinate are the same gender) and 1 = no match in mixed man-woman supervisor-subordinate dyads.

Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors. The Family-Supportive Supervisor Behavior Short Form (FSSB-SF; Hammer, Kossek, Bodner, & Crain, 2013) was used to measure FSSB as rated by subordinates. The FSSB-SF is a 4-item scale derived from the original 14-item measure (Hammer et al., 2009). Each item represents one of the subscales of the original measure with a response scale of 1 to 5 anchored at “Strongly Disagree” and “Strongly Agree”. The reliability of the FSSB-SF is reported at $\alpha = .823$ (Hammer et al., 2013). The 2009 development study by Hammer and colleagues (two-parts) demonstrated strong content, structural, and convergent validity as well as

incremental validity above and beyond other measures of supervisor support. The FSSB-SF replicated findings from the original 2009 development study (Hammer et al., 2013), suggesting the short form accurately captured FSSB. The FSSB-SF's length paired with its strong reliability and validity evidence are what led to its selection over the longer 14-item measure. The FSSB-SF alpha coefficient for the present study was .87.

Occupational Gender Type. Occupational gender type of the subordinate was assessed using 2017 U.S. Census Data from the IPUMS database. IPUMS allows for the extraction of data regarding the proportion of men and women in occupations nested within industries, for an accurate estimate of gender distribution in occupations. For the present study, the most recent IPUMS coding schemes for occupations (2010) and industries (1990) were used to classify occupations. Occupations were categorized as “female-typed” if the percentage of women working in the occupation is 65% or above, “male-typed” if the percentage of women working in the occupation is 35% or lower, and “mixed-gender” if the percentage of women working in the occupation is between 36% and 64%. This categorization strategy aligns with occupation gender-type percentage cut-offs observed in prior research, which have typically classified occupations as gender-dominated when the proportion of one gender in an occupation ranges from 60%-75% (Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Leijon, Hensing, & Alexanderson, 2004; Rosenfeld & Spenner, 1992). Male-typed occupations were coded as “1”, mixed gender as “2,” and female-typed as “3” and treated as a continuum from male- to female-typed occupations for analysis.

Perceived Organizational Support. Subordinate perceived organizational support was measured using a short form of the Survey of Perceived Organizational

Support (SPOS) consisting of 8 items from the original scale (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Response items are rated on a scale of 1 to 7 and anchored by “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree.” Scale scores were determined by averaging the item ratings; higher scores indicate greater perceptions of organizational support. The original SPOS demonstrated high construct validity (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore & Tetrick, 1991) and convergent validity with measures of affective commitment, organizational commitment, and satisfaction (Shore, & Tetrick, 1991). Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandendenergh, Sucharski, & Rhoades (2002) reported a reliability of $\alpha = .81$ for the SPOS; the short-form selected for this study consists of the same eight items used by Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch (1997), which was found to have a reliability of $\alpha = .90$. Eisenberger et al. (1997) selected these items as they demonstrated high factor loadings for the main effect in the original development study and were most applicable to a wide variety of organizations. The alpha coefficient for the 8-item SPOS in the current study was .86.

Family-Supportive Organizational Perceptions. Subordinate family-supportive organizational perceptions was measured using Booth & Matthews’ 6-item Family-Supportive Organizational Perceptions measure (2012) which relies on a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Items were preceded by the following text: “To what extent do you agree that each of the following statements represent the philosophy or beliefs of your company (remember, these are not your own personal beliefs—but pertain to what you believe is the philosophy of your organization. Booth & Matthews’ measure returned a strong reliability of $\alpha = .88$, higher than the original 9-item version of the measure ($\alpha = .85$) introduced by Allen (2001). Allen’s

original (2001) study established reliability and construct validity of the measure, but Booth & Matthews were able to further establish criterion validity in distilling the measure down further to 6 items. The scale's brevity combined with reliability and validity evidence are what determined its selection for this study. Items were reverse-scores so that higher scores indicate greater perceptions of family-supportiveness by the organization. The alpha coefficient for the FSOP measure for the present study was .82.

Work-Family Conflict. Given evidence suggesting FSSB is most relevant to the work-to-family direction of WFC, I used the Work-to-Family measure of WFC created by Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996) to measure subordinate WFC. This scale has been used to measure FSSB relationships to work-to-family conflict in prior research (Hammer et al., 2009) and allows for the work-to-family direction of WFC to be measured separately from family-to-work conflict without adaptation. The Netemeyer et al. (1996) scale contains 5 items answered on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) and has demonstrated several types of validity evidence. Higher scores represent higher levels of work-to-family conflict. The alpha coefficient for the WFC scale in the present study was .93.

Controls. Prior theory and research on leader characteristics have suggested trait empathy to be an important predictor of prosocial behavior (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987; Zaccarro, 2007). FSSB may be considered a prosocial behavior, and empathy has been related to both general supervisor support as well as FSSB, specifically (Epstein, Marler, & Taber, 2015; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2013). Given the associations supervisor trait empathy may have with FSSB, it is important to understand how gender antecedents predict FSSB above and beyond empathy. To measure supervisor trait empathy, I used

the 4-item scale Other's Emotional Appraisal scale from Wong & Law's (2002) Emotional Intelligence measure ($\alpha = .85$). The Other's Emotional Appraisal subscale has been used to measure supervisor trait empathy in prior research (Epstein, Taber, & Marler, 2015), and Wong & Law (2002) found emotional intelligence to be a multidimensional construct deeming use of the original measure's subscale appropriate. Answers were provided on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

Other control variables included subordinate race, age, and supervisor-subordinate race match. Research into the area of intersectionality have made a strong case for considering how different identities combine to impact employee experiences of the workplace (Berdahl & Moore, 2006; Weaver, Crayne, & Jones, 2016). With this in mind, it is possible that identity factors related to race and age may interact and conflate results related to employee perceptions of their workplace relationships and overall experience of support. Furthermore, to isolate the effects of gender match from other kinds of obvious demographic similarity between supervisors and subordinates, controlling match between subordinate and supervisor due to race allowed for greater confidence in variation in FSSB related to gender match. Participants were asked to identify their racial group affiliation and indicated their age range in the demographic portion of the survey questionnaire, and these variables were controlled for in the final analysis. Race match was computed as a dummy variable using supervisor and subordinate responses to the race demographic question where 2 = race match (both supervisor and subordinate indicate the same race) and 1 = no match (supervisor and subordinate indicate different races). The race match variable was used in analyses examining gender match effects.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1 Data Analysis

Once participants were matched in supervisor-subordinate dyads using email addresses, the data were deidentified and participants were assigned an ID number. Respondents who answered the questionnaire in less than 5 minutes were removed from the analyses. Missing data was very low (<1%), so missing cells were imputed using the respondent's scale average. Path analyses using R version 3.6.1 software were conducted to analyze proposed hypotheses and test for full vs. partial mediation.

4.2 Findings

Descriptive statistics and zero-order correlations are presented in Table 1. POS, FSOP, WFC, and supervisor gender role attitudes scales all demonstrated means near the scale midpoint and standard deviations within about one point on either side of the mean. The mean for FSSB was high, however, ($M = 4.01$ on a 5-point scale) with a standard deviation of .82 representing lower variation in the scores than other measures and suggesting the majority of the sample felt their supervisors provided FSSB. Furthermore, while the WFC scale demonstrated good variability in scores, the sample demonstrated a relatively low mean ($M = 4.53$, $SD = 1.26$ on a 7-point scale). The WFC scores for the current sample indicate the majority of respondents were either neutral or endorsed low WFC (a response of "4" indicated neither agree nor disagree and a response of "5" indicates somewhat agree for this scale). The lower WFC scores for the sample are understandable, given only 11% of the sample had small children, a primary antecedent of WFC. The current sample thus presents lower WFC levels than is likely present in the current U.S. population of working adults given that roughly 40% of families (13 million)

with children under 6 years old have at least one parent currently employed in the U.S. workforce (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018b).

Correlations were generally in the expected direction. Relationships that were significant with $p < .05$ or lower were all aligned with prior research findings. Significant correlations were found between FSSB and POS ($r = .49, p < .001$), FSSB and FSOP ($r = .25, p < .05$), FSOP and POS ($r = .45, p < .05$), WFC and POS ($r = -.21, p < .05$), and WFC and FSOP ($r = -.21, p < .05$). No other correlations for proposed relationships apart from those mentioned above were significant.

To test the proposed path model, I employed path analysis using full maximum likelihood estimation in R version 3.6.1. Results of the path analysis for the full mediation model are presented in Table 2. Given the lack of support for antecedent correlations with FSSB and small sample size, results of the path model should be interpreted with caution. The X^2 value was not significant ($X^2 = 25.801, p = .530$), and fit indices generally indicated the model fit the data well ($CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.04, RMSEA = 0.00$, and $SRMR = .60$). Parameter estimates for the full mediation model are presented in Figure 1. A partial mediation model was also attempted (the partial mediation model is just identified, so fit statistics were not informative, as the model was saturated), but no additional paths were significant, thus the full mediation model was more parsimonious and retained.

Regarding antecedent relationships, a significant path was found for the direct effect of supervisor gender role attitudes to FSSB ($b = -.60, p < .05$), suggesting for every one-unit increase in supervisor's traditionality, a decrease of .60 units might be expected in FSSB. Thus, hypothesis one was supported. Regarding hypothesis two, the

unstandardized path coefficient for the relationship between subordinate gender and FSSB was not significant ($b = .05, p > .05$) yielding no support for hypothesis 2A. The interaction term for the moderated relationship of supervisor gender role attitudes to FSSB by subordinate gender was significant, however, ($b = .33, p < .05$), and the interaction plot for this relationship is depicted in Figure 2. The plotted interaction for the moderated relationship of supervisor GRA to FSSB by subordinate gender indicates women with traditional supervisors perceive greater FSSB than men subordinates with traditional supervisors, supporting hypothesis 2B. Notably, while not hypothesized, the opposite was true for subordinates with egalitarian supervisors, where men perceived higher FSSB than women. Results of the path analysis did not yield support for hypothesis three ($b = .34, p > .05$), which stated subordinates with supervisors of their same gender would perceive higher FSSB than those with a supervisor of a different gender. Likewise, the coefficient for the interaction term for the moderated relationship of supervisor-subordinate gender match to FSSB by subordinate occupational gender type was also non-significant ($b = -.13, p > .05$), thus hypothesis five was also not supported.

Hypotheses concerning occupational gender type of the subordinate received mixed support. Hypothesis 4A regarding the main effect of subordinate occupational gender type on FSSB was not supported as the unstandardized path coefficient was not significant ($b = .47, p > .05$). The interaction term for the moderated relationship of supervisor gender-role attitudes to FSSB by subordinate occupational gender type was significant ($b = .33, p < .05$), however, as was the three-way interaction effect between subordinate occupational gender type, subordinate gender, and supervisor gender-role attitudes on FSSB ($b = -.17, p < .05$). The plot of the interaction effect of subordinate

occupational gender type and supervisor gender role attitudes on FSSB (Figure 3) demonstrates that subordinates with traditional supervisors working in male-dominated occupations perceive lower FSSB than subordinates with traditional supervisors working in mixed-gender and female-dominated occupations. Thus, hypothesis 4B1 is supported. Hypothesis 4B2, however, was not supported. For subordinates with egalitarian supervisors, people working in male-dominated occupations perceived higher FSSB than subordinates working in mixed-gender or female-dominated occupations.

Hypotheses 4C1 and 4C2 each received partial support. The plotted three-way interaction effect of occupational gender type, subordinate gender, and supervisor gender-role attitudes on FSSB is depicted in Figure 4. Hypothesis 4C1 stated women subordinates with traditional supervisors would perceive higher levels of FSSB than men subordinates in all gender-typed occupations, with women in female-typed occupations perceiving the highest levels of FSSB and men in male-dominated occupations perceiving the lowest levels. Figure 4 shows that women subordinates with traditional supervisors did perceive higher FSSB than men subordinates with traditional supervisors in mixed-gender and male-dominated occupations, but perceived roughly the same levels of FSSB as men with traditional supervisors working in male-dominated occupations. Hypothesis 4C2 stated men and women subordinates would perceive similar levels of FSSB within occupation type, but subordinates in male-typed occupations will perceive lower FSSB than subordinates in female-typed or mixed-gender occupations. Figure 4 expresses that men and women subordinates with egalitarian supervisors did not perceive similar levels of FSSB. Rather, men with egalitarian supervisors perceived lower FSSB

than women in all gender-typed occupations, though men in male-typed occupations still perceived the lowest FSSB off all subordinates with egalitarian supervisors.

The path analysis returned significant paths from FSSB to POS ($b = .63, p < .05$) and FSSB to FSOP ($b = .22, p < .05$), but not for FSSB to WFC ($b = -.25, p > .05$). Results suggest for every 1 unit increase in FSSB, we might expect a .63 unit increase in POS and a .22 unit increase in FSOP. Thus, hypotheses 6 and 7 were supported. Contrary to prior findings related to outcomes of FSSB, the path from FSSB to WFC was not significant. Thus, hypothesis 8 was unsupported. It is possible FSSB was not a strong predictor of FSSB in the current sample due to the low number of participants with small children.

4.3 Supplemental Analyses

In addition to the proposed path model, I performed supplemental analyses to test if proposed control variables (empathy, race match, and parental status match) might be predictors of FSSB as prior research has suggested (i.e. Foley et al, 2006). In keeping with social support literature and social identity theory concepts, I created a new path model using empathy, parental status match, and race match between supervisor and subordinate as predictors of FSSB. The full mediation version of this model fit the data ($X^2 = 6.598, p = .793$; CFI = 1.0, TLI = 1.101; SRMR = .042, RSMEA = 0), however, none of the added variables predicted FSSB with $b = .03$ ($p > .05$) for parental status match, $b = .06$ ($p = .757$) for race-match, and $b = .18$ ($p > .05$) for supervisor trait empathy. The partial mediation version of the new model returned the same parameter estimates, and was thus less parsimonious than the full mediation model. Results of the supplemental analyses did not support perceived supervisor empathy nor demographic

similarity between supervisor and subordinate as antecedents of FSSB in the current sample.

4.4 Robustness Checks

To check the robustness of the path analysis results, I ran the proposed model an additional three times, each time removing one of the interactions with occupational gender type found significant in the original path model. None of the subsequent path models with interactions removed showed significant paths from supervisor gender-role attitudes to FSSB or significant interaction terms for any of the occupational gender type interactions. Thus, results of the original path model did not hold, suggesting the possibility of problematic multicollinearity, lack of robustness of coefficients, or suppressor effects among the interaction terms or between the coefficient for the direct path from supervisor gender-role attitudes to FSSB and the interactions terms involving supervisor gender-role attitudes. Thus, results of the original path model should be interpreted with caution.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The aim of the present study was to examine possible gender-related antecedents of family-supportive supervisor behavior. Specifically, it was proposed that the gender role attitudes of the supervisor and gender match in a supervisor-subordinate pair would predict subordinate perceptions of FSSB, and that the subordinate's occupational gender-type would moderate the relationships between these antecedents and FSSB. Results of the path analysis showed some evidence supporting the notion that supervisor gender role attitudes and their interaction with both subordinate gender and subordinate occupational gender type may predict FSSB. These findings are important, as they extend our knowledge of FSSB's nomological net, which until now has not considered gender variables as possible antecedents. Results of the current study may be seen as preliminary evidence for continuing to examine the influence of gender variables of both supervisors and subordinates in the prediction of FSSB.

Findings of the current study align well with propositions of Eagly and Karau's Social Role Theory, which argues men and women may be either rewarded or penalized for acting in congruence with or against societal gender role beliefs. The present study extends Social Role Theory, however, as results suggest the degree to which men or women are rewarded or penalized for adhering to gender norms in the workplace may be contingent on the sex-composition of their occupation. Furthermore, inclusion of the three-way interaction between supervisor gender-role attitudes, subordinate gender, and subordinate occupational gender-type (Figure 4) revealed important differences in how men and women perceive FSSB that were not visible when examining the two-way

interactions between supervisor gender role attitudes and subordinate gender or occupational gender-type alone.

Figure 2 suggests men may perceive higher FSSB than women when they have egalitarian supervisors, and that women perceive higher FSSB than men when they have traditional supervisors. Figure 3 suggests people in male-dominated occupations perceive higher FSSB when they have egalitarian supervisors and that people working in female-dominated and mixed-gender occupations perceive higher FSSB when they have traditional supervisors. When all three variables (supervisor gender-role attitudes, subordinate gender, and subordinate occupational gender type) are allowed to interact, however, we see looking at the two-way interactions in isolation may mask true gender-differences in perceptions of FSSB. Figure 4 shows men generally perceive lower FSSB than women, a finding that aligns with social role theory as caretaking behaviors (typically viewed as “women’s work”) challenge societal gender-role beliefs associated with appropriate male behavior. Men appear to receive a double penalty when it comes to family caretaking, as they may be viewed as behaving inappropriately as men, and as failing to adhere to masculinized ideal worker norms (Acker, 1990), especially when they work in mixed-gender or male-dominated occupations. Women, on the other hand, are always behaving in alignment with their female gender-role expectations when they care for their families, a fact that appears to carry more weight than aligning with ideal worker norms when it comes to provision of FSSB by supervisors.

In female-dominated occupations, however, men perceived virtually the same levels of FSSB as women if they had traditional supervisors, a finding not in line with Social Role Theory. This finding is more aligned with Ridgeway and Correll’s (2004)

social-relational contexts gender theory, which suggests the gender composition of a particular social context (i.e. an occupation) dictates the degree to which people behave according to dominant norms. Ridgeway and Correll (2004) assert that in male-dominated contexts, people tend to behave according to norms of the dominant group (i.e. men), even if they do not necessarily espouse beliefs that align with the dominant group's norms. In female-dominated contexts, however, they argue people may feel less pressure to conform to norms associated with traditional gender-roles. In interpreting Figure 4, we see that men and women perceived differential FSSB regardless of their supervisor's gender-role attitudes, and that the degree to which men or women felt more supported was contingent on the combination of their gender and the gender context of their occupation. This demonstrates the power of the work context to influence a supervisor's offering of FSSB, regardless of their own gender-role attitudes.

As Ridgeway and Correll (2004) proposed, mixed-gender and male-dominated work contexts facilitated lower FSSB from supervisors to men subordinates, regardless of whether supervisors were more traditional or egalitarian in their gender-role attitudes, perhaps due to the power of masculinized societal norms to dominate in these contexts. In female-dominated occupations, however, men and women reported roughly the same levels of FSSB, again, regardless of the supervisor's gender-role attitudes. This finding suggests something about the female-dominated context was able to overpower societal expectations of gendered behavior surrounding work and caregiving. Taken together, findings surrounding the interaction of both subordinate gender and subordinate occupational gender-type with supervisor gender-role attitudes support arguments related to both social role theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) and social-relational context theory

(Ridgeway & Correll, 2004), though they suggest it is the gender context (not supervisor gender-role attitudes) that have the greatest predictive power for FSSB. This finding has implications for both future FSSB research as well as research related to Organizational Support Theory (OST; Eisenberger et al., 2002), as it suggests men and women workers may experience different outcomes of supervisor support depending on whether the type of support offered is gendered or not (i.e. FSSB). Future OST research might include gender variables related to the supervisor, subordinate, and work context if the type of support being examined is expected to be gendered.

Regarding the failure of gender match and occupational gender type to predict FSSB, previous research has been mixed in supporting demographic similarity relations to FSSB, with some studies finding support and others finding no evidence of a relationship, as noted in earlier sections (i.e., Foley et al., 2006). Furthermore, it is possible that other organizational factors, such as family-supportive organizational culture or presence of family-supportive policies, have greater influence on supervisor offerings of FSSB than their personal gender role attitudes or social identification with subordinates (Cook, 2009). For example, signaling theory suggests both organizations and employees behave in ways that help reduce information asymmetries in ambiguous situations, such as a supervisory situation (Connelly, Certo, Ireland, and Reutzel, 2011). If an organization's culture and policies signal to supervisors that provision of FSSB is supported, or even expected, by the organization, it is possible the organization's pressures will override any individual notions of supervisors regarding gender role attitudes and providing support. On the other hand, if an organization's culture and policies are not family-friendly, workers may not ask for FSSB for fear of signaling to

their supervisors that they are less than the ideal worker (regardless of their gender). Capturing organizational culture and family-friendly policy variables would be helpful in future research on antecedents of FSSB, though obtaining accurate measures of culture can be challenging and the fact that policies exist does not necessarily mean an organization is family-friendly (Kirby & Krone, 2002). Furthermore, it would be interesting to see if the gender composition of an organization has any relationship to the presence of more family-friendly policies or a more family-supportive culture, as the findings of the present study and Ridgeway & Correll's social-relational context theory (2004) support the notion that gender context may override individual gender-role attitudes.

One unexpected finding in the current study was the non-significant relationship between FSSB and WFC. The present sample demonstrated relatively low levels of WFC and high levels of FSSB than what might be expected in a sample including more workers with small children, which may have contributed to the unexpected non-significant relationship. Given the fact that only 11% of the sample had children under the age of five and that the average age of the sample was 39 years, the sample is likely not representative of the greater population of US workers (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018b). If the sample contained more individuals earlier in their careers with small children, we may have seen higher levels of work-family conflict and more variation in the FSSB measure. People with higher WFC, like first-time parents at lower levels of organizational hierarchies, may be more sensitive to supervisor FSSB due to the salience of their work-family needs, or they may need more in the way of FSSB. If employees do not have much need for FSSB and relatively low WFC, they may not have

yet had a true test of whether their company would support them when times get tough. Future research should attempt to obtain larger, more representative samples to test the relationships proposed in the present study, and perhaps control for work-family conflict at time one when examining work-family conflict as an outcome of FSSB at later time points. Longitudinal models may also allow for controlling other factors known to contribute to individuals' selection into certain gender-dominated fields, such as education level and spouse's employment status (del Rio & Alonso-Villar, 2015).

More sufficient samples and longitudinal study designs to test the proposed relationships for the present study would not only allow for the testing gender-related antecedents, but when compared to the findings of the present study, may shed light on whether or not FSSB is more important during certain times of a worker's life (i.e. early parenthood and early career). Understanding when workers need FSSB may aid researchers and practitioners alike in developing more timely and effective interventions to support workers' work-family management.

CHAPTER 6: LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Limitations

The present study experienced several limitations. First and foremost, the analyses were conducted using cross-sectional data from the first time-point of a proposed three-wave longitudinal study, so claims of causality cannot be made at this time. It is necessary to continue collecting data for each of the proposed three waves until a large enough sample size may be obtained to sufficiently power analyses (a G*Power analysis suggested 119 pairs would be needed to sufficiently power the present analysis), and so the mediation model may be appropriately tested. For the present study, a longitudinal model was originally proposed, however, obtaining a large enough sample of supervisor-subordinate pairs proved challenging. The first attempt to collect the paired sample via online snowball sampling produced only 14 pairs (though returned over 270 individual responses) and a second sampling attempt had to be made using the procedures outlined in previous sections. While the second attempt proved more efficient at obtaining pairs, it still took nearly six months to acquire the current sample of 103 usable pairs. Furthermore, use of student recruiters to obtain the sample did not result in a representative sample of US workers in the second sampling attempt, evidenced by the underrepresentation of participants with small children. It is possible that college student recruiters were more likely to use their friends and parents as participant contacts, who were likely either younger or older than workers facing the largest work-family management demands (early career individuals in initial child-rearing years). Future studies should try to capture a more representative sample of the population.

Finally, while path analysis is a sufficient technique that requires less observations to perform model testing, future research should explore testing the model with structural equation modeling techniques as these allow for correction of measurement error. Given the difficulty in measuring gender role attitudes (internal consistency for both subscales of the SRQ were low), structural equation modeling, with its ability to assess the quality of the measurement model as well as the structural relationships may provide more accurate parameter estimates and allow for better assessment of which scale items are the culprits.

Additionally, the present study design employed a self-report survey method of data collection for participants across multiple organizations (matched with supervisors' ratings of their gender role attitudes). This method allows for the measurement of employee *perceptions* of FSSB, which may not accurately capture whether or not a supervisor actually performs FSSB. Measuring employee perceptions of FSSB is, however, arguably more important when considering consequences of FSSB as it is whether or not the employee notices support that ought to influence outcomes (Hammer et al, 2009). In exploring antecedents, however, measuring only perceptions of FSSB may limit the predictive ability of antecedent variables; this is: supervisors may be performing FSSB, but subordinates do not notice. Future studies may wish to capture both perceptions of FSSB and attempt to find additional objective measures, or at least capture supervisor responses regarding their own provision of FSSB as well as subordinates' views of FSSB to assess any discrepancies in the two.

Using survey collection methods for the present work also made the assessment of organizational culture and presence of work-family policies unrealistic. Both

organizational culture and presence of work-family-friendly policies may contribute to whether or not supervisors provide FSSB given the strength of macro organizational factors to influence employee behavior (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004, Hammer et al., 2009). Thus, future research might consider conducting case studies of large organizations (containing occupations of all gender-types) where organizational culture and work-family policies may be captured with mixed qualitative and quantitative data sources so they might be controlled for or added to models of FSSB antecedents.

6.2 Implications and Future Research

Despite these limitations, the present study contributes to the FSSB literature in three major ways. First, the present study extends what is currently known about the nomological network of FSSB. Results of the current study provide preliminary evidence that gender variables related to supervisors (gender-role attitudes), subordinates (own gender), and work context (occupational gender-type) may be antecedents of FSSB. Second, this study provides theoretical support for both social role theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) and social-relational context theory (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004), but extends these theories by suggesting social-relational contexts can overpower gender-role beliefs of individuals. Future research should examine under what conditions social-relational contexts do or do not override individual gender-role beliefs, for example, it is possible more proximal contexts (i.e. work teams) might prove even more powerful than distal contexts (i.e. occupation) in predicting adherence to gender norms. Finally, findings of the present study extend what is known about outcomes of FSSB as they suggest workers at different life and career stages may perceive FSSB differently. The sample's skew toward older individuals with no young children yielded different results

for relationships between FSSB and WFC (i.e. no relationship), and less variation in the FSSB variable, suggesting future research into FSSB antecedents and consequences should critically consider the positioning of WFC in FSSB's as perhaps both an antecedent and an outcome, and study FSSB longitudinally. It is possible an individual's initial levels of WFC predict FSSB, which then predicts later levels of WFC. People with higher baseline WFC likely have more need for FSSB than those with lower WFC, which may result in greater support seeking from supervisors and more chances for supervisors to demonstrate FSSB. Study both WFC and FSSB at multiple timepoints could provide important insight into how WFC and FSSB are related over time.

In terms of practical implications of the present study, findings suggest practitioners should focus not only on helping leaders recognize their own gender biases (though this is important), but should consider what structural changes might be made to the work environment to support more equal support experiences for men and women. If the work context has the power to override individual supervisors' gender-role attitudes, what changes might be made to the context to affect gender-equality in FSSB? For example, practitioners might consider amending policies around flexible work arrangements, as affording all employees equal access to flexible arrangements might help alleviate challenges for both men and women to achieve their work tasks and provide care for children or other family members. One example of the positive effects of policy changes can be found in Moen, Kelly, and Hill's (2011) study where the researchers were able to demonstrate the utility of implementing flexible work arrangements at a large retail organization. Moen, Kelly, and Hill (2011) found flexible work arrangements helped reduce work-family challenges for employees without

detriment to work performance. Gender biases are persistent and flexible forces, but structural changes that promote gender equality can be powerful combatants, especially when mandated from the top down (Kalev, 2009).

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations

Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations for Study Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Gender	--	--	--							
2. Occ Gender Type	--	--	.39**	--						
3. Gender Match	--	--	-.10	.04	--					
4. FSSB	4.01	.82	-.001	.14	.10	(.87)				
5. POS	5.28	1.07	-.07	.14	.02	.49**	(.86)			
6. FSOP	3.82	.73	.13	-.12	.18	.25*	.45**	(.82)		
7. WFC	4.53	1.26	-.18	-.17	.05	-.12	-.21*	-.21*	(.93)	
8. Supervisor GRA	13.82	3.49	-.04	.003	-.12	-.07	.08	.07	-.14	--

*Note: N=103 matched supervisor-subordinate pairs. All variables reported by subordinates except Supervisor GRA and Occupational Gender Type which was coded from Census data. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$. All scales were measured with a response scale of 1 to 5 except Perceived Organizational Support (1 to 7) and Work-Family Conflict (1 to 7). Gender Role Attitudes consisted of two subscales (5 items and 8 items) which were summed and then averaged to produce a possible score between 6.5 and 32.5. GRA = Gender Role Attitudes, Occ = Occupational, FSSB = Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, FSOP = Family-Supportive Organizational Perceptions, WFC = Work-Family Conflict, GRA = Gender Role Attitudes*

Table 2: Test of Full Mediation Path Model Fit

Test of Full Mediation Path Model Fit

Model	<i>Test of Overall Fit</i>			<i>Fit Indices</i>			
	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>TLI</i>	<i>SRMR</i>
Full Mediation All Variables	21.910	21	.405	0.021	.983	.972	.06

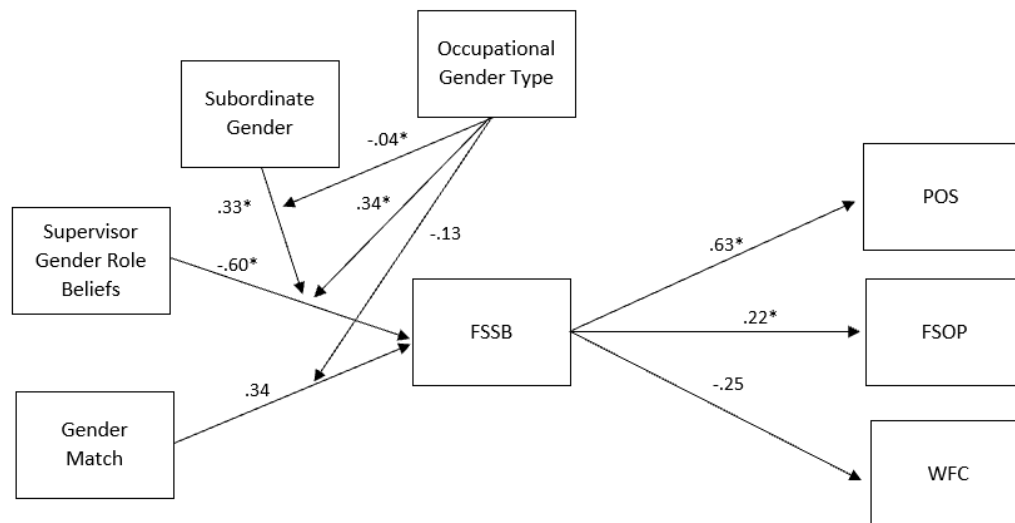


Figure 1. Path Analysis Results for Hypothesized Model. $N = 103$, $*p < .05$. Path coefficients are unstandardized. FSSB = Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, FSOP = Family-Supportive Organizational Perceptions, WFC = Work-Family Conflict.

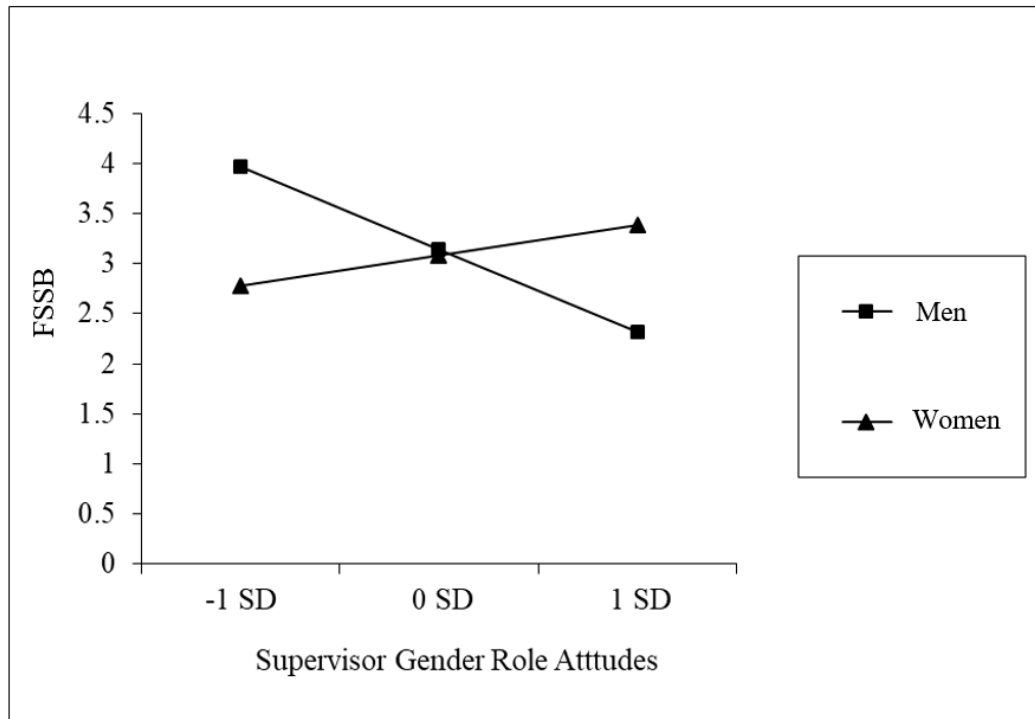


Figure 2. Interaction of Supervisor Gender-Role Attitudes and Subordinate Gender. $N = 103$. FSSB = Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors.

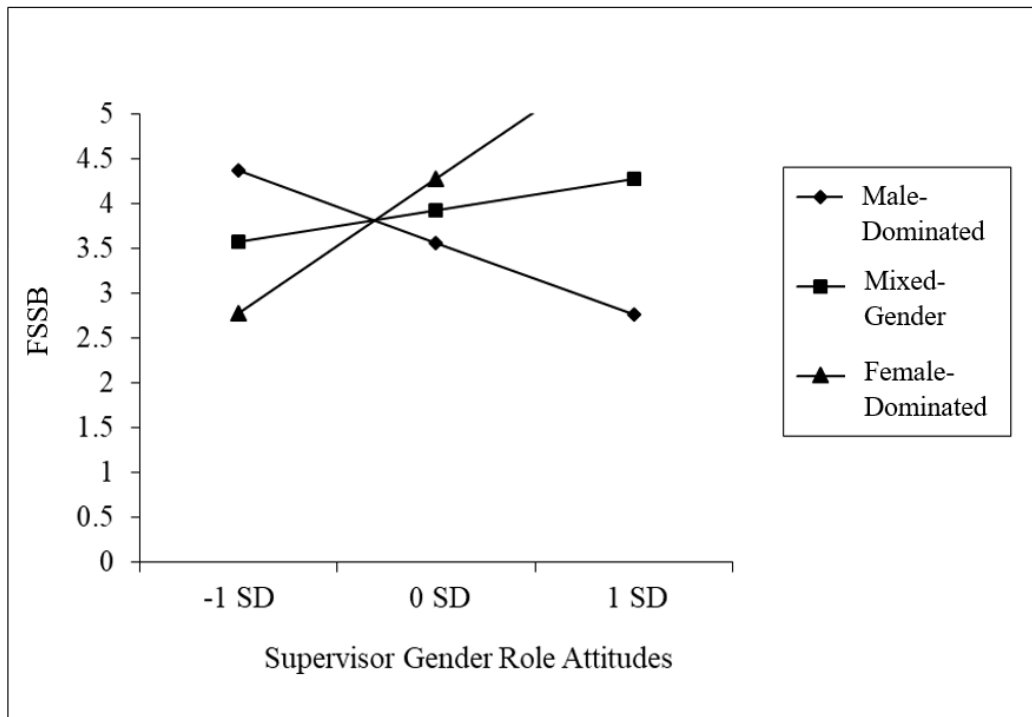


Figure 3. Interaction of Supervisor GRA and Occupational Gender Type.
N = 103. FSSB = Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors.

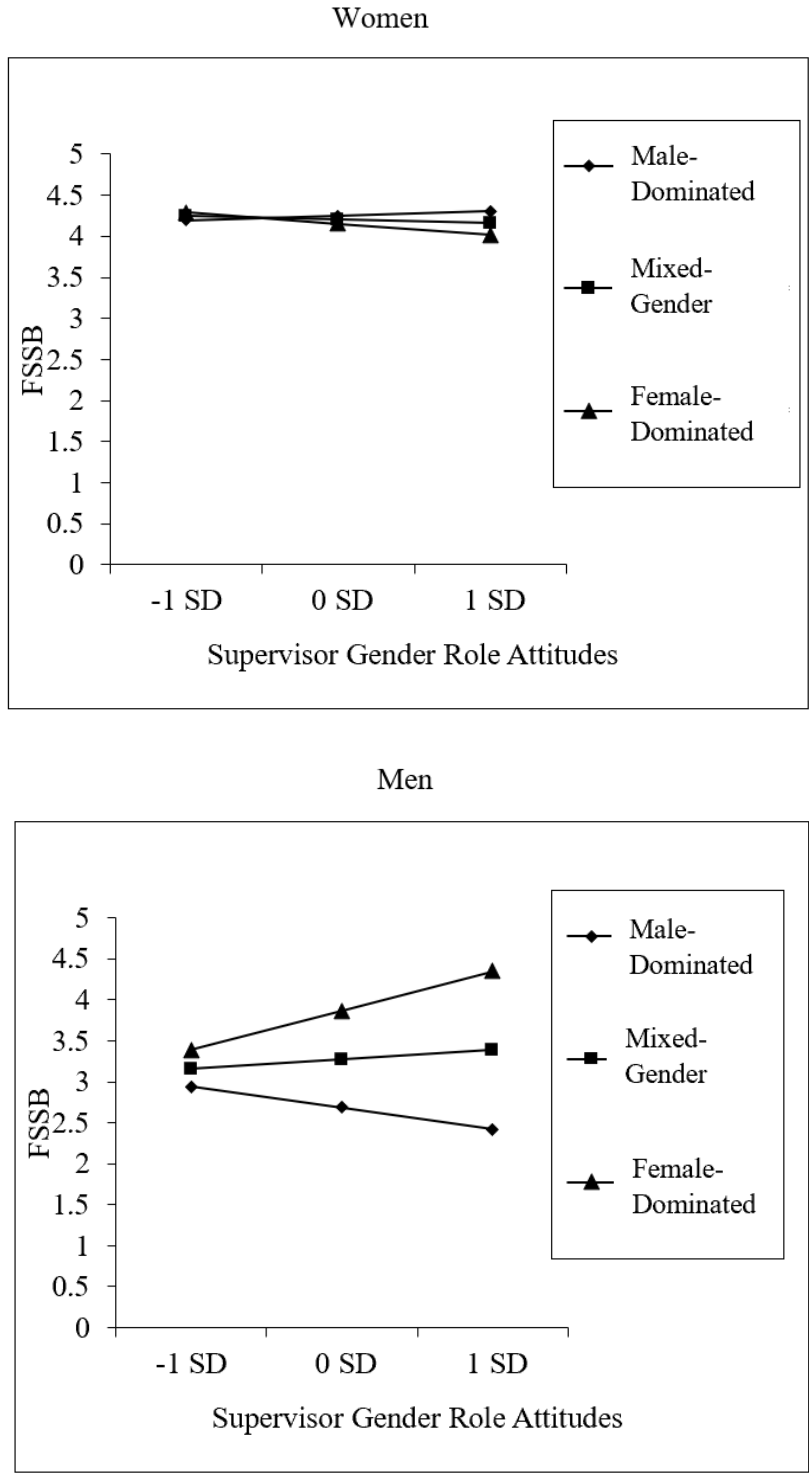


Figure 4. Three-way interaction of Supervisor GRA, Subordinate Gender, and Occupational Gender Type. Women: $N = 66$; Men: $N = 37$. FSSB = Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors.

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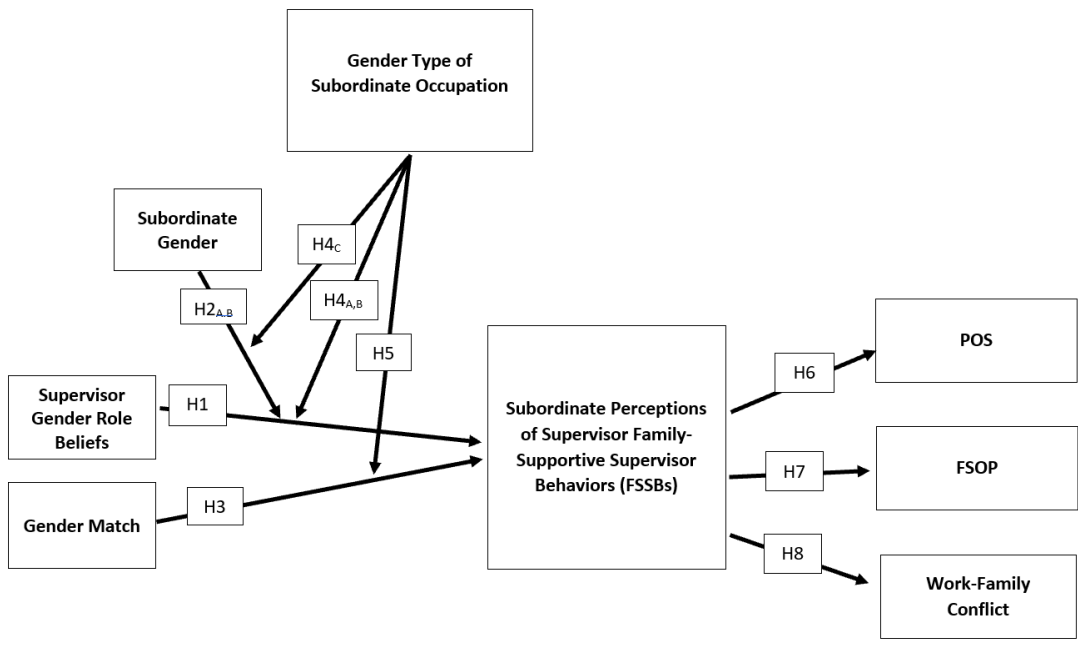
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APPENDIX A: PROPOSED MODEL



APPENDIX B: LIST OF SCALES AND ITEMS

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

- **Gender**

- Please select the category that best describes your gender identity:
 - Male (1)
 - Female (2)
 - Other (not included in study)

- **Race**

- Please select the category that best describes your racial identity:
 - Asian/Asian-American (1)
 - Black/African-American(1)
 - Hispanic/Latin-American (1)
 - Native American/Alaskan Native (1)
 - Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (1)
 - White/Caucasian (0)
 - Multiracial (1)
 - Another race: (1)
 - Please indicate [open text field]:

- **Age**

- Select your age in years [slider]

- **Industry**

- IPUMS industries [drop-down]
 - Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting, and Mining
 - Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction
 - Construction
 - Manufacturing
 - Wholesale Trade
 - Retail Trade
 - Transportation and Warehousing, and Utilities
 - Utilities
 - Information
 - Finance and Insurance
 - Real Estate and Rental and Leasing
 - Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services
 - Management of companies and enterprises
 - Administrative and support and waste management services
 - Educational Services
 - Health Care and Social Assistance
 - Accommodation and Food Services
 - Other Services, Except Public Administration
 - Public Administration

- Active Duty Military
- **Occupation**
 - Please list your occupation [open text field]

GENDER ROLE BELIEFS

Baber, K.M. & Tucker, C.J. (2006). The social roles questionnaire: A new approach to measuring attitudes toward gender. *Sex Roles*, 54(7-8), 459-467, DOI:10.1007/s11199-006-9018-y.

Response Scale:

Respondents circle (click) the degree to which they agree with the statement. Gender transcendence items are reverse-scored, then subscale items are averaged; higher scores = more traditional gender role attitudes. 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

Item	Subscale
1. People can be both aggressive and nurturing regardless of sex. (R)	Gender Transcendence
2. People should be treated the same regardless of their sex. (R)	
3. The freedom that children are given should be determined by their age and maturity, not by their sex. (R)	
4. Tasks around the house should not be assigned by sex. (R)	
5. We should stop thinking about whether people are male or female and focus on other characteristics. (R)	
6. A father's major responsibility is to provide financially for his children.	Gender Linked
7. Men are more sexual than women.	
8. Some types of work are just not appropriate for women.	
9. Mothers should make most decisions about how children are brought up.	
10. Mothers should work only if necessary.	
11. Girls should be protected and watched over more than boys.	
12. Only some types of work are appropriate for both men and women.	
13. For many important jobs, it is better to choose men instead of women.	

FAMILY SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISION BEHAVIORS

Hammer, L.B., Kossek, E.E., Bodner, T.E., & Crain, T. (2013). **Measurement development and validation of the Family Supportive Supervisor Behavior Short-Form (FSSB-SF)**. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 18*(3), 285-296.

Response Scale:

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

Item	Subscale
1. Your supervisor makes you feel comfortable talking to him/her about your conflicts between work and non-work	Emotional Support
2. Your supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and non-work issues	Role Modeling
3. Your supervisor works effectively with employees to creatively solve conflicts between work and non-work	Instrumental Support
4. Your supervisor organizes the work in your department or unit to jointly benefit employees and the company	Creative Work-Family Management

PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 500-507.

Response Scale:

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = Neither agree nor disagree; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = Strongly Agree

Item
1. My organization really cares about my well-being.
2. My organization cares about my opinions.
3. If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me (R)
4. My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.
5. My organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor.
6. My organization shows little concern for me. (R)
7. Help is available at my organization when I have a problem.
8. My organization strongly considers my goals and values.

FAMILY-SUPPORTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS

Booth, S. M., & Matthews, R. A. (2012). Family-supportive organization perceptions: Validation of an abbreviated measure and theory extension. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 17*, 41–51. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0026232>

Instructions:

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

Response Scale:

1 = Disagree, 2 = Somewhat Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Agree

Item
1. Work should be the primary priority in a person’s life (R)
2. Employees who are highly committed to their personal lives cannot be highly committed to their work (R)
3. Attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children is frowned upon (R)
4. Individuals who take time off to attend to personal matters are not committed to their work (R)
5. It is assumed that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their family life (R)
6. The ideal employee is the one who is available 24 hours a day (R)

WORK-TO-FAMILY CONFLICT

Netemeyer, R. G., Boles, J. S., & McMurrin, R. (1996). Development and validation of work–family conflict and family–work conflict scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(4), 400.

Response Scale:

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = Neither agree nor disagree; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = Strongly Agree

Item
1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.
2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill 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 work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities